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Activities of the Principal

Edited by
ARTHUR S. GIST

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THE EDUCATION of the public as to the opportunities and the service of the elementary school principal rests on all of us.—Uel W. Lamkin, *Bulletin*, July, 1928, p. 670.

Edwards,
Darius
4-30-29
Cuba,

PREFACE

THE DEPARTMENT of Elementary Schools Principals of the National Education Association is a rapidly growing organization. It is increasing constantly in numbers and in influence. During the early part of its existence it was very doubtful if the publications would be possible. The expense was great to a young organization and the material very difficult to secure. Now after a few years, the department finds the financing of its publications less of a problem, and the collection of valuable studies much easier. Non-members and other organizations find the publications of interest and value. The increase in interest in the various activities of the department is very gratifying.

The department hopes this yearbook will be of value to elementary school principals, and to others interested in elementary education.

Again the appreciation of the department is extended to members of the official staff at the headquarters of the National Education Association for valuable services rendered in preparing this publication.

ARTHUR S. GIST,
Editor, Eighth Yearbook
Principal, Training School,
San Francisco State Teachers College

AS VAN DYKE sang the praise of the unknown teacher, may I sing the praise of the unknown principal? Great superintendents plan school systems, but the principal leads and guides the teachers. He communicates his own joy in service and shares with them the treasures of his mind. He lights many candles which in later years will shine back to cheer him. This is his reward.—Cornelia S. Adair, *Proceedings, National Education Association*, 1928, p. 729.

LOOK INTO YOUR MIRROR

IN 1920 there was no national department of elementary school principals. State associations of principals scarcely existed. Only in a few isolated localities were there outstanding professional groups. Seldom did one hear of challenging efforts to magnify the principalship.

The nine intervening years have brought remarkable changes. Study groups of elementary school principals may be found in the smallest communities. State associations are gaining in strength and numbers. The time is rapidly approaching when five thousand principals will be contributing to and enjoying the benefits of our strong national Department.

This growth is solid. It is the outcome of persistent effort by individuals within our own ranks. But no less important has been the encouragement and faith of far-sighted superintendents. They have done much to magnify the principalship. Our co-workers, the supervisors, have joined with us in solving mutual problems. Classroom teachers have looked forward to the day when we would assume the professional leadership which the principalship requires.

The idealism and improved technics of progressive supervision are being widely adopted. Many persons are joining the ranks of the trained and professionally-minded administrator. But there are pitfalls in this rapid growth. Principals can use their new authority to handicap the work of other professional groups. Such abuses—few as they are—arise when individuals adopt the *form* and not the *spirit* of the new principalship. Again, a little knowledge without vision proves dangerous!

The solution of this difficulty lies with each principal. Little can be gained by personal criticism of our co-workers. Rather, each of us must honestly face such questions as these: Do I have the preparation necessary to be a genuine supervisor? Can I maintain a high level of work without continuous self-improvement? Do I realize that supervision is a coöperative enterprise involving superintendents, supervisors, and principals? Am I handicapped by my ignorance of broad supervisory objectives? Are the teachers under my control gaining in the power of self-direction?

Such questions can be answered by the individual only in terms of his local situation. The answers given will mean much for our

national aspirations. We may expect the future to bring many benefits through the committees, yearbook and meetings of our national Department. But these advances must draw upon the ability and enthusiasm of individuals. Let each of us make a critical inventory of his talents and shape his efforts toward ever higher levels of functioning. Does your self-evaluation mirror reflect a satisfying image?

While we are considering images, let us have a look at our friends at Headquarters. Secretary Crabtree has long encouraged principals in service through our Department. The counsel and help of Mr. Shankland is indispensable. Our committees and officers rejoice in the friendly coöperation and untiring efforts of the Research Division. With the continued aid of these good friends our Department will give an ever increasing program of service to the elementary school principals of the nation!

EVA G. PINKSTON

*President, Department of Elementary
School Principals*

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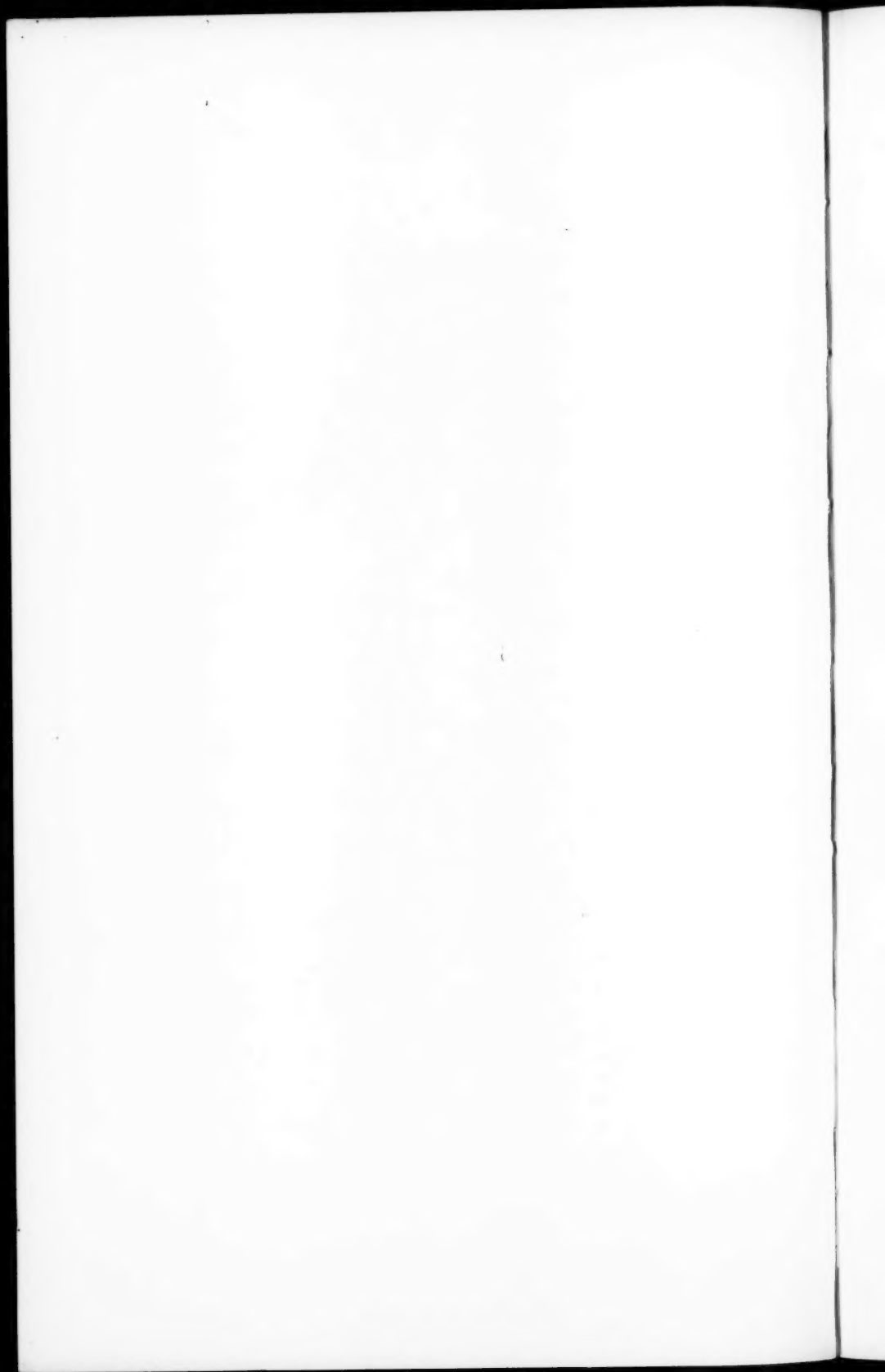
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PART ONE
ACTIVITIES OF THE PRINCIPAL



CHAPTER I

RECENT DEVELOPMENT OF SUPERVISION IN THE OAKLAND PUBLIC SCHOOLS¹

WILLIAM S. BRISCOE
Principal, Chabot School, Oakland, California

HOW SUPERVISION is defined depends upon who defines it. The supervisor is likely to define it in terms of its aims; the supervised is likely to define it in terms of what is done, and the administrator is very likely to define it in terms of the results. All three are important: the aims, the methods, and the results.

The aim of all supervision may be said to be to effect such changes in the behavior of teachers as will result in the improvement of instruction. The only difference between plans of supervision is the method by which this changed behavior is to be brought about and, of course, in the attendant results.

OAKLAND'S PHILOSOPHY OF METHOD IN SUPERVISION

In Oakland the best method of achieving the aims of supervision is thought of as "teaching," not in the sense that the word usually connotes, but in its more ideal meaning of "stimulating and assisting the individual to find his problems and to solve them." If one is to find his own problems and to work them out, he must be given considerable freedom and responsibility.²

THE ORGANIZATION OF SUPERVISION

It is evident that such a philosophy of method would require a certain administrative set-up. It is the policy of the Oakland Public Schools to center responsibility in the office of the principal. The

¹ This article describes supervision as developed under the direction of Rudolph D. Lindquist, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, Oakland, California.

² In reading the following account, it is necessary to bear in mind that supervision is defined herein as that procedure on the part of a principal or supervisor which is intended to effect a change for the better in the *teaching skill* of the classroom teacher. The criterion of whether or not they succeed as supervisors is not simply that of "Do the teachers know more about classroom technics and problems?" but rather, "Are the teachers more critical students of their own classroom technic and materials, and are they more effective in the use of the technics and materials?"—*Editor*.

principal is not only the chief executive officer in his school, but is also the chief supervisory officer, and as such is responsible for all instruction in his school. Courses of study which have been worked out by committee groups to aid in his educational program are provided for him and his teachers, and there are also special supervisors whose knowledge and skill may be enlisted in helping him to set up a program of supervision and to carry it through.

The function of the subject supervisor does not encroach upon that of the principal. The specialist supervisor finds himself faced with the duties and the authority of a technician. He must teach teachers to become proficient in his subject and he must acquaint principals with standards and methods that they may assist in directing and in improving instruction in his subject. He has the responsibility of assisting principal and superintendent in the formation of general educational policies and plans, especially as they relate to his field. It is his duty to assist in survey of teaching practices and results, and in diagnosis and remedy of difficulties. He must cause principals, teachers, and superintendents to make such changes in practices and management as will result in improved instruction. He must cause all these things to be done solely by force of the respect others have for his knowledge, skill, and ability, by virtue of the validity and soundness of his investigations, and by his personal power to elicit purposeful thinking and right responses to situations which involve his subject. One might say that the principal is a branch manager in the city's business of educating boys and girls, and that the supervisor is his consulting engineer.

From the viewpoint of the principal the typical situation is this: he has a school, let us say, of 800 youngsters and 20 teachers; he has certain educational materials and supplies; he has a course of study which sets up educational objectives and outlines methods; and he has a corps of specialist supervisors. What shall his program be, and how shall he make effective use of each agency at his disposal? Certainly these are tasks in the solving of which the intelligent principal and supervisor will welcome aid, and, of course, supervision in its finest sense means simply that.

SUPERVISORY ORGANIZATION AS CARRIED OUT IN 1927-1928

The superintendent in charge of elementary schools, in conference with the elementary principals and supervisors, defined coöperative supervision and outlined a method of achieving it. His remarks may be outlined as follows:

1. Supervision involves helping teachers
 - a. To develop a theory of instruction
 - b. To acquire skill in putting theory into practice
2. Teachers develop a theory and acquire skill
 - a. By being made aware of the exact nature of the problems which they face as teachers of children
 - b. By being encouraged and guided in the solution of these problems
3. Supervision, then, involves
 - a. A definite procedure for helping teachers to locate their problems
 - b. Skill in helping them to solve their problems.

Supervision of instruction is essentially a coöperative process involving the development of a theory of instruction and the acquisition of skill in putting theory into practice. Certainly, that process can also be applied to the improvement of supervision so that principals and supervisors may assist each other in developing a *theory of supervision* and in putting such theory into practice. After all, a theory of supervision is merely a theory of instruction as it applies to *training supervisors*.

CONFERENCE GROUPS DECIDED UPON

Believing such to be possible, the assistant superintendent caused principals and supervisors to be organized into groups for the study of their problems as supervisors. The aim was to bring together all who were concerned with the same educational problem that they might profit from an exchange of experiences and from organized study of problems common to the group. Thus, if the supervision of arithmetic presented difficulty to certain principals, they organized into a group for the study of that problem and the arithmetic supervisor and the superintendent in charge met with them as members of the group.

At the end of the year's work, the purposes for which the conference groups had been organized were stated as follows:

1. Discussion of methods of teaching children
2. Discussion of methods of teaching teachers (supervision)
3. Practice of reporting to the group on supervision to serve as an incentive to practice supervision
4. Criticism of supervisory practice to help principal improve his supervision
5. Practice in leading conference groups, followed by criticism of the procedure.

These purposes were not achieved to the same extent in any two groups, and this is one factor that has contributed to the interest of the work. Whereas one group has emphasized the discussion of method, another has emphasized supervision, and still another has emphasized the conference procedure as a method in supervision.

I have tried to keep two things constantly before me. First, that if we are to make any progress we must really think about our problems. Educational terminology, as that in other fields of endeavor, is filled with hackneyed and stereotyped phrases which, though once significant, have come to be formal and meaningless. Unless we ask ourselves constantly, "What will this method or procedure mean in terms of changed behavior of teacher and children?" we are apt to find ourselves just talking glibly about things educational.

Second, I have tried to keep in mind that no two individuals have exactly the same needs and that what means growth and development for one person may be useless for another. The big thing, after all, for one who is charged with administrative or supervisory or teaching responsibility, is that he realize the problems in his own field, and that he work persistently and intelligently in solving them. If he can do this in a spirit of loyalty to the child, the result will be a maximum amount of growth for him and the greatest possible return to the Oakland Public Schools.¹

HOW THE PRINCIPALS' GROUPS WERE FORMED

Each principal was requested to submit his plan for the improvement of instruction in his school. These plans were made the basis for the organization of conference groups, principals interested in the same problems being placed in the same group. All but seven principals gave as their first choice of problems to be studied, arithmetic, English composition, social studies, and reading. These four groups constituted the conference groups for the first semester. During the second semester an additional group took as its task the evaluation of supervision.

WHAT THE CONFERENCES DID

Each of these conference groups met five times during the semester. The meetings were held on school time and minutes of each meeting were recorded for reference. Each group outlined its own problems and proceeded to solve them in its own way. The same aims were not apparent in any two groups nor were the results comparable.

Conference group on English composition—This group, while it placed emphasis upon discussion of methods of teaching, also devoted considerable attention to the reporting of practices in supervision and to practicing conference leadership. Different members of the group served as chairmen.

¹Statement by Rudolph D. Lindquist, Assistant Superintendent, Oakland, California.

Conference group on reading—In this group less emphasis was placed on training in conference leadership than in the English group. Each member of the group submitted a list of problems. These concerned methods, materials, and supervision. Most of the discussion, however, dealt with methods of organization for reading instruction, and only incidentally with problems of supervision. The technic of conference leadership received scarcely any direct attention. In demonstrating how diversified can be the types of development in a group of people working upon the same general problem, the conference was most interesting.

The main achievement of the group was a rather careful and thorough-going analysis of two types of classifications for reading instruction—"the group method within a single room" and "vertical classification involving the grouping of children from several rooms."

Conference group on arithmetic—This group really resolved itself into a seminar on methods of teaching arithmetic. Though it did not consider supervision directly, its work had rather far-reaching effect in changing classroom practices and procedures in the various schools represented.

Conference group on social studies—A marked attempt was made by this group to learn the conference method and to become practiced in it as a procedure for conducting teachers' meetings.

Each member was given opportunity to lead the group in discussion. He was expected to draw such ideas out of the group as would assist in solving the problem at hand. The method employed might properly be called Socratic. At the close of each conference, time was taken to analyze and to evaluate the work of the chairman. At the conclusion of the series of conferences the group was unanimously agreed that their abilities as conference leaders had been greatly improved.

CONFERENCE GROUP ON THE EVALUATION OF SUPERVISION

A group of twelve elementary principals set out to evaluate the supervision of each member of the group. A more detailed report of what this group did is given below. The first approach to the problem was to define it, and the following definition was decided upon:

Supervision is leadership in coöperative educational effort which proceeds toward clearly defined general aims by a series of specific objectives or steps.

First attack on the problem of evaluating supervision—Obviously, there remained, then, the comparatively simple task of applying the definition as a measure to some of the supervisory schemes of the

principals. But the logical definition could not be applied in its raw state. Further refining was necessary because there was no unanimity of opinion as to what it meant. Therefore, the group proceeded to agree upon a list of specific evidences of good supervision which would fit the general definition. A committee was appointed to try the list out on some principal's supervisory scheme. This is the list which the committee tried to apply:

1. Do the teachers respect their principal personally?
2. Do they respect his ability, his knowledge, his effort, his attitude, his skill in administering the school and the discipline?
3. Do the teachers bring their problems to the principal?
4. Are the teachers able to put forth their best efforts in the presence of the principal?
5. Does the principal encourage initiative?
6. Does he secure coöperative, loyal, and cheerful work from his faculty?
7. Does he encourage professional study; university courses?
8. Does he encourage his teachers so that they read professional books and magazines?
9. Does he encourage breadth of interests and activities in his faculty?
10. Are the motives for professional study in his group desirable?

Conclusion of first attack on the problem—The committee appointed to evaluate supervision by these ten points reported that they were entirely too subjective. Such evidences of supervision could not always be obtained. In the opinion of the committee, an examination of the principal's written plan would yield better results. They believed that the written plan could be measured by the following scale and marked A, B, or C, according to the manner in which it:

1. Makes provision for discovering problems.

An A Plan—Principal plans program of tests and measurements; visits classrooms systematically, looking for problems; holds informal group conferences to discover problems.

A B Plan—Principal analyzes reports of research department to find problems; has formal meetings to tell teachers the problems he has selected to study.

A C Plan—Principal does not ask for or plan a testing program; ignores results of research department; has no meetings on professional problems.

2. Makes provision for attacking problems discovered.

An *A* Plan—Is comprehensive, well balanced, and coöperatively made; contains a statement of specific objectives and a procedure for achieving them; contains an easily adjusted time schedule.

A *B* Plan—Is one-sided and arbitrarily made; purposes are general; procedure is haphazard and indefinite.

A *C* Plan—Principal has no written plan; makes only sporadic attempts to stimulate teachers; guidance is indefinite and vague; keeps teachers purposefully in a state of worry.

Second attack on the problem—Another committee was appointed to evaluate the principals' written plans according to scale devised. It did so and reported the following conclusions:

1. Plans do not readily fall into A, B, or C classifications.
2. A plan should be specific and detailed to the extent that the objectives might be achieved as well by other equally competent persons as by the maker.
3. There should be some definite logical form to which all written plans should conform.

The committee recommended the following outline as giving proof of scientific attack upon the problem of supervision and recommended that supervision plans follow such an outline:

1. Evidence of a plan for discovering problems by
 - a. General survey through
 - (1) Systematically planned visitations. (An easily adjusted time schedule should be given.)
 - (2) Systematically planned conferences
 - (3) Survey tests of standard type
 - b. Evidence that the principal pins his problem down and analyzes it by
 - (1) Individual thinking and analysis
 - (2) Group conferences to get at the specific tasks
 - (3) Conferences with supervisors and directors
 - (4) Diagnostic tests where they can be used
 - c. Evidence of a certain amount of general professional reading on the part of the principal and his teachers to keep the general aims of supervision clearly in mind
2. Evidence of a plan for attacking problems discovered
 - a. Plan should be comprehensive
 - b. It should be coöperatively made

- c. It should state general objectives
- d. It should state specific objectives
- e. It should list the supervisory means to be used in achieving objectives as teachers' meetings, conferences, visits, professional study for specific purposes, diagnostic testing, and similar technics.

General conclusions—

1. Written supervisory plans are desirable.
2. They are valuable as one means of rating supervision.
3. They should be written according to an established logical outline, if others are to read them.

MODIFIED PLAN FOR FALL SEMESTER OF 1928

During the fall semester of 1928 the procedure was changed in some respects. Conference groups are no longer organized on the basis of subjectmatter, but, instead, the city was divided into sections containing twelve schools each, and each of these groups of schools constitutes a conference which meets once every two weeks. The plan as outlined by the assistant superintendent is as follows:

1. Organize principals into four groups on basis of geographical location. Appoint chairman for each group.
2. Call for written plans for the improvement of instruction to be handed in by each principal by September 1.
3. Make these plans, their execution, and the evaluation of the execution the subjects of discussion in the four study groups.
4. In each group it is probable that each major subject will represent the object of study of one or more principals.
5. Each supervisor should, on invitation of the chairman of the group, attend the conferences in which his subject is the center of discussion.
6. In each group there undoubtedly will be excellent work by single teachers reported, or excellent work by schools as a whole, which can then be made the basis for planning demonstration lessons or open house affairs for the teachers of the section of the city represented by the principals' group.
7. Since supervision is essentially teaching, and involves causing those supervised to plan, to execute, and evaluate, and,
8. Since in this case we are concerned with getting principals to—
 - a. Plan their supervision of teachers,
 - b. Carry out their supervision of teachers,
 - c. Evaluate their supervision of teachers—therefore:

9. The seminar organization, which is based on plans of supervision, and which calls for reports of actual supervision, seems better than the subject organization wherein the emphasis may well be on simply "knowing about" the teaching of the various subjects.
10. It will be possible and perhaps very desirable to have principals from each group interested in a single subject to meet as a subject group occasionally. Since each is engaged in a supervisory project in the subject, he will have more than an academic interest in the course of study in that subject which he might well have, if he began with the subject itself.
11. The criterion of accomplishment that will of necessity prevail in each group will not be "What do I know about the subject?" but "What have I done to improve instruction in this subject in my school?"
12. These groups can go on from semester to semester with change of chairman, and each principal in the one group has some contact with all the subjects, but at any one time special interest in one subject.

PLAN MODIFIED STILL FURTHER FOR SPRING SEMESTER OF 1928-29

In commenting on the work to date, Lindquist said recently:

The plan of group conferences by districts carried out during the fall semester of 1928 was an improvement over that of group conferences by subjects carried out during the spring semester, but it had one weakness, namely, that the supervisors' relationship to it was more or less accidental and incidental. To remedy this, I addressed the following letter to each subject supervisor at the close of the fall semester:

"I am forwarding to you herewith a list of the members of the various principals' groups as they will probably work next semester. As soon as you can conveniently do so, I would appreciate having from you the names of the principals whom you have succeeded in interesting in a study of your particular problem during next semester, and with whom you will undertake to work rather intensively in a study of your field from the point of view of the school principal."

The letter to the supervisors and the statement concerning the modified plan for the spring semester of 1929 make it evident that this change is but the next logical step forward in practice of the philosophy that the principal is responsible for educational progress in his school and that the subject supervisor is his technical assistant and adviser. The plan will make for better all-round supervision and for unity of purpose in the educational program of each school. Furthermore, each group of principals who are allied in the study of a

special problem will have much valuable information and experience to report to their conference as a result of their special studies.

The complete organization of this plan can best be seen through a description of the first meeting of Conference Number One. At this meeting each principal outlined to the group the chief educational problem he found in his school. He explained the method by which the problems were discovered and the program that had been set up for their attack. In every case the principal and director had worked on the problem together. Each principal was identified with some group for the study of a special problem. In a number of cases principals were members of two or three groups, especially where the program which the principal had set up involved several fields of instruction or activity.

As each principal reported, those who had questions were permitted to present them for answer. Principals with special problems or questions in fields in which they were not devoting special study, might send them to the central office for relay to the group considering such problems. The answers to such questions were to be given, if possible, at the next meeting.

EVALUATION OF THE RESULTS OF THE PLAN

Perhaps no one is in a more favorable position to judge of the value of this plan of supervision than the principal who is supervised and is himself a supervisor. The success of such a plan is measurable in the reaction of principals and of teachers to their problems, the result being better teaching. As a principal in Oakland, the writer feels that such coöperative supervision has given him:

1. A fuller sense of responsibility for the instruction within his school
2. A feeling that supervision is a coöperative undertaking and that the supervisor is a co-worker
3. A finer sensibility of the personalities of those with whom he works
4. A personal philosophy of the purposes, aims and methods of education
5. A better technic of supervision, particularly in the use of the conference method
6. An increased interest in professional study and a heightened professional interest

To put the matter briefly, it has helped all of us to find our problems and to solve them.

CHAPTER II

THE SCHOOL PRINCIPAL AS REVEALED BY SCHOOL SURVEYS

E. H. STULLKEN
Principal, Goethe School, Chicago, Illinois

THE PURPOSE of this study was to determine the nature and scope of the work of the school principal as revealed by school surveys. An analysis of survey material revealed two types of information: first, the status of the principalship; and secondly, the recommendations made concerning the principal. The study attempted an analysis of both types of information.

THE SOURCE OF DATA

It is because school surveys are so rich in material containing facts about the field of school administration that they were used as the source of data for the study. Frank E. Spaulding in discussing the school survey said, in substance, that they are "by far the most valuable literature available on school administration."¹ Some of the surveys have been published as standard works in school organization and administration. Furthermore, a glance at the names of the investigators who made the surveys shows that many of the best educational thinkers of the country are represented. They include men from the best educational institutions and the most progressive school systems.

Nearly every city survey made since 1911 contains some facts about the principal or his work. Other types of surveys do not treat the subject except incidentally. Ninety-four city surveys were examined which contained discussions of the principal. In addition to these, three state and three county surveys which discussed the principal were added in order to make the total one hundred. The use of one hundred investigations automatically converted all frequency tables in the study into percentage tables. The complete list of surveys used in this study is presented in chronological order in Table 1. All of these reports contain facts about the principal or some phase of his work.

¹Spaulding, Frank E., *Principles, Policies, and Plans for the Improvement of the New Bedford Public Schools*. New Bedford, Massachusetts. School Committee, 1922, p. 11.

The surveys are also valuable as a source of data because they cover the United States from Augusta, Maine, to San Francisco, California; and from Aurora, Minnesota, to Galveston, Texas. Of the one hundred surveys, sixty-seven are north of the Mason and Dixon line and thirty-three are south of it; sixty-three are east and thirty-seven are west of the Mississippi River. Thirty-six states are represented. The period of time covered by the surveys is the seventeen years from 1911 to 1928.

The study was limited to the material found in the one hundred surveys insofar as it concerned the principal because the school as a whole was not the center of interest. None of the specific problems belonging to any group of principals was considered except as it related to all principals. No study of the different types of principals was made, but special attention was directed to those duties and relationships common to all principals.

The data were collected on two sets of four by six cards, one set containing the findings and the other set the recommendations of the report. These cards were then catalogued so that the different phases of the work of the principal might be shown. The following phases of the subject were found: the type of position held by the principal, the nature of the duties performed by principals, the degree to which the principal's position was defined in the system and in his school, the degree to which his duties were definitely allocated, the type of person found in the principalship, the training and qualifications of principals, the salaries received by them, and other miscellaneous facts about the position and the people filling it.

THE TYPE OF PRINCIPAL

The type of position held by the principal was classified differently by the survey directors. A simple classification was used in order to obtain a picture of the whole situation without significantly warping any particular classification. Most of the surveys classed principals either as those with teaching duties which take up most of their time, or as principals having most of their time free from teaching duties. A few survey reports used the term "group principals" referring to those persons in charge of two or more buildings. Table 1 presents the types of principals found in the cities surveyed. In Table 1, and the other tables presented, the frequencies represent the number of surveys in which the particular condition is found. It should be remembered, since the study included one hundred surveys, that each frequency is in reality a percentage. For example,

if a given fact has a frequency of 10 it was found in 10 percent of all the surveys studied. An examination of Table 1 reveals that there are almost as many principals with teaching duties as principals free from those duties.

TABLE 1.—TYPES OF PRINCIPALS FOUND BY SURVEY DIRECTORS

Types	Number of Surveys
1. Free from teaching duties.....	28
2. Teaching principal	23
3. Group principal	4
4. Both teaching and free principals in the same city.....	7
5. Type not specified	38

The recommendations made by the surveys with reference to the types of principals show a marked contrast with existing conditions. Table 2 presents a summary of the recommendations. These data

TABLE 2.—TYPE OF PRINCIPAL RECOMMENDED IN SURVEYS

Type of Principal Recommended	Number of Surveys
1. Principal free from teaching duties.....	45
2. Teaching principals	3
3. Group principals	6

indicate that our best educators advocate a principal free from teaching duties. In nearly one-half of the surveys the directors recommended that the principal be relieved from teaching duties. However, in three cases some special condition warranted the recommendation that principals be required to have regular teaching duties. The group principals were recommended in six cities where many small schools were found operating with teaching principals. The surveys explained that combining several small neighboring units under the direction of one fulltime group principal made better supervision and administration possible.

NATURE OF THE PRINCIPAL'S DUTIES

Table 3 indicates the general nature of the duties of principals. Table 4 lists some of the duties more specifically. These two tables give the facts as found in the cities surveyed. Some of the terms in the tables need a word of explanation. By "mainly administrative" is meant those duties which have to do with the executive and managerial services as opposed to supervisory or instructional duties. It will be seen that in one-third of all the surveys examined the principal was mainly an administrative officer. This type of principal,

especially when he failed to attempt any supervisory duties, was not regarded very highly by most of the investigators. By "properly supervisory" is meant those duties that are performed by principals who spend approximately one-half of their time in the supervision of instruction. In these cases the surveys reported that the principal was a supervisor as well as an administrator.

TABLE 3.—THE GENERAL NATURE OF THE PRINCIPAL'S DUTIES

General Duties	Number of Surveys
1. Mainly administrative	33
2. Properly supervisory	17
3. Both administrative and supervisory.....	8
4. Excessive amount of clerical work.....	20
5. Nature of duties not specified.....	22

The comments by survey directors when they found principals with supervisory duties are interesting, for they indicated something unusual, and yet something greatly to be desired. In 20 percent of the surveys the directors deplored the excessive amount of clerical work performed by principals.

Table 4 gives a summary of some of the specific duties performed under the general headings given in Table 3. It is not as complete

TABLE 4.—SPECIFIC DUTIES OF PRINCIPALS

Specific Duties	Number of Surveys
1. Supervisory:	
Classroom visitation	8
Conferences with teachers and supervisors.....	10
Research and testing	5
2. Administrative:	
General school management	20
Rating of teachers	10
Pupil control	4
Janitorial direction	3

as may be desired, for many of the surveyors did not go into as great detail as others. The difference in procedure accounts for the difference in frequencies found in Tables 3 and 4.

The recommendations of the surveyors with reference to the duties of principals contrast very sharply with the findings. The survey directors are practically unanimous in their belief that the principal shall have supervisory duties. The suggestion that the principal should be a supervisory officer has the highest frequency of all the findings and recommendations. This fact shows the emphasis placed

by surveys upon the supervisory part of the principal's duties. As one studies the problem of the principalship in the surveys the need for more supervision by the principal becomes apparent. The surveys repeatedly point out that the principal is the key to the supervisory situation in the schools.

Table 5 gives quantitative evidence that surveyors were generally agreed on this point. It will be noted from an examination of Table 5

TABLE 5.—DUTIES OF PRINCIPALS AS RECOMMENDED BY SURVEYS

Nature of Duties Recommended	Number of Surveys
1. More supervisory duties.....	65
2. More administrative duties.....	1
3. More of both types.....	2
4. Specific types of supervisory duties:	
More classroom visitation.....	15
More teachers' conferences.....	10
More research and testing.....	7
5. Specific types of administrative duties:	
Better general management.....	12
Better rating of teachers.....	4
More janitorial oversight.....	3
More pupil control.....	2

that specific supervisory duties were recommended in only one-half as many surveys as contained the general recommendation that the principal should have more supervisory duties. Perhaps this indicates that the specific type of work to be done depends upon local conditions and hence could not be prescribed by the surveys. The fact that it was recommended that principals have more administrative duties in only one case, and yet better general management was urged in twelve cases indicates that principals should become better managers as well as expert supervisory officers.

THE POSITION OF THE PRINCIPAL

The surveys reveal interesting data concerning the position of the principal in the system and within his school. They show that the question of the principal's position has come up in many of the cities surveyed. Often there is a difference of opinion as to who is in charge of the different phases of the work of supervision, and especially as to who is in charge of the instruction carried on in the school. In many places the rules and regulations do not specifically indicate the officer who is responsible. The question can be broken up into two parts: first, Do surveys reveal that duties are definitely allocated, and that there is a definite line of authority? Second, Is the princi-

pal in full charge of instruction within his school or do others, not necessarily his superiors, have charge? The data relating to both parts of the question are found in Table 6.

TABLE 6.—DEFINITION OF THE PRINCIPAL'S DUTIES AND POSITION

Definition of Duties and Position	Number of Surveys
1. Duties well defined and allocated.....	10
2. Duties not defined and no line of authority established.....	26
3. Principal in full charge and responsible for his school.....	15
4. Principal not in full charge of his school and not held responsible.....	23

The data recorded in Table 6 show that many cities do not have definite policies concerning these issues. Very often principals do not know whether or not they are responsible when questions of authority arise. Many times too, some one other than the principal is responsible for certain phases of the work of the school. Often this means that a supervisor or other representative of the superintendent has charge of the supervision of instruction in the school. In such cases the principal is merely an administrator and not directly concerned with the chief business for which the school is operated, namely, the teaching of the children. Such practices are nearly always condemned by the surveys. The preponderance of opinion favors the principal as definitely responsible for all the activities within his school. The surveys also advocate definitely allocating the duties of principals and of other school officials with whom he must coöperate with relation to the supervision of instruction in the school.

Table 7 summarizes the recommendations made concerning the position of the principal. According to the educational experts repre-

TABLE 7.—SURVEY RECOMMENDATIONS AS TO THE PRINCIPAL'S AUTHORITY

Recommendations	Number of Surveys
1. Allocation of duties, coördination of work, and a definite line of authority	33
2. The principal the chief supervisory officer of his school, responsible and with authority	42
3. Some one other than the principal responsible for the instruction in the school	4

sented, the principal should have definite duties and should be the chief supervisory officer of his school. In only a few cases did surveys suggest making some one other than the principal responsible for the instruction in the school.

THE TYPE OF PERSON FOR THE PRINCIPALSHIP

The question of the type of person found in the principalship was discussed by nearly three-fourths of the surveys. This fact shows the existence of great concern about the type of person chosen for the principalship. The current practice of some school systems in promoting teachers to the principalship is not necessarily in conflict with the need for leadership among principals. An examination of surveys indicates that the investigators usually found that where many of the principals had been teachers, especially teachers with many years of experience, these same principals were often lacking in educational leadership. The data relating to this phase of the subject is presented in Table 8.

TABLE 8.—TYPES OF PERSONS FOUND IN THE PRINCIPALSHIP

Type	Number of Surveys
1. A promoted teacher with a long term of experience.....	17
2. A person especially trained for supervisory and administrative work..	6
3. Both types 1 and 2 found in the same city.....	2
4. A non-progressive person lacking in educational leadership.....	28
5. A person possessing the qualities for educational leadership.....	9
6. Both types 4 and 5 found in the same city.....	5
7. One whose experience was gained in the same city.....	13
8. One whose experience was gained outside of the city in which he was working	3

Table 8 shows that many principals were merely promoted teachers, lacking in special training, and not possessing the qualities for educational leadership. This question of the leadership of the principal was given a great deal of attention by the survey directors, and they often gave adverse criticisms of the type of leadership found. The statement that, "usually the elementary school principalship is the weakest place in the entire system, and one generally finds more dead timber in such positions than in any other place"¹ is made several times, although not always in these exact words. This is a severe indictment of the type of person sometimes found in the principalship. The facts as to where the principal gained his experience seem to indicate that there is often more inbreeding than there should be.

It was difficult to arrive at adequate conclusions concerning the age and experience of principals from the data reported in the surveys, yet by making approximations from the figures given, it was found that the average age of principals was approximately 49 years and

¹Cubberley, E. P. *School Organization and Administration: A Concrete Study Based on the Salt Lake City Survey*. World Book Co., Yonkers, 1915, p. 43.

the mean number of years of experience was 22 years. These averages are very close to the medians given in the *Seventh Yearbook* of the Department of Elementary School Principals.¹

The statement, "as the principal so the school," is one survey directors seem to believe. This maxim is shown in the many specific recommendations that a better type of person in the principalship would make for better schools. Although much of the work of the principal was administrative, the surveys recommend that he should be an educator in the constructive sense of that word. Because of his direct contact with the work of the school, the principal is the greatest factor in making teaching effective. The survey directors also agreed that training for teaching differs from the training needed by principals. They state that this is true, because the work of the principal differs radically from that of the teacher. Table 9 presents

TABLE 9.—TYPE OF PERSON RECOMMENDED FOR THE PRINCIPALSHIP

Type of Person	Number of Surveys
1. An aggressive educational leader.....	46
2. A specially trained person capable of being a supervisor and an administrator	41
3. A promoted teacher.....	1
4. One whose experience was gained outside the system.....	13
5. One who has the training equivalent to four years of college work.....	5

a summary of the data relating to the type of person recommended for the principalship by the surveys. The figures given in Table 9 show a marked contrast with those recorded in Table 8. This contrast indicates the agreement of the survey directors in demanding a high type of principal to overcome the weakness found in the schools surveyed.

PRINCIPAL'S SALARY

About one-half of the surveys contain facts about the salaries of principals. Usually the surveys discussed teachers' salaries more extensively than they did principals' salaries. A study of the individual surveys shows a wide range in the salaries received by principals. It is apparent that the salaries have increased greatly during the years since the earliest surveys. Also, the salaries vary greatly in different sections of the country. Fifteen percent of the surveys recommended that the salaries should be increased, but did not state the amount. Nineteen percent of the surveys state a definite salary

¹ National Education Association, Department of Elementary School Principals. *Seventh Yearbook*, 1928, pp. 168-81.

increase. A total of 34 percent of all the surveys contain recommendations for salary increases for principals.

In order that the amounts received by principals and the amounts recommended for them might be compared, an attempt was made to find the median of all the figures given in the surveys. The median salary received was \$1875 for elementary school principals and \$3000 for high school principals. These medians do not represent the salaries of the principals for any period of years. They are the general medians of existing salaries since the first surveys, and were computed merely to give comparisons with the recommendations made by the surveys. The median salary of \$2666 was recommended for elementary school principals and \$3812 for high school principals. It is interesting to note that the amount recommended is approximately \$800 higher in each case than the amounts the principals were receiving. May we conclude that, in general, principals should receive an \$800 increase in salary? The surveys sometimes recommended that the salary of the principal should be based on his efficiency, training, and the size of his school, as well as on his experience.

CONCLUSIONS

The following conclusions are warranted by the data presented in the surveys:

1. The position of the principal is not recognized as surveys would have it recognized in a great many of the cities surveyed. The principalship should be exalted.

2. The principal is one of the most important school officials. His position is a strategic one as the key to the whole supervisory situation in the schools.

3. The principal is too often merely an administrator or a promoted teacher. Frequently, he has no special training for the highly technical work he should perform.

4. Educational leaders, as represented by the survey directors, state that the principal should be a supervisory officer without teaching responsibilities to interfere with this important phase of his work.

5. Surveys recommend that the principal should be specially trained for his work and that he should be an educational leader in his community.

6. Data for the solution of many of the practical problems of the school principalship may be found in the school surveys. The survey literature is a valuable source of data for use in the discussion of the problems of the school principal.

TABLE 10.—THE SURVEYS EXAMINED FOR CHAPTER II

Date	Name	Directors of Surveys
1911	Baltimore, Md.	Brown
1911	Boston, Mass.	Finance Commission
1911	East Orange, N. J.	Moore
1912	Boise, Idaho	Judd, Elliott, Strayer
1913	Bridgeport, Conn.	Van Sickle
1913	Grafton, W. Va.	Deahl
1913	Newburgh, N. Y.	Potter
1913	New York, N. Y.	Hanus, Goodnow
1913	Portland, Ore.	Cubberley
1914	Butte, Mont.	Strayer
1914	San Francisco, Cal.	Collegiate Alumni
1914	Springfield, Ill.	Ayres
1914	South Bend, Ind.	Judd, Bobbitt
1914	Chicago, Ill.	Young
1915	Ashland, Ore.	Ayer
1915	Buffalo, N. Y.	Finley
1915	Leavenworth, Kan.	Monroe
1915	Oakland, Cal.	Cubberley
1915	Ogden, Utah	Deffenbaugh
1915	Port Townsend, Wash.	Lull
1915	Salt Lake City, Utah	Cubberley
1915	San Antonio, Texas	Bobbitt
1915	Rockford, Ill.	Jones
1916	Boston, Mass.	Van Sickle, Strayer
1916	Cleveland, Ohio	Ayres
1916	Denver, Col.	Judd, Bobbitt, Cubberley
1916	Grand Rapids, Mich.	Judd
1916	San Francisco, Cal.	Bawden
1916	Lane County, Ore.	Ayer
1917	Akron, Ohio	Brittain
1917	Brookline, Mass.	Van Sickle
1917	Bloomington, Ind.	Smith
1917	Portland, Ore.	Horn
1917	St. Louis, Mo.	Judd
1917	St. Paul, Minn.	Strayer, Coffman
1917	Harrisburg, Pa.	Sands
1917	Sterling, Col.	Sexson
1918	Alton, Ill.	Withers
1918	Columbia, S. C.	Bunker
1918	Elyria, Ohio	Deffenbaugh
1918	Gary, Ind.	Flexner
1918	Janesville, Wis.	Cary
1918	Union, Iowa	Martin
1918	Arizona	Monahon
1919	Binghamton, N. Y.	Wiley
1919	Memphis, Tenn.	Bunker
1919	Utica, N. Y.	Wiley
1919	Winchester, Va.	General Education Board
1920	Boise, Idaho	Sears
1920	Washington, D. C.	Bunker
1920	Winchester, Mass.	Bunker
1920	Scranton, Pa.	Weber

TABLE 10.—THE SURVEYS EXAMINED FOR CHAPTER II (Cont'd)

Date	Name	Directors of Surveys
1921	Baltimore, Md.	Strayer
1921	Elizabeth City, N. C.	Bawden
1921	Hackensack, N. J.	Strayer
1921	Niagara Falls, N. Y.	Wiley
1921	Wheeling, W. Va.	Bawden
1921	Wilmington, Del.	Bunker
1921	Fruita, Col.	Quigley
1921	Fairfield County, Ohio.	Landsittel
1922	Atlanta, Ga.	Strayer
1922	Augusta, Me.	Inglis
1922	Lawrence, Kan.	O'Brien
1922	Philadelphia, Pa.	Finnegan
1922	New Bedford, Mass.	Spaulding
1922	El Paso, Texas.	Horn
1922	Shreveport, La.	Deffenbaugh
1922	Oklahoma	Bawden
1923	Alexandria, Va.	Deffenbaugh
1923	Providence, R. I.	Strayer
1923	Springfield, Mass.	Strayer
1923	Stamford, Conn.	Strayer
1923	West Hartford, Conn.	Meredith, Simpson
1923	St. Cloud, Minn.	Spencer
1923	West Virginia	Cavins
1924	Chanute, Kan.	O'Brien
1924	Lockport, N. Y.	Wiley
1924	Marion, Ill.	Monroe
1924	Peoria, Ill.	Chadsey
1925	Cranford, N. J.	Strayer
1925	Fort Lupton, Col.	Ganders
1925	Superior, Wis.	Engelhardt
1925	Watertown, N. Y.	Strayer
1925	Hamilton County, Tenn.	Walker
1926	Galveston, Tex.	Shelby
1926	Hammonton, N. J.	Strayer
1926	Humble, Texas	Montgomery
1926	Port Arthur, Texas.	Strayer
1926	Racine, Wis.	Barr
1926	Tampa, Fla.	Strayer
1926	Utah	Tigert
1927	Aurora, Minn.	Engelhardt
1927	Beaumont, Texas	Strayer
1927	Jacksonville, Fla.	Strayer
1927	Fort Lee, N. J.	Strayer
1927	Lynn, Mass.	Strayer
1927	Napa, Cal.	Sears
1927	New Prague, Minn.	Engelhardt
1927	Wilmette, Ill.	Breed
1928	Schenectady, N. Y.	Wiley

CHAPTER III

THE ADJUSTMENT OF NEW ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHERS IN CITY SCHOOL SYSTEMS

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RECENTLY attention has been directed the country over toward the important problem involved in the introduction of new and inexperienced teachers to their work in city school systems. An attempt to ascertain the prevailing practices with reference to the problem was made recently in a study under the direction of the Department of Education of the University of Chicago.¹

The problem suggests such questions as follows: How are new and inexperienced teachers in the city school systems in the United States aided in the adaptations they must make? How do the officials of city school systems of the United States help the new teachers of little or no experience to become reasonably acquainted with their teaching situations? Are there any specific things done purposely to facilitate the teacher's acquaintance with local teaching conditions? Are such activities well organized into programs, plans, and outlines; or are they of an informal nature and carried out in a haphazard manner? What is the prevailing tendency, relative to such procedures, in the city school systems of the United States?

Compilation of the data—The study is based on data from two general sources: data sent directly from city superintendents, and data from professional literature. Direct statements of city superintendents, outlines, programs, plans endorsed by superintendents, were primary sources of data. Professional literature and reports of superintendents were secondary sources of data.

Letters of inquiry were sent to five hundred cities of 10,000 population and above. Replies were received from two hundred and fifteen school systems.

The principal assumptions underlying the study are, that a teacher new to a given school system requires a certain period of time for adaptation and adjustment to the new teaching situation, and that it is possible to shorten the necessary period of adaptation through efforts organized to that end.

¹ In coöperation with Professors W. H. Burton and W. C. Reavis.

When the data were analyzed, the school systems could be classified under three major groups, as follows: (1) School systems that employ post-normal school agencies in the adjustment of new teachers, (2) school systems that cooperate with training schools in the adjustment of new teachers, and (3) school systems indicating little or no means of aiding new teachers. These groups consisted of forty-nine, eighteen, and one hundred forty-eight school systems respectively. The three groups of school systems indicated will be referred to in subsequent discussions as Group I, Group II, and Group III, respectively.

Cities using post-normal school agencies—As indicated by the data concerning the school systems of Group I, the various agencies used for facilitating the adjustment of new teachers are shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1.—THE POST-NORMAL SCHOOL AGENCIES USED BY CITIES IN GROUP I

Agency	Frequency of Mention
1. Specific supervisory devices.....	32
2. Close general supervision.....	26
3. Special meetings.....	18
4. Cadet teaching.....	8
5. Special instruction.....	6
6. Informing prior to opening of session.....	5
7. Aiding social adjustment.....	4
8. Careful placement.....	3
9. Substitute teaching.....	3
10. Regular teachers' meetings.....	2
11. Transfer.....	2
12. Follow-up with questionnaires.....	2

The total number of school systems using the agencies listed in Table 1 is 49. The column of numbers at the right represents the frequencies with which the agencies of adjustment were indicated by the 49 school systems in Group 1. The specific supervisory devices referred to in item 1 are as follows: Supervisory conference, demonstration teaching, visitation, and intervisitation.

The following statement of the San Antonio school system indicates the use of all the specific supervisory devices, with the exception of visitation:

Group conferences are conducted by the assistant directors in which some definite phase of the course of study is discussed, members of the group being encouraged to take part in the discussion. A day or two later the assistant accompanied by a small number of his group visits a classroom where they observe a lesson in which the theories they have discussed in the group meeting are applied in a practical classroom situation. After the lesson a follow-up conference is held in which the classroom teacher takes part. Sometimes the demonstration is given in the room of an expert teacher, in which case the assistant does the teaching.

A statement from Augusta, Maine, on the use of visitation is typical of the statements made by other superintendents concerning this device:

Brief calls are made on all new teachers the first or second day with the purpose of checking up the teachers in order to help them at a teachers' meeting held the second afternoon for new teachers only. Anything is explained which seems necessary. Questions may be asked in regard to the manner of handling pupils, books used, methods of instruction, school requirements, or anything teachers desire to know. . . . Frequent short visits are made during the first month by superintendent and supervisor.

"Close general supervision" was indicated as a means of adjustment by certain school officials, but because of the vagueness of the term it will not be discussed. The agency, "special meetings," also will not be discussed because the term is self-explanatory.

"Cadet teaching," with the exception of several cities, was indicated in a general way as a means of aiding teacher adjustment. The "cadet system" in operation in Gary, Indiana,¹ is the most outstanding procedure of its kind treated in this study.

The most significant facts concerning the "cadet system" in the school system of Gary, Indiana, are as follows:

1. Six inexperienced teachers are assigned the teaching load ordinarily given to five experienced or regular teachers. The inexperienced teachers teach five hours per day instead of the regular six-hour teaching day.
2. The extra hour of the inexperienced teacher's day is set aside for directed visiting, conference, planning, preparation, and specific laboratory work.
3. The program is operated in such a way that Teacher A has the first period free, Teacher B the second, Teacher C the third, Teacher D the fourth, Teacher E the fifth, and Teacher F the sixth.
4. A seventh teacher known as the "traveling teacher," teaches six hours a day thus relieving the six apprentices.
5. The six apprentices work under a director who gives full time to prompting the development of the teaching powers of these apprentices.
6. At the end of each week, the apprentice teachers and the director jointly work out a program for the training hours of the next week.

In Table 1, the term "special instruction" pertains to special courses required of new teachers in some of the school systems. For example, the director of research and attendance of the school system of Memphis, Tennessee, reported that all teachers newly inducted into the Memphis school system are required to enroll in one or more of the following courses: music, art, penmanship, physical education, primary methods, and courses in tests and measurements.

Certain school systems inform the beginning teachers as to certain procedures before the opening of the school session. For example,

¹ Rossman, John G. "Apprenticing the Beginning Teacher." *Elementary School Journal* 22:663-73; May, 1927.

the superintendent of the Augusta public schools reports the following: During the summer certain information in regard to the school work is sent to the new teachers, and any questions are answered through the office in regard to books, requirements, and so forth.

The term "aiding social adjustment" in Table 1 pertains to activities such as receptions and socials reported by the officials as instrumental in the adjustment of new teachers.

"Careful placement" pertains to the practice of placing new teachers where the conditions are particularly favorable. The officials of a few school systems reported that certain of their schools were particularly adapted to the supervision of new teachers.

According to the data, the type of experience gained by new teachers in "substitute teaching," is somewhat like that gained under the term "cadet teaching" of Table 1. There is a slight distinction, however, as the teachers doing substitute work may or may not teach regularly, while those doing cadet teaching usually teach regularly.

The term "regular teachers' meetings" is self-explanatory. The item "transfer" in Table 1 pertains to the practice of shifting teachers about within given school systems as a means of adjustment.

The officials of some school systems reported that special questionnaires were sent to new teachers to secure data that would help to plan attacks on the adjustment difficulties.

Cities cooperating with the training schools—It has been indicated that Group II consists of 18 school systems in which procedures for adjusting the new teachers are carried out in connection with the training schools. In the majority of the school systems of this group the chief way is to adapt the new teachers through the practice teaching done in connection with the city training schools. Nearly all of the teachers of the school systems of this group are required to spend a certain period of preparation at some training school. Usually, this is a local or city training school. These training colleges use the public schools for the practice teaching required of student teachers.

Four school systems of Group II are particularly distinguished by their procedures. In these systems new teachers have both practice teaching and the advantage of close follow-up supervision by the training schools. These school systems include: Boston, Massachusetts; Cincinnati, Ohio; Detroit, Michigan; and Kansas City, Missouri. The adjustment of new teachers in these cities was pointed out as one of the main interests of the officials of the city training schools. The officials of these training schools believe that the task

of the training institutions should not end simply with the graduation of the student teacher, but includes the adjustment of beginning teachers to their work in the school systems. This idea is expressed in the following statement received from the superintendent of the Boston school system :

The graduates of the Boston Teachers College, the main source of our supply, are assigned as substitutes and temporary teachers immediately after graduation. Until their appointment as permanent teachers—a term varying from three months to a year or more, dependent upon their position on the merit list—they are visited regularly by the supervisors from the Department of Practice and Training who have oversight of the unappointed teachers. As a result of these visits and many individual conferences, the beginners are adjusted to their problems.

When these teachers are appointed to permanent positions in the primary schools they are visited by the primary supervisors. These supervisors give each year extension courses on primary methods for teachers in service. Through these courses, individual conferences, and classroom supervision, the work in the primary school is carefully followed.

Visitation, demonstration, individual conferences, and group conferences are indicated as important devices in the follow-up supervision of the training schools of Boston, Cincinnati, Detroit, and Kansas City.

Before beginning the discussion of the third major group of school systems, the importance of the supervisory devices mentioned in connection with Groups I and II should be emphasized. Such supervisory devices as conferences,¹ demonstration,² intervisitation,³ and visitation,⁴ are well recognized by authorities on supervision. It is interesting to note that supervisory devices of such theoretical significance are used frequently in the teacher-adjustment procedures of a relatively large number of school systems of Groups I and II.

Cities not reporting organized adjustment agencies—Group III consists of the 148 public school systems that reported little or no means of aiding the adjustment of new teachers. In this group of school systems, there are three distinct subgroups. The first subgroup consists of school systems whose officials recognize the problem suggested, as shown by the unorganized means reported. Supervision, substitute teaching, aid given new teachers by co-workers, and the practice of lessening the teaching loads of the beginning teachers

¹ Barr, A. S., and Burton, W. H. *The Supervision of Instruction*. D. Appleton and Company, New York, 1926, pp. 158-59.

² Cubberley, E. P. *The Principal and His School*. Houghton Mifflin Company, New York, 1923, pp. 468-70.

³ Barr, A. S., and Burton, W. H., *op. cit.*, p. 433.

⁴ Burton, W. H. *Supervision and the Improvement of Teaching*. D. Appleton and Company, New York, 1922, pp. 397-98.

were the chief means found in the statements of these school officials. Eighty-seven school systems were included in this first subgroup.

The second subgroup consists of five school systems. As the replies received from these cities afforded for the study neither positive nor negative data, it is not necessary to say more concerning them.

The third subgroup consists of 56 school systems. These cities reported no specific means for adjusting new teachers to their work.

Conclusions—As was suggested in the beginning, the aim of this article was to consider the procedures for adjusting new elementary school teachers to their work in the city school systems of the United States, and to set forth the prevailing practices.

The intangible nature of the problem made it unwise to draw many exact inferences in regard to particular school systems. Some of the sources of data, such as mimeographed letters, bulletins, programs, schedules and so forth, were not easily classified and analyzed. The questionnaire method of collecting data has certain well known weaknesses. Yet, in spite of these limitations, the following conclusions are ventured:

First, the procedures in helping new teachers, as reported in this study, were phases of, or closely related to, the supervisory functions of school systems.

Second, school systems having well defined schemes for adjusting the new teachers are limited in number. In only a few places have the officials of the school systems brought about organized efforts to solve the problem of teacher adjustment.

Third, there are enough procedures in actual operation to indicate that the matter is an important one and that school systems may profit by a well organized program of teacher guidance.

One-third or 67 of the school systems included in the study have some definite procedures as to the problem of teacher adjustment. Just where to draw the line between the school systems having the most definite procedures and the school systems having the least definite procedures cannot be decided. The important fact is that certain school systems do possess organized procedures to facilitate the adjustment of new teachers.

The basic materials of the study indicate that the school systems in the following cities have well defined teacher adjustment programs: Boston, Massachusetts; Cincinnati, Ohio; Decatur, Illinois; Detroit, Michigan; Gary, Indiana; Kansas City, Missouri; Los Angeles, California; and San Antonio, Texas. Probably other school systems possess significant procedures for aiding new teachers in

adjustment, but the above cities were outstanding in this particular study.

Fourth, certain well organized devices of supervision hold prominent places in the school systems with organized programs for aiding new teachers. These outstanding supervisory devices include conferences, demonstration, visitation, and intervisitation.

Fifth, in a certain school system practice teaching is the chief means of facilitating the adjustment of new teachers. With adequate supervision this device probably serves as an unusually helpful adjustment procedure.

Sixth, officials of a few school systems, recognizing that the beginning teachers need special attention, have coöperated with city training schools in providing extensive supervision. The training-school officials stated that the duty of the training schools did not end with the graduation of the student teacher, but extended to the supervision of the beginning teachers after their appointments. The descriptions of the procedures of adjustment of Boston, Cincinnati, Detroit, and Kansas City were particularly promising.

Seventh, in the majority of school systems reporting there is no organized effort toward helping the new teachers become adjusted to their positions. One hundred and forty-three school systems, or approximately two-thirds of the school systems included in the study, confirm this conclusion. Reports indicate that in most of the school systems of the country informal aid to new teachers constitutes the principal efforts toward their adjustment.

Eighth, the study indicates that there was no positive relationship between the sizes of school systems and definiteness of the adjustment procedures used with new teachers. Some of the largest school systems pay little or no attention to the new teachers. Some of the smaller school systems have well organized procedures for adjusting new teachers.

CHAPTER IV

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PRINCIPALS AND SUPERVISORS

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THE INCREASE of variations in school organization that has occurred in recent years has made the problem of the articulation of the work of the several agents a matter of great moment. Principals, general supervisors, and special supervisors have many dual responsibilities. Does this overlapping mean conflicts in authority? What should elementary school principals do about it?

A questionnaire was used to ascertain what uniformity or lack of uniformity of practice exists in certain cities in allocating responsibilities to principals and supervisors. Questions were asked to ascertain the understanding among principals and supervisors in cities of medium size, as to the nature and extent of their responsibilities.

Replies were received from 57 principals, 25 special supervisors, and 32 superintendents, assistant superintendents, and other general supervisors in 62 cities. From the 57 principals and 20 special supervisors 20 paired comparisons were made of the same school systems.

The total number of and percent of dual or multiple responsibilities of agents is shown in Table 1. The replies of 57 principals show

TABLE 1.—THE DUAL RESPONSIBILITIES OF AGENTS AS SHOWN FROM THE REPLIES OF FIFTY-SEVEN PRINCIPALS

Agents Responsible for Performing the Same Activities (1)	Number of Cases (2)	Number of Possibilities (3)	Percent Column 2 is of Column 3 (4)
1. Principal, General Supervisor.....	207	652	31+
2. Principal, Special Supervisor.....	168	626	26+
3. Principal, General Supervisor, Special Supervisor	137	607	22
4. General Supervisor, Special Supervisor.....	42	357	11
5. Principal, Superintendent	22	225	9
6. Principal, Superintendent, General Supervisor	13	197	6+
7. Principal, Superintendent, Special Supervisor	24	396	6+
8. Principal, Assistant Principal.....	10	177	5

The table is to be read: The principal and general supervisor are responsible for performing the same activities in 207 cases out of a possible 652 or an overlapping of 31 percent in their duties. Only the most frequently mentioned replies are given in this table.

overlappings of functions between principal and general supervisor; principal and special supervisor; and principal, general and special supervisors. There is much less overlapping between general supervisor and special supervisor; principal and superintendent; principal, superintendent, and general supervisor; and principal and assistant principal.

TABLE 2.—THE DUAL RESPONSIBILITIES OF AGENTS AS SHOWN FROM THE REPLIES OF TWENTY-FIVE SPECIAL SUPERVISORS

Agents Responsible for Performing the Same Activities (1)	Number of Cases (2)	Number of Possibilities (3)	Percent Column 2 is of Column 3 (4)
1. Principal, General Supervisor.....	20	120	16
2. Principal, Special Supervisor	87	425	20+
3. Principal, General Supervisor, Special Supervisor	21	154	14
4. General Supervisor, Special Supervisor.....	11	72	15

Read table as follows: The principal and general supervisor are responsible for performing the same activities in 20 cases out of a possible 120, or an overlapping of 16 percent in their duties.

There were other combinations of agents indicated, but the numbers were so small as to render them of little or no value in making comparisons, therefore all combinations of less than 10 percent are omitted.

Table 2 shows the number of and percents of dual or multiple responsibilities of agents as shown from the replies of 25 special supervisors. The overlapping is smaller but of the same type as that indicated by the replies of the principals. The main dual responsibilities are between principal and special supervisor; principal and general supervisor; general supervisor and special supervisor; principal, general supervisor, and special supervisor.

TABLE 3.—THE DUAL RESPONSIBILITIES OF AGENTS AS SHOWN FROM THE REPLIES OF THIRTY-TWO GENERAL SUPERVISORS

Agents Responsible for Performing the Same Activities (1)	Number of Cases (2)	Number of Possibilities (3)	Percent Column 2 is of Column 3 (4)
1. Principal, General Supervisor.....	203	464	43
2. Principal, Special Supervisor.....	39	288	13
3. Principal, General Supervisor, Special Supervisor	126	427	29
4. General Supervisor, Special Supervisor.....	65	309	21

Read table as follows: The principal and general supervisor are responsible for performing the same activities in 203 cases out of a possible 464, or an overlapping of 43 percent in their duties.

All combinations showing an overlapping of less than 10 percent are omitted.

The term general supervisors is used to include: superintendents, assistant superintendents, and others with general supervisory duties.

Table 3 shows the dual or multiple responsibilities of agents noted in the replies of 32 general supervisors. There are main overlappings of work between the principal and general supervisor; principal, general supervisor, and special supervisor; general supervisor and special supervisor; and principal and special supervisor.

In Tables 1, 2, and 3, the overlapping of responsibilities by principal and general supervisor is given first rank in the replies of the principals and general supervisors, and second rank by the special supervisors. Overlapping of duties between the principal and special supervisor is given first rank in the replies of the special supervisors, second rank by the principals, and fourth rank by the general supervisors. Dual responsibilities between principal, general and special supervisor is given second rank by the general supervisors, third rank by the principals, and fourth rank by special supervisors. Overlapping between the general supervisor and special supervisor is given third rank by the general supervisors and special supervisors, and fourth rank by the principals.

TABLE 4.—THE DUAL RESPONSIBILITIES AS SHOWN FROM THE REPLIES OF THE PAIRING OF TWENTY SPECIAL SUPERVISORS FROM THE SAME CITIES

Agent	Are the Dual Responsibilities Noted			Total
	Yes	No	Omitted	
Principal	177	173	66	416
Special Supervisor	114	213	89	416
Both, Principal, Special Supervisor..	47	233	24	304

Table 4 should be read: From the replies of 20 pairings of principals and special supervisors, the principals indicated 177 dual responsibilities, and the special supervisors indicated 114 dual responsibilities, while both recognized 47 identical dual responsibilities. Thus principals and special supervisors "Both" recognized 26 percent of the dual responsibilities recognized by the principal alone and the principals and special supervisors "Both" recognized 41 percent of the dual responsibilities recognized by the special supervisors alone.

TABLE 5.—ARE CONFLICTS RECOGNIZED BY PRINCIPALS, SPECIAL SUPERVISORS, AND GENERAL SUPERVISORS?

Agent	Number of Noted Conflicts	Number of Possible Cases	Percent Column 2 is of Column 3
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Principal	38	652	8
Special Supervisor	6	211	3—
General Supervisors	8	464	2—

Table 5 shows a relatively low percent of actual conflicts, although the preceding tables indicate a relatively high overlapping of responsibilities.

Acceptance of responsibility for certain activities is shown in Table 6 which summarizes the replies of 57 principals, 25 special supervisors and 32 general supervisors. Entire responsibility is assumed

by the special supervisors in 37 percent of the possible number of cases; by the principals in 35 percent of the possible number of cases, and by the general supervisor in 25 percent of the possible number of cases. There is failure here to recognize the principal "in control of his building."

TABLE 6.—ENTIRE RESPONSIBILITY FOR CERTAIN ACTIVITIES ACCEPTED BY AGENT

Agent (1)	Number Accepting Responsi- bility (2)	Possible Number of Cases (3)	Percent Column 2 is of Column 3 (4)
Principal	736	2052	35
Special Supervisor	335	900	37
General Supervisor	293	1150	25

CONCLUSIONS

I. There were relatively few recognized conflicts as compared with recognized dual or multiple responsibilities. This may have been due to several reasons, among which the following may be suggested:

1. Hesitancy to indicate actual conflict.
2. No grave situation existing caused by overlapping responsibilities.
3. A feeling that even though dual or multiple responsibilities exist, conflict is not present because of coöperative efforts of the agents involved.
4. Lack of uniformity in definition of terms.

II. The several agents view school activities in the light of their own interests and departments, rather than in the light of the curriculum as a whole.

III. It appears that there is a decided lack of understanding on the part of supervisors and principals as to the nature and extent of their responsibilities. This may be due to faulty organization. It would seem that a type of organization should be encouraged which defines and allocates the activities of the several agents, and reduces or eliminates overlapping responsibilities of the agents within a school.

IV. The study presents specific questions for the consideration of the principal: What ought the principal to do about the situation? What ought to be his attitude in coming to a professional recognition of his job? In what way will he prove himself skilful enough to warrant the delegation of functions to him? When will principals be prepared to assume genuine supervisory control of their schools?

COMPLETE TABULATIONS

Tables 7, 8, 9 and 10 are to be studied in connection with the items on pages 177 and 178. The reader is reminded that replies were received from 57 principals, 25 special supervisors, and 32 general supervisors.

TABLE 7.—TYPES OF ENTIRE RESPONSIBILITIES ACCEPTED ACCORDING TO COMBINED REPLIES OF PRINCIPALS, SPECIAL SUPERVISORS, AND GENERAL SUPERVISORS

Activity Number	Principal Actual No.	Special Supervisor Actual Number	General Supervisor Actual Number
A 1	13	17	10
2	4	20	10
3	16	17	12
4	21	13	8
5	24	10	11
6	18	3	17
7	15	7	16
8	8	20	15
9	32	8	6
10	10	18	8
11	14	8	12
12	17	9	7
13	15	10	7
B 1	19	2	13
2	3	16	12
C	13	4	4
D	18	12	12
E	9	3	3
F 1	23	14	6
2	13	15	6
G	11	8	9
H 1 a	17	10	8
b	19	8	8
c	17	8	8
d	21	11	8
2	35	8	6
3	39	8	5
I 1	23	8	5
2	19	7	7
3	25	10	6
4	22	13	3
5	34	6	3
J	43	0	4
K	49	0	2
L	30	0	7
M	27	4	9
	None omitted in list	J-K-L omitted in list	None omitted in list

Explanation: The numbers in the first column under activity number, refer to the several items of the questionnaire—A 1, means "controls methods"; A 2, "provides outlines of required work." See the questionnaire at the end of this chapter.

Table 7 shows that the greatest variation in the recognition of the acceptance of entire responsibilities by the supervisory agents exists in matters pertaining to the directing of teaching activities, the control of teachers' programs and the directing of experimental work.

Table 8 shows the frequency of the types of dual responsibilities from the replies of 57 principals; Table 9 shows the frequency of

TABLE 8.—FREQUENCY OF TYPE OF DUAL RESPONSIBILITIES AS SHOWN BY THE REPLIES OF PRINCIPALS

Activity Number	Principal General Supervisor	Principal Special Supervisor	Principal General Supervisor Special Supervisor	General Supervisor Special Supervisor
A 1	8	7	7	5
2	5	4	3	12
3	6	5	6	2
4	5	11	5	..
5	8	5	2	1
6	7	6	2	..
7	10	5	3	..
8	5	8	6	2
9	4	3	2	2
10	8	11	10	1
11	13	9	5	1
12	10	6	5	1
13	8	10	11	..
B 1	8	1	2	2
2	4	3	5	4
C	10	8	11	1
D	7	8	4	..
E	7	9	12	..
F 1	6	8	5	..
2	5	8	4	4
G	3	6	1	3
H 1 a	1	4	2	..
b	2	4	3	..
c	2	2	2	..
d	2	4	1	..
2	3	4	..	1
3	2	3	..	1
I 1	5	5	4	..
2	2	4	3	1
3	5	3	4	..
4	3	10	4	..
5	2	..	4	..
J	7	1	..	..
K 2	..	..	..	..
L	7	..	..	..
M	8	..	..	..

Read table as follows: From the replies of 57 principals, in 8 cases the control of methods is shared by the principal and general supervisor; in 7 cases it is shared by the principal and special supervisor; in 7 cases it is shared by the principal, general supervisor, and special supervisor; and in 5 cases it is shared by the general supervisor and special supervisor.

The activity number in the first column refers to the number of the question on the questionnaire as given at the end of this chapter.

the type of dual responsibilities from the replies of 25 special supervisors, and Table 10 shows the frequency of 32 general supervisors. These tables agree closely with Table 7 in that the widest overlapping of responsibilities occurs in matters pertaining to the directing of

TABLE 9.—FREQUENCY OF THE TYPES OF DUAL RESPONSIBILITY AS SHOWN FROM THE REPLIES OF SPECIAL SUPERVISORS

Activity Number	Principal General Supervisor	Principal Special Supervisor	Principal General Supervisor Special Supervisor	General Supervisor Special Supervisor
A 1	1	2	2	..
2	..	1	..	1
3	1	2	1	1
4	1	1	..	..
5	1	4	..	..
6	2	2	..	..
7	1	2	1	..
8	..	1	..	2
9	..	4	..	..
10	..	1	1	2
11	1	1	4	1
12	2	4	1	..
13	..	5	4	..
B 1	..	1	1	..
2	1	1	..	2
C	1	7	4	1
D	1	4	..	2
E	1	4	5	..
F 1	..	3	1	..
2	..	1	1	..
G	..	5	1	2
H 1 a	..	..	..	1
b	..	1	..	1
c	..	1	1	..
d	..	1	..	1
2	..	1	1	..
3	..	3	1	2
I 1	..	4	1	..
2	..	3	1	1
3	..	3	1	1
4	..	5	1	..
5	1	3	1	..
J	1	1	1	..
K	3	2	..	..
L	3	1	..	..
M	1	5	1	..

Read table as follows: From the replies of 25 special supervisors, in one case the control of methods is shared by the principal and general supervisor; in two cases it is shared by the principal and special supervisor; and in two cases it is shared by the principal, general supervisor, and special supervisor.

For meaning of the activity numbers see the questionnaire at the end of this chapter.

teaching activities, the control of teachers' programs, and the directing of experimental work.

All tables show that the persons in each group have a tendency to view school activities in the light of their own interests.

TABLE 10.—FREQUENCY OF THE TYPES OF DUAL RESPONSIBILITY AS SHOWN FROM THE REPLIES OF GENERAL SUPERVISORS

Activity Number	Principal General Supervisor	Principal Special Supervisor	Principal General* Supervisor Special Supervisor	General Supervisor Special Supervisor
A 1	7	1	6	2
2	4	1	2	7
3	2	2	2	5
4	6	3	3	2
5	7	1	1	2
6	2	..	1	1
7	7	..	1	1
8	1	2	1	5
9	4	..	1	1
10	8	1	8	1
11	7	..	4	..
12	10	..	2	..
13	7	2	9	1
B 1	3	2	1	1
2	2	..	4	6
C	9	1	13	1
D	11	2	..	3
E	8	2	13	..
F 1	5	4	7	1
2	7	3	5	3
G	3	2	5	5
H 1 a	1	2	2	1
b	2	1	1	1
c	2	1	..	2
d	2	2	..	..
2	4	..	1	..
3	5	..	1	..
I 1	6	..	6	1
2	7	..	2	1
3	3	1	6	2
4	5	3	7	..
5	4	..	3	..
J	8	..	1	..
K	6	..	1	..
L	7	1	..	..
M	6	3	1	..

Read table as follows: From the replies of 32 general supervisors, in seven cases the control of methods is shared by the principal and general supervisor; in one case it is shared by the principal and special supervisor; in six cases it is shared by the principal, general supervisor, and special supervisor; and in two cases it is shared by the general supervisor and special supervisor.

For the meaning of the activity numbers see the questionnaire at the end of this chapter.

THE QUESTIONNAIRE

The following instructions were included in the questionnaire: Please place a check mark in the proper column to indicate what agent is responsible for the several functions listed. If more than one agent performs the same function, indicate by placing a check mark in the column, under II, under each agent performing that function. In case conflicts in authority arise because of divided responsibility in executing any listed function, place a check mark for that function under III.

I. Function	II. Agent				III. Conflict
	Princip- pal	Ass't Princ.	General Super- visor	Special Super- visor	
A. Directing Teaching Activities.					
1. Controls methods					
2. Provides outlines of required work					
3. Sets up achievement standards of pupils					
4. Measures progress of pupils...					
5. Develops study directions.....					
6. Arranges visiting days for teachers					
7. Determines nature of teachers' visiting					
8. Demonstration teaching					
9. Plans visitation program in building					
10. Plans conferences					
11. Suggests reading applicable for teacher					
12. Develops standards for self-improvement					
13. Conducts teachers' meetings ..					
B. Control of Teachers' Programs.					
1. Fixes time allotment					
2. Determines course of study....					
C. Measures progress and efficiency of teachers					
D. Directs experimental work.....					

QUESTIONNAIRE (Continued)

I. Function	II. Agent				III. Conflict
	Princ- pal	Ass't Princ.	General Super- visor	Special Super- visor	
E. Rates teachers					
F. Control of requisitions (instruc- tional)					
1. Quantity					
2. Quality					
G. Approval of special equipment. Who gives approval?.....					
H. Clerical work					
1. Written reports of					
a. Visitations					
b. Meetings					
c. Conferences					
d. Work covered					
2. Supply accounting					
3. Inventories					
I. Publicity and Community Con- tacts.					
1. Interviews with reporters.....					
2. Written articles					
3. Annual report					
4. Exhibits					
5. Community meetings					
J. Controls pupils' promotions.....					
K. Controls classification of new pupils					
L. Controls size of classes.....					
M. Who is principally responsible for results in learning?.....					

CHAPTER V

NEXT STEPS IN SUPERVISION FROM THE STAND- POINT OF THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPAL

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FROM THE STANDPOINT of the elementary school principal, there seem to be several important tendencies in supervision. The most important are as follows:

1. Clearcut conceptions of the aims, technics, and ultimate results of supervision.
2. Adequate allocation of functions among the various officials having supervisory duties.
3. Thorough training for supervision, both the pre-service type and the in-service type.
4. Intelligent and sympathetic recognition of the major human problems involved in such undertakings.
5. The coördination of all plans, purposes, and functions in one administrative department, that each official will render the highest type of service possible in his field.

Because of the limited space, I shall treat only the last mentioned phase of this question, that of coördination. In discussing coördination of supervisory efforts, I shall limit my paper to the principals' attitude toward this important movement. It is largely an administrative question, based upon our conceptions of the most practical functions for each group to perform, and upon the exigencies of local situations.

To secure some idea of the attitude of the principals of the country toward their functions in supervision and in administration, and their relationships toward the supervisors in such duties, a questionnaire study was made. This study included the following questions:

1. Should the principal assume some responsibility for the instruction of subjects for which there are several supervisors?
2. Should the principal take the initiative in discovering problems which arise in the teaching of the special subjects in his school?
3. Should the principal attempt to prevent an over-emphasis upon any of the special subjects?
4. Should the special supervisor have any administrative duties within the school?
5. Would supervisors be justified in reporting to the superintendent's office any principal who showed little or no interest in her subject?
6. Would she be justified in reporting him when he continually seems to be unable to discover the major problems in teaching her subject?

7. Should the principal and supervisor confer regarding the rating of teachers in the special subjects?

8. What is the primary purpose of the supervisor's rating of teachers?

9. What is your basic attitude toward special supervisors?

Questionnaires were sent to 142 principals in various parts of the country, at least two being selected in each state. Eighty-eight replies were received, or 61.9 percent of the broadcast. This is an excellent return for a single broadcast not followed by a second request. The replies represent 37 states and the District of Columbia. States not replying include Nevada, South Carolina, Kansas, Mississippi, New Mexico, Oregon, Montana, New Hampshire, Maine, and Tennessee. The numbers of replies from each state ranged from one to six.

Tabulation of the replies by city size shows an emphasis upon the large cities. This condition is due to the mailing list which included many outstanding principals who are employed in the larger cities. Probably this condition is fortunate for many smaller cities do not employ special supervisors. The distribution of the return is given in Table 1.

TABLE 1.—DISTRIBUTION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE REPLIES BY CITY SIZE

City Size	Number	Percent
Over 100,000	56	63.7
30,000 to 100,000	20	22.7
10,000 to 30,000	9	10.2
Under 10,000	2	2.3
Size unknown	1	1.1
Total	88	100.0

TABLE 2

Question	Answer	Number	Percent
Should the principal assume SOME responsibility for the instruction of subjects for which there are special supervisors?	Yes	88	100
	No	0	0
	Total	88	100.0

The replies to Question 1 have been indicated in Table 2. It will be noted that the principals were in complete agreement. Certain comments are:

1. He is the responsible head of the school in all respects.

2. The responsibility which the principal should assume is that of giving the special subject the intimate supervision and general development that cannot be given by the special supervisor.

3. The principal is the supervising head of his building. He therefore cannot escape the responsibility for the kind of teaching that is done in his building.

4. I believe a principal is responsible to some extent for *all* teaching in his building.

TABLE 3

Question	Answer	Number	Percent
Should the principal TAKE THE INITIATIVE in discovering problems which arise in the teaching of the special subjects in his school?	Yes	66	75
	No	20	22.7
	No report	2	2.3
	Total	88	100.

The tabulation for Question 2 is given in Table 3. On this question there was a tendency for the group to "break up," or to be less positive. Some interpreted the phrase "taking the initiative" as not permitting others to take the first step. Certain comments are:

1. The teacher should take the initiative, as she is in touch with the children in her room. But it is the business of the principal to help her if necessary and by all means lead her to take such a step.

2. The statement is a little strong. Certainly the principal should not be barred from taking the initiative—but it does not follow that the principal should be depended upon when there is adequate supervision and understanding on the part of those heading special departments.

3. I answered "no" because I believe it is primarily the job of the "consulting expert"—the special supervisor. The principal should be willing to investigate, listen to both sides, and make any necessary administrative adjustments.

4. He is responsible for proper coordination of subject matter and activities and for a progressive régime. Of course, the special teacher should also take the initiative.

TABLE 4

Question	Answer	Number	Percent
Should the principal ATTEMPT TO PREVENT an unusual emphasis upon any of the special subjects?	Yes	85	96.6
	No	2	2.3
	No report	1	1.1
	Total	88	100.0

The report on Question 3 has been tabulated in Table 4. Once again there is unanimity of opinion toward concentrating the authority in the hands of the principal. The principal seems to serve as "governor" for the machinery. Comments are:

1. This is the only way to keep a well-balanced sense of values in a school.

2. Most certainly they should coordinate all the subjects and see to it that no one subject is over-emphasized to the detriment of other subjects.

3. A competent administrator will demand a well-balanced program.

4. No, unless it becomes a hobby.

TABLE 5

Question	Answer	Number	Percent
Should the special supervisor have any ADMINISTRATIVE duties within any school?	Yes	77	87.5
	No	10	11.4
	No report	1	1.1
	Total	88	100.0

Turning now to the second part of the questionnaire we have tabulated in Table 5 the returns for Question 4. The answers show that these principals have not been stampeded into an attitude which would exclude supervisors from all authority. Administration seems to be a secondary concern of supervisors. Comments are:

1. The supervisor is the consulting expert and as such is only incidentally concerned with administration.

2. The supervisor may be of great help in administrative duties, but he should always work in conjunction with the principal. The principal must not be an autocrat, but he must be the head of his school.

3. The principal must be the administrator of his building, but a supervisor has a right to expect the principal to simplify problems of routine so far as the instruction is concerned.

TABLE 6

Question	Answer	Number	Percent
Would the supervisor be justified in reporting to the superintendent's office any principal who SHOWED LITTLE OR NO INTEREST in her subject?	Yes	79	89.8
	No	9	10.2
	Total	88	100.0

The report on Question 5 has been tabulated in Table 6. The return on this question is interesting, for we might expect principals to assume a "defensive" attitude. The returns indicate a reasonable attitude toward supervisors. Comments are:

1. There would be something serious the matter with a principal who did not take an interest in every subject taught in his building. The superintendent should know it. A supervisor should have the same right ethically to discuss the principal with his superior officer or vice versa.

2. The principal who is not constructively interested in a given subject is failing to meet his responsibility and should be reported.

3. As I understand it the supervisor is one who comes into a school to supervise the teachers not the principal.

TABLE 7

Question	Answer	Number	Percent
Would she be justified in reporting the principal when he CONTINUALLY seems to be unable to discover the major problems in teaching her subject in his school?	Yes	73	82.9
	No	11	12.5
	No report	4	4.6
	Total	88	100.0

The tabulations on Question 6 are given in Table 7. Once again we principals are subjected to a question which touches our "pride," if not our authority. Naturally we did not agree entirely, but the majority are reasonable toward the supervisors. There is some tendency to urge a conference with the principal before the supervisor reports to the superintendent. Comments are:

1. If the principal is unable to discover major problems in a given subject then he becomes one who ought to be expertly supervised. If the director and supervisor are unable to enlarge his vision and interest, then through the director his case should be brought before the superintendent.

2. I answered "yes," but would like to add that supervisors should first "talk over" with the principal the state of affairs, before reporting to the superintendent.

3. To answer "yes" to this question would be to place the special supervisor over the principal. He should be his expert advisor.

4. I do not want to see the incompetent principal protected, but it is not the job of the supervisor to ferret him out. As soon as the supervisor becomes a tale bearer so soon does she lose her value to the system as a supervisor. It is the job of the superintendent and assistant superintendents to discover the short-comings of the principals.

TABLE 8

Question	Answer	Number	Percent
Should the principal and the supervisor confer regarding the rating of teachers in the special subjects?	Yes	79	89.8
	No	9	10.2
	Total	88	100.0

The tabulations on Question 7 are given in Table 8. There seems to be considerable agreement that principals and supervisors should confer when rating teachers. Some thought the ratings should be assembled in the Central Office. Comments are:

1. This would depend upon the purpose of rating; if to inform the superintendent, "no"; if to improve the teacher, "yes."

2. I have always done so. It enables me to recognize meritorious work and to discipline shirkers.

3. I think it is better for the superintendent to assemble ratings.

TABLE 9

Question	Answer	Number	Percent
Check the PRIMARY purpose of a supervisor's rating of teachers, as you see it.	Administrative	6	6.9
	Supervisory	82	93.1
	Total	88	100.0

The returns on Question 8 are tabulated in Table 9. The principals agree that the supervisor's ratings should not be for administrative purposes. Several dissented from this view, probably due to a different interpretation of terms. Comments are:

1. Any rating of teachers should be supplementary to that of the principal. Such ratings should be for phases of technic and teaching power.

2. The supervisor's rating is administrative and becomes one factor in the final rating given a teacher.

The replies to Question 9 are given in Table 10. In so far as the larger cities are concerned, the supervisor is rapidly becoming a consulting expert. Some principals indicated that "demonstration

teaching" would be one of the activities of the expert. No principal checked the term "intruder." Comments are:

1. In some instances supervisors are both demonstration teachers and consulting experts, particularly in small cities.

2. First duty is that of consulting expert, although I also consider them demonstration teachers.

3. The supervisor is a consulting expert in her subject. As such she will find opportunity for demonstration teaching, but her major function is to serve the school as an expert.

TABLE 10

Question	Answer	Number	Percent
What is your BASIC attitude toward special supervisors?	Expert	70	79.5
	Teacher	16	18.2
	Intruder	0	0
	No report	2	2.3
	Total	88	100.0

TABLE 11.—SUMMARY OF REPLIES TO THE QUESTIONS

Questions	Answer	Number on each answer	Percent on each answer
1. Should the principal assume SOME responsibility for the instruction of subjects for which there are special supervisors?	Yes	88	100
	No	0	0
2. Should the principal TAKE THE INITIATIVE in discovering problems which arise in the teaching of the special subjects in his schools?	Yes	66	75
	No	20	22.7
	No report	2	2.3
3. Should the principal ATTEMPT TO PREVENT an unusual emphasis upon any of the special subjects?	Yes	85	96.6
	No	2	2.3
	No report	1	1.1
4. Should the special supervisor have any ADMINISTRATIVE duties within any school?	Yes	85	96.6
	No	2	2.3
	No report	1	1.1
5. Would the supervisor be justified in reporting to the Superintendent's office any principal who SHOWED LITTLE OR NO INTEREST IN HER SUBJECT?	Yes	79	89.8
	No	9	10.2
6. Would she be justified in reporting the principal when he CONTINUALLY seems to be unable to discover the major problems in teaching the special subject in his school?	Yes	73	82.9
	No	11	12.5
	No report	4	4.6
7. Should the principal and the supervisor CONFER regarding the rating of teachers in the special subjects?	Yes	79	89.8
	No	9	10.2
8. Check the PRIMARY purpose of a supervisor's rating of teachers, as you see it.	Administrative	6	6.9
	Supervisory	82	93.1
9. What is your BASIC attitude toward special supervisors?	Expert	70	79.5
	Teacher	16	18.2
	Intruder	0	0
	No report	2	2.3

SOME GENERAL COMMENTS

I think that the principal should have complete authority in his school. Since principals are not sufficiently expert in all subjects, especially those subjects most recently added to the curriculum, specialists are needed to help make the work effective. Such supervisors must of necessity work under the immediate direction of the superintendent, but as helpers to him and to the principals, not as administrative officers. Supervisors with administrative functions would divide authority and decrease efficiency. Authority must be coincident with responsibility, and since the principal is responsible for his school, the authority also must be his.

As between supervisor and principal, the latter is supreme in his school. The supervisor is a specialist, an adviser, and a helping teacher who gives model lessons and helps in other ways. The supervisor knows more about the subject than the principal, who should lean on the former for technical advice. The principal should work with the supervisor and give her full credit for special ability. But the principal is the head of *all* in his school, and that includes the whole department of the supervisor.

Of course, there is a twilight zone between administration and supervision which may be better defined. In general, however, I believe the supervisor is an advisory expert, and should not be concerned with administration, except in the matter of materials and equipment as related to instruction. The principal is also a supervisor of instruction, and he calls upon the supervisor as an expert, especially when some research problem is confronted.

The attitude of the supervisor toward the principal depends quite largely upon the principal. If he commands the respect of supervisors, they will take their correct place. The relationship between a principal and supervisor also depends upon the personality of the supervisor. When supervisors come into my office they ask what I wish to have done. They advise, but never command.

I am a firm believer in the unity of the educational program. In the principal this unity finds its strongest support, but in the special supervisor and special teacher it too often finds its greatest obstacle. The correction of this condition is one of the great opportunities for principals and supervisors.

Principals of schools are the responsible administrative heads of their respective schools, and are charged with the organization, supervision, and administration thereof. Every person coming into direct contact with the teachers and pupils of a school should be under the

supervision and direction of the principal of the school. The principal should be the sole rating officer for the teachers of the school.

SUMMARY

This study seems to indicate several tendencies in the organization and administration of supervision:

1. The tendency to lessen, if not eliminate, all the administrative duties of the special supervisor in the schools, and for the principal to assume the major responsibilities in his own school.
2. A tendency to increase the responsibility of the principal in supervision.
3. A tendency to regard the supervisor as a consulting expert to assist the teacher and the principal in the solution of problems.
4. A tendency to study local problems in advance of the visit of the supervisor that she might function to the best advantage.
5. A very decided tendency to lessen the questioning of authority, the shirking of responsibilities, and the indications of petty jealousies.
6. A tendency for principals and supervisors to recognize common aims and purposes in securing higher standards of attainment.

AS SOON as the principal accepts and approves a program proposed by the supervisor, the responsibility for the successful development of the program of instruction no longer rests on the supervisor. The initiative now lies with the principal. If he desires aid, the supervisor stands ready to render it, but the supervisor acts only when invited to do so by the principal.—Charles L. Spain, *A New Definition of the Functions of the Supervisor*, 1926, p. 502.

CHAPTER VI

ESTABLISHING STANDARDS IN WRITTEN COMPOSITION

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PRELIMINARY PROBLEMS

WRITTEN COMPOSITION is primarily an art. As such it does not lend itself readily to scientific testing and measuring. Certain standards, however, are now fairly well established in the technical fields of spelling, punctuation, vocabulary, and grammar, but the general problem of rating written composition remains astonishingly complex. This complexity is related closely to three problems of importance to the elementary school principal—the problems of general merit, teacher judgment, and diagnosis of written composition.

The problem of general merit—A written English composition is a unit of written expression. It is evaluated to help the pupil improve his work. At the same time the teacher usually rates the quality of the pupil's composition in order to keep his reports up-to-date and to register the relative standing of each of his pupils. How may all of this best be done? Is it better to rate a composition as a complete unit on the basis of general impression or to analyze it into its elements and then rate each, so as to obtain a total score? Both technics have been widely recommended. Hudelson writes:

Specific qualities can and often should be measured separately; but when the general effect of written expression, such as society is usually concerned with, is to be judged, it must be considered in its entirety. In matters of appreciation the sum of the parts does not necessarily equal the whole. One may stand before a painting and scrutinize one by one the quality or composition of the pigments, the dimensions, design, color, or workmanship of the frame, the quality of the canvas, the artist's name, his technic, or his mastery of proportion or perspective; but if one would judge the picture as a work of art he must either combine his separate judgments of these various aspects or, what is more probable, consider all elements simultaneously. He must see it singly and see it whole. So with sculpture and architecture and music. Imagination, which, after all, renders the final verdict upon art, defies mere analysis; and composition is an art.¹

¹Hudelson, Earl. "English Composition. Its Aims, Methods, and Measurement." *The Twenty-Second Yearbook*, Part I, National Society for the Study of Education, 1923, p. 55.

On the other hand, Gainsburg insists that general merit begs the question.¹

It does not define what it indicates and leaves the same diversity of opinion as though no scientific study of teaching composition had even been attempted. There is every chance that those judging by such standard use some favorite quality of their own which colors their opinion of the whole composition. This makes the judgment neither fair, nor one by "general merit."

The more complex and difficult the elements, the harder they are to analyze, Gainsburg concludes, and so measurement becomes unreliable on the basis of general merit. In a more recent article Gainsburg discusses this principle again and questions the validity of composition scales as compared with the subjective judgment of teachers.² The disagreement does not end here. C. H. Ward writes that general merit does not take care of minimum essentials or so-called "slight errors."³ He claims that a well-ordered and pleasing theme may be scored below passing after a certain time of the year because of a few errors which show that a pupil has not mastered the rudiments of composition.

No surveyor of educational efficiency, unfamiliar with this variable standard, can evaluate these minutiae, and general impression by a scale method will not accord with the values that teachers must assign at certain times to certain blunders if they are following the strategy of minima.

Although placed out of their context, these quotations briefly summarize both sides. Each is justified. The elementary school principal, however, is interested in their respective influence on standards. These will be interpreted later as *compromise* standards—a series of representative pupil compositions, Grades 3B to 8B, selected on the basis of general merit, analyzed into their elements by means of positive and negative criticisms, and checked with use of an objective composition scale. Sample 1 illustrates a specimen from the composition scale.

¹ Gainsburg, Joseph C. "Fundamental Issues in Evaluating Composition." *Pedagogical Seminary* 31: 70-71; March, 1924.

² Gainsburg, Joseph C. "The Problem of Rating Compositions." *Bulletin* 6: 81-87. Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association. January, 1927.

³ Ward, C. H. *What is English?* Scott, Foresman & Co., 1925, pp. 332-42. On the scale illusion.

SAMPLE 1

Excellent

Hudelson Score 4.3

5A GRADE

Paper No. 305

The Pet of the Camp

Billy was the pet of the camp. The first time I saw him he was eating out of a sardine can. He was the drollest little pig I ever saw. He was about seven inches high. He had long reddish bristal hair. His home was a soap box. It had a swinging door which Billy could push open to let himself out. When the sargain came around in the morning he would ask, "Billy have you had your rations yet?" Billy would anser, "wee," which is pretty good french for yes. In the evening the sargain would knock at the top of Billies house. Then he would hear a grunt which might have meant all is well. Then the sargain would say, "Billy is safe in his quarters, I wish I were."

Positive

The originality of treatment is so dominant as to make mechanical errors appear slight. The composition proceeds definitely through a beginning, a middle, and a conclusion. The principle of unity is very well illustrated.

Negative

The first seven sentences present no variety of structure. Misspelling: "sargain," "Billies," "bristal," "anser."

The problem of teacher judgment—Voluminous evidence points to the unreliability of teachers' marks. On the other hand, when teachers have used an objective composition scale as a guide, their judgment tends to become more reliable.¹ This is true, however, only in the case of teachers who have become expert in the use of such objective instruments. These scales are often unwillingly adopted because their mastery demands hours of arduous practice in order to increase reliability and to reduce variations in judgment. Concerning this Leonard adds:

Experience with using a scale really reduces these variations; but it has not been proved that this reduction is any greater than would be produced by a similar expenditure of time and effort by the same teachers in marking the same number of themes without a scale and discussing wide diversities of grading.²

Nevertheless there remains the urgent need of the beginning teacher for some objective help, and even the experienced teacher, who has become set in her ways, needs the stimulus of new standards.

¹Hudelson, Earl. "The Effect of Objective Standards Upon Composition Teachers' Judgments." *Journal of Educational Research* 12: 329-40; December, 1925.

²Leonard, S. A. "Building a Scale of Purely Composition Quality," *The English Journal* 14: 760-75; December, 1925.

The problem of diagnosis of written composition—Neither teachers nor principals are satisfied with the mere tabulation of scores in any testing program. They now expect to be able to make a diagnosis of pupil-failure on the basis of well-established standards in order to improve instruction. It is not enough to know that one's class is 2.4 points below the national standard for the grade. If the measurement of teaching efficiency is to be based upon the achievements of pupils—and there is reason to believe that this is coming to be the tendency¹—then each teacher should be trained in the process of diagnosis or be furnished with such simple instruments of measurement as will give him a working basis for the diagnosis of results. Because of this attitude, some composition scales and composition samples contain analytical comments in terms of merits and demerits.

It must be admitted, however, that no written composition ever can be exactly like a given sample in a scale or in a graded series of annotated papers. It may approximate any one of these, but it hardly can be rated with the same precision as $2 + 2$ or the spelling of the word "cat." Nevertheless, units of composition which give more than just a numerical score and contain diagnostic notes are much to be desired.

Furthermore, valid rating of the mechanical elements of written composition is dependent upon clearly defined specific objectives, properly graded. While there have been dozens upon dozens of tests in this field, those which yield the greatest return to the classroom teacher are chiefly diagnostic in character. However, before these tests can be of greatest service, a number of problems will first have to be settled. What mechanical abilities in written English are needed by children in their free self-expression life? What are the appropriate school grades in which the development of these abilities should be sought?² What constitutes valid diagnosis?³ That there is an awareness of such problems is indicated in the painstaking research of the Essentials Committee of the National Council of Teachers of English. A study of 24 representative courses of study revealed a startling lack of uniformity concerning the mechanics of composition.

¹ Monroe, W. S., and Clark, J. A. "Measuring Teaching Efficiency." *Educational Research Circular No. 25*. University of Illinois Bulletin. Jan. 28, 1924, pp. 14-26.

² Guiler, W. S. "Analysis of Children's Writings as a Basis for Instruction in English." *Journal of Educational Method* 5: 259-64; February, 1926.

³ Willing, Matthew H. *Valid Diagnosis in High School Composition*. Contributions to Education, No. 230, 1926. Teachers College, Columbia University.

While many new courses include fine graded material worked out in considerable detail, apparently well chosen and practical, no course combines all the desirable qualities.¹

Assuming that they are reliable, many language, grammar, and punctuation tests are more exact measuring instruments for individual pupil needs than any composition scale can ever hope to be. Because of this they are being used widely for diagnosing students' shortcomings. In this connection, it is not the purpose of the writer to summarize the investigations in this field. While they are significant, and continue to be increasingly so, they are not the major problem of this article.

CURRENT TENDENCIES IN RATING WRITTEN COMPOSITION

An examination of typical courses of study will indicate in a measure the varied type of standards already established to measure written composition.

Topeka, Kansas—A supplement to the English Course of Study is the *1914 Scale for the Measurement of Merit*. It consists of a series of 20 compositions so arranged as to show a gradual development in thought and in application of the fundamental principles of composition. The making of this scale showed the need of another which would indicate definite standards of technical accomplishment, the unity of purpose in the teaching of composition in the elementary and secondary schools, definite standards for marking attainment, and clear definition of the meaning of symbols used to mark attainment. Therefore, another scale was derived—the *1920 Scale for the Measurement of Technical Achievement*. This scale is specifically designed to measure technical ability in composition in the elementary and secondary grades. Each of the 20 compositions has critical comments attached giving the requirements for the grade and an analysis of E, VG, G, F, and P for the grade. Samples, grades 2B to 6A, are exact reproductions in the handwriting of the pupils.

Chicago, Illinois—Definite standards of achievement are provided in *English in the Elementary Schools*, Bulletin No. 21, 1921. Sample compositions rated in terms of fair, good, excellent, and superior, are set up as standards; each has a critical note. Fair is interpreted to mean a composition which at least 75 percent of the pupils could equal or excel at the end of the term. These standards

¹ Camenisch, Sophia C. "Representative Courses of Study in English." *The English Journal* 16: 288; April, 1927.

were designed originally to measure oral composition. However, they have been used widely for both written and oral work because the samples are free from mechanical errors. Although they lack the mathematical precision in their derivation which composition standards are expected to have, the Chicago standards have had a nationwide influence in the creation of purely local standards.

Charleston, Illinois—Specimens of children's work in terms of best, good, average, minimum, and not passing are given in *The Course of Study in English for the First Six Grades*, Eastern Illinois State Teachers College, Bulletin No. 74, 1921. The derivation of these specimens is not indicated. However, each grade has a few specific attainments in mechanics which each child should achieve. The standard for these is 100 percent.

Baltimore, Maryland—Grade standards for written compositions in terms of good, fair, and poor are found in *The English Course of Study for Grades Four, Five, and Six*, 1924. Fair, as in Chicago, is understood to mean such a composition which at least 75 percent of the pupils could equal or excel at the end of the grade. The composition standards based on the consensus of teacher judgment are homogeneous narrative from experience—and are free from mechanical errors. They are not intended as models to be imitated, but are used as a help to both teacher and pupils in estimating the quality of work done. Technical requirements are listed for each grade. The specimen compositions are not supplied with critical notes as the pupils are given standard "criticism" outlines for the correction of form and content.

Minneapolis, Minnesota—The Education Bulletin, No. 6, 1925, *English in the Elementary Schools*, contains a scale for rating friendly letters, Grades 3-6, and a scale for rating narratives based on personal experiences, Grades 1-6. Samples are rated in qualities poor, fair, good, and excellent. Each has an analytical note criticizing content and form. The letters were written without oral preparation and the narratives were compositions given orally and criticized before they were written. No detailed account of procedure is given, but the Bulletin indicates that these standards are tentative. It is recommended that both scales be posted where they can be readily accessible to the children in comparing and judging their own work.

Denver, Colorado—The Denver Composition Scale is published in *The Course of Study Monographs, Number Nine*, English Junior High School, Grades Seven, Eight, and Nine, 1925. This scale was devised by grading papers with the Nassau County Supplement to the Hillegas scale. From a large number of samples 100 papers were

selected. These were again scored with the same scale by 137 English teachers, and given values according to the median judgment. The compositions selected represent percentile points and range from third grade achievement to college ability. Those which represent the median may be considered satisfactory for the "average" child. While ability by grades is indicated, no critical notes are appended to the samples.

The Alabama Tentative Course of Study in Language, Grades I-VI, 1927, uses graded specimen compositions derived for the most part from the Chicago Course and Sheridan's *Speaking and Writing English*. The course provides specifically for the mastery of mechanical elements by grades. There are only a few critical comments in connection with the compositions set up as standards. It can be stated that the use of standards from other courses seems to be a prevalent practice.

Many textbooks are veritable courses of study which offer specific standards by grades. Where local courses do not contain sample compositions those in textbooks are frequently used.

Scales and Other Scoring Devices—The use of well-known objective scales derived with scientific precision seems to be restricted more and more to state and city surveys rather than classrooms. Teachers are not generally willing to practice in order to increase their own reliability and reduce variations in judgment. In several cities there are now a number of teachers who may be definitely called "experts" in the use of a composition scale. Among others such a group may be found in the faculty of the Central High School, St. Paul, Minnesota.

The general merit scales which have avoided most of the limitations of their predecessors are *The Hudelson English Composition Scale*, 1921, and *The Typical Composition Ability Scale*, 1923. They are distinguished for the even spacing between the qualities of consecutive samples, for the scientific control of conditions of testing, and for the appealing subjectmatter of the assignments. The practice samples in scoring appended to each scale are invaluable devices to train scorers. These scales do not contain critical notes for each sample.

By far the most significant departure are *The Scales for Measuring Special Types of English Composition* by E. E. Lewis, 1923. There are five scales: simple order letters, letters of application, simple narrative social letters, expository social letters, and narrative compositions on the topic, "One of My Most Interesting Experiences." The first four supply a definite need in the rating of com-

position. The writing of letters is coming to be one of the most important subjects in written composition and, as such, requires the special types of specific measurement that these scales attempt.

A study by Leonard, "Building a Scale of Purely Composition Quality,"¹ offers typical scales of ability in English composition, without any consideration whatever for mechanics, or form of speech or writing. Critical notes indicate the value and defects of each sample. If teachers can be trained to isolate "purely composition quality" without being influenced by mechanical errors, they will find the rating of compositions a much simpler task than it has been so far.

A new development is *The Driggs-Mayhew National Scales for Measuring Compositions* for Junior High School, grades seven, eight and nine. While this scale is not of primary interest to the elementary school principal, its basic idea may be of value. There are fifteen samples for each grade, three of each quality: A, B, C, D, and E. The characteristics of these qualities are indicated for each group of three. A feature of these scales is a preliminary oral test-lesson to motivate pupil spontaneity for the actual written composition test period of 15 minutes. Tentative median ratings are given in percents for each quality.

In addition to standardized scales, arbitrary guides for criticizing written composition are widely used. While such standards do not have scientific objectivity, they certainly are better than unrestrained subjective judgment. One teacher uses a grade sheet of 10 items worked out on a percentile basis which deals with such items as the mechanics of writing, interest, originality, effectiveness, organization, effort, and appearance.² Another presents an arbitrary outline of composition qualities to be used as a basis for grading. Klapper offers an Analytic Rating Chart to objectify teacher judgment. It has three major divisions with appropriate subdivisions: (1) Content aspect of composition, (2) Language aspect, and (3) Formal aspects.³ Other writers give sets of questions to guide the judgment of both pupil and teacher.

¹Leonard, S. A. "Building a Scale of Purely Composition Quality." *The English Journal* 14: 760-75; December, 1925.

²Holley, Hilda Jane. "Correcting and Grading Themes." *The English Journal* 13: 29-34; January, 1924.

³Klapper, Paul. *Teaching English in Elementary and Junior High Schools*. D. Appleton & Co., 1925.

A national questionnaire—It can be seen at a glance that a mere summary of the use of standard and home-made composition scales is not sufficient data from which to draw valid conclusions. Therefore, the writer sent the following questionnaire to 525 superintendents of schools.

QUESTIONNAIRE BLANK

January 27, 1927.

1. Does your course of study in written English contain sample compositions of children's work?
 - (a) If "Yes," when was the course adopted?
 - (b) If "Yes," are these samples rated in terms of excellent, good, fair, poor or their equivalent?
 - (c) If "Yes," are there critical notes added to these samples?
2. If your answer is "No" to the first question, are you planning to introduce such samples into your course?

City.....

Signature.....

The good response, probably due to the simplicity of the answers required, was 359 or 68.4 percent of all the questionnaires sent out. An analysis follows:

1. Does your course of study in written English contain sample compositions of children's work?

- (a) Replies to Question 1.

Cities reporting "Yes": 76 (21.2%)

Cities reporting "No": 283 (78.8%)

- (b) If "yes" when was the course adopted?

Cities not reporting data: 8

Distribution by year of adoption:

1917.....	2	1922.....	9
1918.....	2	1923.....	8
1919.....	1	1924.....	9
1920.....	4	1925.....	10
1921.....	2	1926.....	9
		1927 ¹	12

- (c) If "yes," are these samples rated in terms of excellent, good, fair, poor, or their equivalent?

Cities reporting "Yes": 56 (16.2%)

Two cities report that only "good" samples are used; another, that only "excellent" samples are used.

- (d) If "Yes," are there critical notes added to these samples?

Cities reporting "Yes": 47 (13.1%)

2. If your answer is "No" to the first question, are you planning to introduce such samples into your course?

Cities reporting intention to include samples:

130 or 45.9% of the cities reporting "No" in Question No. 1.

Cities which are not planning:

153 or 54.1% of the cities reporting "No" in Question No. 1.

¹Includes courses in process of revision.

Many cities made comments in replying to this question. The following are a few from cities which intend to include sample compositions:

It is a good idea.

We have our samples collected and specimens chosen.

Yes, I think standards are fine. We like the Chicago English course of study.

We have in mind and have had in mind for some time the idea of doing this very thing. We hope to make a beginning this semester.

I believe it would be advantageous. Revision being planned.

Cities not planning to introduce samples commented as follows:

Under advisement.

No, but it should.

No decision yet.

Have not considered it.

Texts give samples.

No, but I can see where it would be of great value.

I believe children ought always to see the ideal, if possible.

Think plan ought to be carefully considered.

On the basis of these returns it is possible to give partial lists of the cities which have sample compositions in their courses of study, as follows:

TABLE 1.—CITIES WITH GRADED SAMPLE COMPOSITION STANDARDS¹

Oshkosh, Wis.	1926	Altoona, Pa.	1924
Escanaba, Mich.	1926	San Francisco, Cal.	1924
Huron, S. D.	1926	Okmulgee, Okla.	1923
Scranton, Pa.	1926	Jackson, Mich.	1923
New Castle, Pa.	1926	Nampa, Idaho	1923
New Haven, Conn. (developed during past five years)		Hamtramck, Mich.	1923
Hannibal, Mo.	1925	Chicopee, Mass.	1923
Denver, Colo.	1925	Sault Ste. Marie, Mich.	1922
Paterson, N. J.	1925	Lawrence, Mass.	1922
Detroit, Mich.	1925	Joliet, Ill.	1922
Minneapolis, Minn.	1925	Orange, N. J.	1922
Berkeley, Cal.	1925	Wyandotte, Mich.	1922
Hartford, Conn.	1925	Boston, Mass. (in some grades) ..	1922
Akron, Ohio	1924	Chicago, Ill.	1921
Baltimore, Md.	1924	Mason City, Iowa	1920
Stillwater, Minn.	1924	Topeka, Kansas	1920
		Providence, R. I.	1918

Summary of current practices—At present there is no single tendency which predominates. There is a variety of tendencies, the most representative of which will be briefly summarized.

1. City school systems have taken their cue from the makers of standard composition scales. An attempt is being made to produce similar scales based upon local products. In most cases, however,

¹ The writer will be glad to receive additions to these lists.

these local products do not have scientific validity, but because they have been derived from actual classroom work in a given city and represent voluntary participation by the local teaching staff, they arouse more enthusiasm and interest in objective measurement than an outside scale. Home-made standards seem to be in order.¹

2. The use of well-known objective scales derived with scientific precision is found more and more in state and city surveys rather than in active classrooms. Few teachers are willing to master scales which require a great deal of time and effort.

3. The elementary school principal may choose from a wealth of material relating to the subject and take a definite stand as to standards in written composition.

TABLE 2.—COURSES OF STUDY WITH COMPOSITION SAMPLES WHICH LACK CRITICAL NOTES

Alabama State Course.....	1927	Norfolk, Va.	1923
Cicero, Ill.	1927	Birmingham, Ala.	1923
Davenport, Iowa	1926	Laramie, Wyo.	1923
Cheyenne, Wyo.	1926	Highland Park, Mich.....	1922
McKeesport, Pa.	1926	Des Moines, Iowa.....	1922
Grand Island, Mich.....	1926	La Crosse, Wis.....	1922
Evanston, Ill.	1925	Santa Barbara, Cal.....	1921
Clinton, Iowa	1925	Alton, Ill.	1920
East Orange, N. J.....	1925	Denison, Texas	1920
Holyoke, Mass.	1924	Cranston, R. I.....	1919
Rutland, Vt.	1924	Montana State Course.....	1918
Fort Smith, Ark.....	1924	Mount Vernon, N. Y.....	1917
Fall River, Mass.....	1924		

TABLE 3.—CITIES PLANNING TO INCLUDE STANDARDS IN REVISED COURSES

Saginaw, Mich.	Quincy, Mass.
Fargo, N. D.	Clarksburg, W. Va.
Grand Rapids, Mich.	Gary, Ind.
Minneapolis, Minn.	Kansas City, Mo.
Annapolis, Md.	

4. The results of the writer's national questionnaire indicate a growing tendency to include graded annotated composition samples as standards in courses of study. One hundred and thirty cities without standards, plan to adopt them in the near future.

AN EXPERIMENTAL STUDY IN THE PHILADELPHIA SCHOOLS

In the light of the problems already discussed and of the brief summary of current tendencies in rating written composition, the writer conducted a coöperative experimental study in District Two of the

¹ Wohlfarth, Julia H. *Self-Help Methods of Teaching English*. World Book Co., 1925, Chap. XI, "Composition Standards and Measuring Scales."

Philadelphia school system.¹ District Two is one of the 10 districts into which the public educational system is divided. It comprises an area of approximately eight square miles, contains 19 elementary schools, and two junior high schools; in February, 1927, there were in Grades 3B to 8B inclusive, 12,000 pupils.

The purpose of this study was to establish tentative standards in written composition, Grades 3B to 8B inclusive in District Two.

Procedure—Ten representative schools were selected so as to include the widest possible range of achievement in the district. In order to standardize details of procedure very definite instructions were sent to principals and teachers. Compositions based upon the requirements of each grade were written by 12,000 pupils. Ten representative papers for each grade section, 3B to 8B, were selected on the basis of general merit, as follows:

- 2 papers to which the teacher assigned EXCELLENT
- 2 papers to which the teacher assigned GOOD
- 2 papers to which the teacher assigned FAIR
- 2 papers to which the teacher assigned POOR
- 2 papers to which the teacher assigned VERY POOR

In this way 1070 papers were chosen. Each of these papers was scored by teachers through voluntary coöperation. Since the papers had already been marked once as submitted by the classroom teacher, it was thought best to have them scored nine times more, each time by a different scorer or judge. This would give a total of 10,700 judgment marks for the complete set of papers.

For the purposes of this study those papers which showed the greatest uniformity of judgment would be most desirable and those which showed the greatest variation would be least desirable. It would be necessary to find at least four papers of each quality (Excellent, Good, Fair, Poor, Very Poor) within each grade to be used as a reasonable working basis. If arbitrary weights were assigned to each quality, *i. e.*, Excellent 5, Good 4, Fair 3, Poor 2, Very Poor 1, it would be possible to select those papers which showed greatest uniformity. Thus perfect scores would be Excellent 50, Good 40, Fair 30, Poor 20, Very Poor 10—or ten similar scores for each paper. In this case, to have found the median for each paper would not show its relative position nearly so well as the weighting method.

¹For complete details see: Berman, Samuel. *Standards in Written Composition: An Experimental Study in District Two of the Philadelphia Public School System*. Temple University, Philadelphia, Pa., 1928.

Even with 1070 papers from which to make a selection it was difficult to find 20 papers for each grade. In all there were only 44 compositions in which the scores were in absolute agreement—less than five percent of all the compositions: E's 7, G's 3, F's 9, P's 11, V. P's 14. However, there were 109 papers with nine scores in agreement. On the basis of the 220 papers selected the representation is as follows:

Number of Papers	Number of Similar Scores	Percent of 220
44.....	10 (perfect agreement)	20.0
109.....	9 (all but one).....	49.5
59.....	8 (all but two).....	26.8
8.....	7 (all but three).....	3.7

While a composite of multiple teacher judgment is more reliable than individual judgment, it certainly is not so reliable as to be accepted without some objective check. For this reason each of the 220 compositions selected was scored ten times by trained experts using the Hudelson English Composition Scale. These experts are on the staff of the Central High School, St. Paul, Minnesota, a school which has produced the Saint Paul Central High School Composition Scale.

3. The most important check, however, was to determine each composition's approach to the national standards set up by Hudelson for the grade concerned. If "fair" represents a quality midway between excellent and very poor, then the national standards which are the median or middle scores could be interpreted as the "fair" standard for the grade on the basis of a five-point quality grouping. With this in mind the writer had the compositions scored by these 10 experts. A further selection reduced the total to 101 papers. Each paper now had two scores: the multiple judgment mark in terms of Excellent, Good, Fair, Poor, or Very Poor; and second, the median score of 10 experts who used the Hudelson Scale.

4. The compositions so selected would fail of their purpose if they were returned to the teachers with two scores. A further analysis seemed to be necessary. Therefore, a committee of ten teachers and principals was chosen to study the papers for the purpose of analyzing their merits and demerits. This coöperative study would furnish a means for diagnosis of the compositions selected, show how closely they conformed to the requirements of the Philadelphia course of study in English, and indicate typical weak spots for drill purposes. Criticisms of each paper were summarized under two heads: positive and negative.

Results—In accordance with procedure briefly explained, we now have 101 representative samples which can be used as tentative standards in written composition. The following, for example, are the tentative standards for grade 4A (first half of fourth year):

4A GRADE

Excellent

Hudelson Score 3.2

4A GRADE

Paper No. 116

Mary's Pets

One summer day Mary was walking along the road. She heard a noise in the bushes. She looked all around. Then she looked in the bushes and saw two hungry kittens. She took them home and gave them some smik. When they were done they both ran into the barn. They both tumbled into the hay, and went fast asleep.

Positive

Sentences are clear, definite, and personal. An adequate "sentence consciousness" is indicated. One sentence leads to the next. The last sentence is an effective closing.

Negative

There is no paragraph indention.
"Smik."

Excellent

Hudelson Score 3.1

4A GRADE

Paper No. 103

My Pet

One day my father was out. When he came home he had three little Puppy dogs. He kept one and gave the other two away. I used to feed him. We called him "Duk". I would say to him "here Duk". He would come jumping all over me. He grew so big we had to give him to my uncle. We went up to see him a month ago. He was so big and hairy! His hair was five inches long! He is an airdale, and I still love him.

Positive

This composition has the merit of clear sentences. These seem to be abrupt, but they lead to a definite conclusion. They are personal and give specific details.

"I still love him" is effective.

Negative

First sentence is indefinite—"one day" and "out." "Puppy" is capitalized. "Duk" probably "Duke." Quotation "here Duk." "He is an airdale" seems to be in the wrong position. There is no paragraph indention.

Good

Hudelson Score 2.8

4A GRADE

Paper No. 124

The Fox and the Grapes.

Once a fox was walking along a rood. When he saw a grape vine He wanted the grapes very much. After a while when he saw that he could not reach the grapes he said those grapes are sour anyway who would eat them. I like the story because I wanted to see if the fox got the grapes for being so greedy.

Positive

Sentences are clear and lead to a definite conclusion. The last sentence might be questioned for its relationship to the preceding sentences, but it gives a personal note to the reproduction. "When he saw" and "After a while" help to vary sentence structure.

Negative

Period after title is unnecessary. Misspelling of road. "He" in second sentence should not be capitalized.

Good

Hudelson Score 2.8

4A GRADE

Paper No. 134

Spoiled Fun

One Sunday my aunt uncle and my cousin and I went to White stone beach. My uncle aunt and I went in swiming my little baby cousin went with us. My uncle took me in very deep. He took me in so deep that my uncles mouth was full of water. I told my uncle that I wanted to go with my aunt a little while.

My uncle took me off his sholders. When I Was going to my aunt I stepped on a piece of glass and cut my foot thats how my fun was spoild.

Positive

Exactness of details and a dramatic ending put this composition in the "good" group.

Negative

Punctuation weak: "stone beach," commas missing in first and second sentences; "uncles," no period after foot, no capital "T" or apostrophe in "thats." Misspelling: "stepped" "spoild," "swiming."

Fair

Hudelson Score 2.3

4A GRADE

Paper No. 150

Marion and her shepherd dog

Once there was a little who was playing on the beach, with her bucket and shovel. Her little shovel fell in the water, She tried to get it but she fell in the water herself. She cried for help, The dog heard her calling down the beach, he heard the little voice crieding he knew it was his play maid so he ran down the beach and bought her back to land.

Positive

This composition proceeds from an introduction through a body of detail to a definite ending.

Negative

Structure is involved in last "sentence." Punctuation really at fault in the use of commas. "In" is used for "into"; misspelling—"crieding," "play maid," "bought."

Fair

Hudelson Score 2.6

4A GRADE

Paper No. 155

Mary's Pat

Mary lives in a ald farm house in the country. One day Mary wint to take a walk in the woods. She saw two little kitten in the bushes. She got them and brought them home
She got a saucer of milk and Whitey was drinking his milk.
They had to take a turn each.
Every day Mary made them drink milk.

Positive

Sentence structure is generally definite. An attempt at telling an interesting episode is made. "They had to take a turn each" is naive.

Negative

Poor idea of form; sentences do not immediately follow after each other. The seventh sentence about "Whitey" is not clear. Misspelling "pat," "kitten," "wint." Vocabulary is limited.

Poor

Hudelson Score 1.5

4A GRADE

Paper No. 158

The Dog and His Shadow

A dog ocme had a piece of meat. He had to go across a stream to his house. on the way he look down in the water and sed his shadow. He thought tohimself. I will get meat them a will have twa piece of meat. So he bark at the dog and the piece of meat fell out of his mouth. and learn the greedy dog a lesson. and he had to go home without his dinnner

Positive

The thought is clear and proceeds definitely to a climax.

Negative

Mechanical elements spoil this composition.

Misspelling: " ocme"—once

" sed"—said

" tohimself"—to himself

" twa"—two

" learn"—learn (teach)

" dinnner"—dinner

Punctuation is faulty; see " sentences" 3 and 4.

Poor

Hudelson Score 1.4

4A GRADE

Paper No. 176

The Ants and the Grasshoppers

Once upone a time their was some Ants and some Grasshoppers it was summer time The ants where very busy in the summer time and the Grasshoppers jumping over fences a playing in the grass and haveing a very good time. And the ants were doing very hard work. then winter came the grasshoppers were hungry the Ants were gatheraten food for winter

Positive

General thought is clear.

Negative

This composition lacks "sentence sense." Proper use of periods is not indicated. Misspelling: " upone," " their," " gatheraten," " haveing."

Very Poor

Hudelson Score 1.2

4A GRADE

Paper No. 187

The New Skates

I have a pear of Skates and eney day.
 I Skates to The store and The school.
 My Mothe take me to store whit here.
 Eney day I go out Skates om my Skates.

Positive**Negative**

Form is immature; there is no "sentence sense." Spelling and punctuation are at fault; capitalization is particularly bad. "The" "Skates," "Mothe."

Very Poor

Hudelson Score 1.0

4A GRADE

Paper No. 191

Spoiled Fun

My uncil tock me on his truck and my uncil hot flow and I went to chitch it I omost fel off the truck and thaits hea my Fun wes Spoiled.

Positive**Negative**

Leads to a conclusion.

All written in one sentence. Spelling, punctuation, and sentence sense completely at fault.

Interpretation and application—An analysis of each paper for merits and defects in the form of positive and negative comments yields a basis for diagnostic testing and remedial teaching with every class at the beginning of each new term. Since these comments are in conformity with the requirements of the course of study in English, they really furnish the teacher with a definite evaluation of the qualities of excellent, good, fair, poor, and very poor *at the beginning of each term*. While it must be admitted that no composition ever can be exactly like a given sample, there will be enough specific similarities to warrant a tabulation of the errors most common to a given class at the beginning of a school term. This should furnish a reliable working basis for instruction.

2. These tentative standards can be printed on one long sheet like a spelling scale or handwriting scale. The teacher can place this before him when rating a set of papers.

3. If the teacher finds that at the very beginning of the term his class equals or excels the good quality median, he should attempt the "excellent" quality as his goal. In this connection, he should note that the composition standards of the next higher grade are equivalent to the compositions of his class at the end of the term. That is, the beginning-of-term standards for the next higher grade can be interpreted as his end-of-term standards.

4. Any principal can readily discover the achievement level in written composition of his school in Grades 3B to 8B. If at the beginning of each term, he has each teacher collect a set of compositions in conformity with the procedure outlined and then has the teacher score them with the use of the tentative standards, he will have a distribution of scores for each grade. If the median quality is not "good," he can at once assume that a given class is not up to standard. He may discover plateaus of achievement, or places in the school organization where there is no perceptible gain in achievement. This condition can be detected by means of the approximate or "check" scores. In conference with the teacher concerned, he can suggest a plan for the improvement of instruction. A discussion, too, of standards in written composition would make an interesting and valuable professional meeting with his faculty.

5. No beginning teacher should be allowed to score a set of compositions without some insight into the technic of scoring and without some definite objective standards. In practice schools these tentative standards can be used to advantage. They will be of help to the student-teacher and will give the training teacher a definite basis for criticism. While the proposed standards may not be in keeping with any other district's achievement, they are decidedly better than no standards at all.

6. These tentative standards are not intended for pupil's use. *They are solely for the use of teachers.*

CONCLUSION AND SUMMARY

(a) Every elementary school principal should meet the challenge of a subject difficult to measure. He should delve into its complexities and help his teachers to objectify their judgments. If his particular school district does not have a set of standards in written composition, his own school should.

(b) While emphasis has been placed upon the "good" quality composition as the median for any given class at the beginning of the school term, this study shows the wide range of achievement possible even in a single grade. Samples of five qualities for each grade should bring this clearly before the classroom teacher. The critical notes appended to each representative paper indicate definitely the relative position of papers and show the amount of progress which is discernible in each grade.

(c) Tentative standards based upon local products have the merit of measuring that which has been taught or should be taught. Too often tests and scales bear no relationship to the actual requirements of local course of study. Therefore, tentative standards in accord with the needs of a given locality are much to be desired. It is to be hoped that their use will stimulate a widespread effort to objectify teacher judgment in measuring the quality of written compositions.

THE CONTENTION so often heard that the most reliable mark of the educated man is the character of his discourse, especially his deliberate written discourse, has the best foundations in our study of the educative process itself. And we see clearly again the very important principle that some of the best training in composition must of necessity come out of its use in the mastery of the subjects which are found especially in the science type of teaching but also in the appreciation and practical arts types. Further, we see how it is that the adaptation must in the nature of things come slowly as the result of a long process of intellectual growth.—Henry C. Morrison, *The Practice of Teaching in the Secondary School*, 1926, p. 478.

CHAPTER VII

CAN WE IMPROVE OUR AMERICAN SPEECH?

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INTRODUCTION

EDWARD BOK calls us "Lip-lazy Americans." Is he justified in this criticism? Does he include us—the members of the teaching profession—or does this just apply to the lawyers, women's clubs, and improvement associations? Is it a true criticism?

At your next faculty or club meeting—listen, look, and inwardly take note. Did you hear that last motion? What was it the speaker said? Who was nominated? Then watch the lips of the speaker and you will not fail to say that Edward Bok is right. The very fact that even the actor, with clear distinct enunciation, is commented on again and again, proves its unusual character. Of how many of us could it be said, "Your words bring daylight with you when you speak"?

What are the school people doing about it? Is clear speaking a quality born in the child, innate, as brown eyes or curly hair, or is it a learned, an acquired trait? And shall its learning be left entirely to chance?

But watch again and this time yourself as well as your students and your friends. You are called upon to address the meeting, you practiced your speech at home—why did you forget the best part? Why that trepidation in the solar plexus? Why those shaky knees?

In the 1928 yearbook,¹ the Department of Superintendence included in its statement of educational objectives the following:

The development of an understanding and an adequate evaluation of the self.
The development of an understanding and an appreciation of organized society.

Those adjustments involve the elimination of fear, envy, and hatred and the cultivation of cheerfulness and goodwill. What more can this mean? Does it not mean the understanding of the hidden feelings and the development of such control and poise as are necessary in making our adjustments to people and to situations? Speech is

¹National Education Association, Department of Superintendence. *The Sixth Year Book*, 1928, pp. 51-56.

the avenue through which we display all of our emotions. In developing speech control, we cannot fail to develop emotional control as well.

There seem then to be two felt needs in the speech of the children and of the adults of today. One is the need of clear, distinct speech unmarred by foreign accent or too great provincialism. The other is the need of a certain thing which, for lack of a better name, we call "poise"—that combination of ease, control, relaxation, confidence, and self-reliance that has such a definite bearing on every speech situation and on every life situation as well.

Now, what can we do? The curriculum is so filled now, is there room for another subject? Is there time for "speech improvement"? Mind you, not elocution, not oratory or dramatics, but just everyday speaking. Can a good, clear, pleasing voice and a fair degree of poise be acquired by everyone of average intelligence? How can it be done? How much time will it take? Can it be handled by the regular classroom teacher under a trained supervisor?

A PRACTICAL EXPERIMENT

Let me answer the above questions by describing an experiment in the San Francisco public schools. We shall not hold altogether to the idea that education is preparation for life and that this work may help in earning a better living in the future. But we shall emphasize the newer aim: that it helps today in the book review, tomorrow in the basketball game, and the next day at student council. Our program required but *five minutes* of each school day!

It is plain that the five minute daily drill must include:

1. The development of poise.
2. The development of the muscles of the lips, jaw, and tongue, so that the mouth opens easily and the muscles move flexibly and without conscious effort. This result can be brought about only by the formation of the habit of loose, flexible mouth action!
3. The correction of careless endings, sloppy enunciation of consonants, sounds, and combinations.

It is understood, of course, that this work does not aim to correct speech defects resulting from a malformation of the jaw or teeth, or from the wrong tongue or teeth position, or from any emotional maladjustment. Such defects need the care of a specially trained teacher, and individual attention.

The development of poise—The greatest enemy of poise is fear—fear of failure, fear of what someone will think of what we say or do, fear of criticism and of laughter. Our first step here is to teach the children to relax. Relaxation is the physical opposite of fear and

the acquisition of the physical aspect helps to set the emotional attitude.

The teacher may illustrate by stories how tight muscles go with fear feelings and relaxed muscles with ease and courage. The cat sitting by the fire is a perfect picture of relaxation. Lift up one silky paw and see how loose and soft the muscles are, how easily the paw drops to the floor. But suppose a strange dog comes in the room—what a change! Back stiff and arched, legs straightened and even the hair of the fur standing out rigidly! What fear has done to the muscles!

Again—you are riding in the back seat of an auto, over a good road with a skilled driver in whom you have perfect confidence. How restfully you lean back on the cushions and stretch out your feet! But the road is narrow and you know the driver is most inexperienced. What a difference in how you sit!

Dramatize both these situations and have the children guess from your muscles whether you are fearful or at ease. The next step is to relax yourself and let some pupil lift your arm and watch it fall. A game follows in which the child who lifts your arm tells you whether or not it is relaxed. If he is correct, he may be the leader in his turn.

Then have the children sit comfortably in their seats, feet flat on the floor and hands resting either on desk or lap. Show them a rag doll, preferably the French variety with the long arms and legs, and talk about the loose joints. Let the children lift the arms and watch them fall. Tell them to make believe that they are rag dolls.

With quite small children, the following verse by Margaret Gray Blanton may be read by the teacher and dramatized by the children:

Let's play rag-doll,
Don't make a sound!
Fling your arms and bodies
Loosely around.
Fling your hands! Fling your feet!
Let your heads go free!
Be the raggest rag-doll
You ever did see.

Then the teacher may continue as follows:

Now that we are all comfortable, close the eyes and let us float away to some lovely, still place. There is a beautiful little lake, the sun shines on the water, all around I see great trees, so still; and beyond, the tall mountains and the blue sky! Just by my feet, the water ripples on a tiny pebble beach, I hear a robin sing—everything is so still—I can feel the stillness right through me!

Sometimes a well-selected poem read by the teacher adds to the feeling of relaxation and stillness. Sometimes a peaceful picture suggests where we would best like to rest.

It is said that there are more nervous breakdowns in America than in any other country, because the American people have never been taught how to relax.

The children soon realize that this exercise makes them feel "good"! One nine-year-old said to his teacher just before his arithmetic lesson, "Can't we have the stillness exercise now?" "But you have already had it this morning." "Yes, but I think if I did it now, I could get more examples perfect!" In another fourth grade, the children were working hard to raise their spelling score and told me with pride that when they took the "stillness exercise" just before the test, they made a better score! An over-grown, sixth grade group who were competing in interclass field sports, were sure their victory was due to the fact that they all took the stillness exercise when waiting their turn!

A variation of the "stillness exercise" consists in standing with feet parallel and slightly apart, arms and shoulders easy and relaxed, neck against coat collar, eyes on level with child's head in front. Hold this for 30 seconds at first, and gradually increase to 60, thinking at the same time: "stillness, strength, control."

When the children can relax readily and enjoy it, help them to make mental pictures of themselves the way they want to be. If it is throwing a basketball, let each one see himself as calm, steady, aiming accurately and sending the ball right in the basket. If it is diving, he visualizes the perfect position and the perfect angle at which he enters the water. If it is giving a book report, he sees his standing position, feels the calmness and ease he desires, and hears the clear flowing speech and the applause of his classmates.

In the daily drill, this relaxing and stillness exercise takes between one and one and a half minutes. If done intelligently and regularly, it brings astonishing results in poise development.

The development of flexible mouth-action—The second part of our program is the training for easy, flexible mouth-action or the "slaying of the Dragon of the Closed Mouth."

Start by reciting two verses of poetry to the class. In one case, keep the teeth and lips almost closed. In the other verse, use easy, flexible mouth-action, but be careful not to caricature and over-exaggerate. Ask the children which they could hear the best. Why? You may have to repeat a bit to make them see the cause of the difference. Perhaps, some of the boys play, or know someone who plays, the saxophone or cornet. What happens if you fill the horn with three or four soft handkerchiefs? What has become of the sound?

Follow by having the pupils sit with eyes closed and guess at which part of the paragraph you had your mouth opened and flexible, and at which part closed and tight. Convince them that everyone can learn to speak distinctly, if he will train the muscles of the jaw, the lips and the tongue to move quickly and easily. But we must watch our speech muscles for a while just as the mother watches the baby she is training in the right habits of holding the spoon in the hand and not turning it over in his mouth. For this reason it is desirable that each child have a small pocket mirror so that he may watch his jaw and tongue and teeth and see that they obey orders.

The following list of mouth gymnastics is taken from several sources.¹ Not more than two or three of these exercises should be given in one day. About one and a half minutes only of our five minutes time allotment is consumed. It is better to vary the exercises from week to week, using one from jaw, one from lips, and one from tongue:

I. GYMNASTICS FOR JAW:

1. Up and down.
Tip back the head. Open the jaw wide and close it 12 times.
2. Side to side.
Swing the lower jaw alternately from right to left 12 times.
3. Thrust.
Thrust the lower jaw forward and alternately draw it back to position 12 times.
4. Biting upper lip.
Draw down the upper lip and cover the red portion with the lower teeth. Alternate with relaxation 12 times.
5. Biting lower lip.
Place upper teeth over the red portion of the lower lip. Alternate with relaxation 12 times.
6. Biting lower and upper lip.
Bite first the upper and then the lower lip. Repeat 12 times and gradually increase the speed.

II. LIPS.

1. OO—EE—AH—AW.
To produce flexibility of the lips, the following series of exaggerated vowel positions are given in succession: pucker the lips for *oo*, expand them on *ee*, drop the jaw and stretch them on *ah* and finish with *aw*. Then begin again with *oo* and repeat the series 12 times. First practice slowly; then gradually increase the speed.
2. Lip thrust.
Stretch the lips forward, as for *oo*, as far as possible. Then bring them back tight against the teeth. Alternate the movements 12 times.
3. AH—M—AH—OO.
Stretch the lips well on *ah*. Give this with a soft breathing tone.

¹The writer acknowledges help from Mrs. M. F. Gifford, State Department of Speech Correction in California, and Miss McKenzie, San Francisco State Teachers College.

III. GYMNASTICS FOR TONGUE.

1. Drop the lower jaw downward and backward by relaxing the muscles completely until two fingers can be placed between the teeth without touching them. Take great care that the tongue is not moved out of the normal position and that it lies relaxed and still in the floor of the mouth. Do this several times.
2. Drop the lower jaw while mentally counting four. Thrust the tongue *slowly* outward as far as possible without straining the root or touching the teeth. *Tense the muscles of the tip only.* On the fifth beat, relax the muscles suddenly and completely, letting the tongue slip back to normal position without moving the jaw.
3. Drop the lower jaw with the tongue in the normal position. While mentally counting four, slowly lift the tip until it touches the hard palate just back of the front teeth. Tense the muscles of the tip in lifting. Relax the muscles of the tip in returning to the normal position.
4. As No. 3, then lift the tip until it touches the soft palate. Relax. Repeat a number of times.
5. Now combine No. 3 and No. 4, touching first the hard and then the soft palate. Repeat a number of times.
6. Tip flop.
Open the mouth wide, scrape the under side of the tip of the tongue against edge of the upper front teeth. Repeat slowly and increase the speed.
7. Sweep the palate.
Place the tip of the tongue on the edge of the upper front teeth. Sweep it back along the palate as far as the tongue will permit. Then sweep it forward again to first position. Repeat 12 times.
8. Dot the palate.
Take the same position as for sweeping the palate. Make a dotted line with the tip on the palate from the teeth to the uvula and return, about six dots in each direction. Repeat six times.
9. Diamond shape.
Open the mouth wide, curl the tip of the tongue to the middle of the upper lip and the middle of the lower lip. Repeat 12 times. Next move the tip to the opposite corners rapidly. Then start tip of tongue at the right corner of the mouth; touch middle of upper lip, left corner; middle of lower lip and return to right corner. Repeat 12 times.

Many teachers have students lead the gymnastic exercises while they note after each exercise someone who is doing particularly well or someone who has made improvement. The best results in all this work are obtained by giving much attention to the correct performance and ignoring as far as possible the incorrect.

The radio game with a toy microphone, announcer, and a program broadcasted from the dressing room, gives a fine opportunity to show the need of clear speech and loose mouth action.

The correction of carelessness—The correction of sloppy, careless endings, of *d's* and *t's* substituted for *th* sounds, of *n* for *ng*, of *s* for *z*, *w* for *wh*, the adding of final *r's* where none should be, really constitutes a new habit formation. The correction must be made in such

a way that it becomes an unconscious mechanism or it will never carry over into life situations. This is not an easy problem, for the speech correction must not be a thing apart but must be correlated with life situations and with other school subjects. The drills must hold high interest value. There must be a strong feeling of pleasure associated with the correct pronunciation and some slight displeasure associated with the incorrect. One must realize always that with children and with adults as well, attention is a pleasure, even if the attention is uncomplimentary.

For these reasons, we have developed what we call speech games. These are simple guessing games or riddles, with a wide range of subjectmatter and of difficulty but following the same general principles.

Perhaps it will make it clearer if I particularize. We will suppose a fourth grade is studying the geography and history of California. This week's speech outline calls for work on *th* and *ng*.

A leader is chosen for a geography game. The teacher makes it clear that a speech game is like any other game, in that it has rules, and if you do not follow them, you cannot win. She then writes the following speech rules on the board, bringing out the point that the rules make the game more enjoyable, because they give everybody, even the boy 'way at the back of the room, a fair chance to hear everything.

SPEECH GAME RULES

1. Good, easy standing position without touching chair or desk. (One looks better this way and we have to look at the leader)
2. Wide, easy mouth action. (Then we all can hear)
3. Correct *th*, *ng* and other endings. (So we can copy the leader)

If the leader disobeys any rule, he must lose his chance and take his seat. If the pupil who is guessing disobeys, the leader must say: "I cannot answer you because you have broken Rule Blank" (Rule 1, 2, or 3, as the case may be). In case the leader fails to do this, he loses his own turn. The game proceeds very much as follows:

Leader: I am thinking of a valley where they raise many prunes. Guess what it is. (All pupils with an idea stand, being careful to follow Rule 1.)

Pupil: Are you *thinking* of San Joaquin Valley?

Leader: No, I am not *thinking* of San Joaquin Valley.

Pupil: Are you *thinking* of Santa Clara Valley?

Leader: Yes, I am *thinking* of Santa Clara Valley.

So the game goes on, the one answering correctly becoming leader. Other speech games may take in streets, rivers, automobiles, characters in history or fiction, flowers, animals, airplane routes, explorers, inventions, and so forth.

Lip reading games call attention unconsciously to mouth action. Here is a simple one for a second or third grade. The teacher reads or recites some short verse, as:

What are *little girls* made of?
Sugar and spice and all things nice.
That's what *little girls* are made of.

What are *little boys* made of?
Scissors and snails and puppy-dogs' tails.
That's what *little boys* are made of.

She recites it again, telling pupils to watch her lips. She then gives one line with lip action only, being careful not to exaggerate. The one guessing may become leader, but if the tongue protrudes for the *s* sounds or does not take the right position for the *th*, he must lose his turn.

These give you but an outline of how games may be used in speech improvement. The game work is adapted to classes of from 30 to 40, and it must be good, because it works!

General technic—What we aim to do is to have the speech muscles function perfectly when the conscious mind is interested in an entirely different subject. If we can put this over, the correction will carry into life situations. Also, associating the correct form with the pleasure of being the leader and the center of the attention in the entire group does much toward setting it emotionally. The end is lost if we allow attention to be directed toward the incorrect performance, either by reprimand, by repetition, or by any attention whatsoever. The whole attention is to be focused on the correct performance, or else speech games are valueless.

Audience reading in which three or more children compete is valuable if handled constructively, and if the emphasis is placed not on the standard of the result achieved but on the improvement made. Have the class act as judges and at the close of the contest, report those pupils who have made improvement in the following:

1. Good, easy standing position
2. Relaxed, pleasing tone quality
3. Flexible mouth action.
4. Good pauses so that the meaning is made clear to the audience
5. Better "seeing the picture" by the reader that the audience may see it also

If some pupil shows no improvement, just say nothing. It is surprising what silence can do. Even the finest can become a little finer. Someone has said:

Good speaking, like singing, can never be measured by absolute standards. There is always room for growth. Perhaps the pronunciation can be made a little neater,—the voice, more pleasant,—the tone, rounder.

Much criticism has been directed against American speech because of its strident, unpleasant quality. Is this a thing apart? Or is it simply an indication of a tenseness, a ceaseless activity, a too great stimulation, a lack of relaxation which is so characteristic of many American people. What can a classroom teacher, with little understanding of voice placement do, to start his children in the right direction?

In the first place, he can use a relaxed tone himself, coming from the diaphragm and not from a hard tight throat.

The following exercise may help to develop this relaxed condition:

Sit in a relaxed position, place the hand lightly on the diaphragm and, as it goes back, give a whispered "ah." Repeat this five times and then give it with three-fourths whisper and one-fourth tone. Then half whisper and half tone. Follow this with a line of poetry given in the same way.

When the teacher has mastered this simple exercise, he is ready to introduce the subject to his class by a group discussion. Start the discussion by reading a selection first in a relaxed, easy tone, and then in a hard throaty tone. Ask the pupils which tone is easier to listen to, which is easier on the speaker, which irritates, and which soothes, which produces huskiness, and which has great endurance.

The children find it interesting to test for tones with the most air by holding their hands in front of their mouths while giving a line of poetry. This test helps one to deduce why the relaxed tone has a better carrying quality.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Is the above program too much to put over in a short five-minute drill? Let us see:

Activity	Time in Minutes
Stillness Exercise.....	1
Mouth Gymnastics.....	1.5
Game	2.5
Total	5.0

Naturally, it needs planning and planning by a speech expert. The work must be so arranged that all types are covered by the end of a semester. There needs to be sufficient variety in speech games to take in the words whose pronunciation you feel has need for correction.

In our school system outlines covering a twenty-week program have been made by the Speech Department for schools with large foreign enrolments, *i. e.*, Italian and Spanish. Entirely different

outlines, also for 20 weeks, have been made for schools where the children all come from English-speaking homes. Other programs are needed for schools where a large majority of the children are of Japanese or Chinese parentage. Other variations are needed when the children come from homes where Russian is spoken.

Successful work depends, not only on good planning and a regular time set for the five-minute lesson, but on supervision. The best of teachers will profit by seeing an expert demonstrate just how the lesson should be carried on. Without regularity in such work, the teacher will form few new habits.

Also, the idea must be sold to the classroom teacher and to the principal. Both must be convinced that the work is good, that it is needed, and that it will bring the desired result. It cannot be forced on any group. The five-minute work must be a happy time for both the teacher and the pupils, if we are to attain our goals.

In the junior high schools, the work must be introduced in such a way that the pupils will feel the necessity for it and want to do it. It is not difficult to establish this attitude, and the time spent is well worth while.

Start with stories illustrating the value of good speech in business. All junior high pupils are interested in their earning capacity in the near future. Show what an influence it has in salesmanship, in the law, in real estate, in the ministry, in politics, and its value even in an automobile mechanic. This point can be brought out by the story of the young fellow who lost his first job because the foreman could not waste time in forever asking him to repeat. The value of good speech in organizations, professional clubs, unions, is evident from the influence it gives the easy, clear speaker in directing the activities of the society. In social life, the ability to speak easily and pleasantly adds tremendously to the amount of pleasure for yourself and for others. We do not need to stress how much the whole class enjoys hearing a clear speaker give a report. How much time and energy and nerve strain are saved to everyone in the school group by distinct, pleasing voices?

Dramatize and illustrate by stories the Two Dragons that interfere with good speech. The first Dragon is Lack of Poise, such as stage fright, nervousness, forgetting, becoming confused and hurrying. The Dragon of the Closed Mouth causes indistinct speech, mumbling, poor endings, and so on.

The speech work in the junior high schools must include some work in helping children to understand themselves. There are innumerable stories in any book on mental hygiene or behavior problems

to illustrate the causes back of everything. The cause may be a material one, as in the story of *The Bridge of San Luis Rey*; it may be a hidden memory, as in *The Teacher and the Wind Storm*; it may be an unexpressed, unthought desire, as in the many examples of shell shock; or it may be an association, as shown by the knee jerk.

From this, take up the question of fears. The fears innate, the fears learned, and most important, how fears can be overcome. The development of the anger instinct and the various stages of the love instinct are of tremendous interest to the adolescent. The sublimation of all these instinctive urges can be illustrated by stories. Experiences can be made real and something possible of attainment.

An idea of how we think, of day-dreaming, and of "wish-thinking" may help these young people to understand themselves. They need to realize that happiness, our ultimate desire, comes through adjustment.

Lack of space makes it impossible to go into a more detailed account of this supplemental speech work and of the detailed 20 week outline of the general speech improvement work. If you are interested, write to the author, for we have before us a great problem. Our great task may be solved by working and thinking together.

TRAINING IN SPEECH deals with two large educational purposes. First, it unites with all other agencies in education to enable the student to develop thought power, to develop ideas, to find the "something to say." But, secondly, and more especially, it deals with the training to which one should subject himself in order that he may be able to *communicate* fully his own ideas to the mind of the auditor.—Glenn N. Merry, *Better-Speech Year*. The National Council of Teachers of English, 1924, p. 9.

CHAPTER VIII

A SURVEY OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PUPIL REPORT FORMS

FRANCIS E. HOMER

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THIS SURVEY of pupil report forms for elementary grades¹ was made to ascertain the conditions which prevail throughout the country, and on the basis of existing practices to formulate a report form superior to those being used at the present time.

The procedure consisted in obtaining and studying sample report forms from the principal cities throughout the country. Alaska, Hawaii, Philippine Islands, and the five states of Mississippi, Arkansas, South Dakota, New Mexico, and Nevada failed to respond. Cities in the remaining 43 states and Porto Rico sent forms for study. The number of responses totaled 224. The distribution of the replies by states is indicated in Table 1 and the subsequent discussion.

TABLE 1.—PARTIAL DISTRIBUTION OF THE REPLIES BY STATES

STATE OR DISTRICT	NUMBER OF CITIES	STATE OR DISTRICT	NUMBER OF CITIES
Massachusetts	20	Virginia	6
New York	20	Michigan	6
New Jersey	16	Wisconsin	6
Illinois	14	Connecticut	5
Pennsylvania	12	Florida	5
Ohio	12	Kentucky	5
California	10	Iowa	5
Indiana	9	Washington	5

Four replies were received from each of the following states: Maine, Rhode Island, Maryland, Texas, Montana; three replies each from Vermont, South Carolina, Georgia, Minnesota, Missouri, Oklahoma, Colorado; two replies each from New Hampshire, Delaware, North Carolina, Alabama, Tennessee, Nebraska, Kansas, Louisiana, Wyoming, Oregon; and one reply each from West Virginia, North Dakota, Idaho, Utah, Arizona, Porto Rico, and the District of Columbia.

¹This report constituted a part of the work of a committee appointed by Dr. Samuel L. Chew, Superintendent of District No. 5, Philadelphia, Pa.

GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS OF PUPILS' REPORTS

Time covered—Sixty-five and one-half percent of the cities have cards which cover an entire year. The remaining 34.5 percent of the cards are for one term only.

Frequency of issue—In slightly over one-third of the cities reports are made out each month. Three issues per term is second with 28.7 percent. Nineteen and one-half percent of cities give reports twice each term. Four reports per term are given by 13.3 percent. Bi-monthly reports are given by 3.5 percent. Issues of once and three times a year are used by one city each of those reporting.

Subjects listed—Fifty-five percent of the cities name general school subjects only, while 42.9 percent list general subjects, habits, and attitudes. Three cities list no subjects, but space is given for any report which the teacher deems appropriate. Two cities list habits and attitudes only.

Sequence of subjects—Approximately 67 percent of the forms list the subjects in the order of importance. About 14 percent of the listings are irregular. Subjects are arranged according to related groups on 11.2 percent of the forms. Alphabetical order is used by 8.4 percent.

Marking symbols—Forty percent use the symbols A, B, C, and so forth. The letters E, G, F, and so forth (standing for excellent, good, and fair) are used by 28 percent. Marking on the basis of 100 is used by 14.8 percent; on the basis of five by three percent; on the basis of 10 by 1.3 percent; on the basis of four by 1.3 percent; and on the basis of six by .4 percent. Four cities use either "satisfactory" and "unsatisfactory" or the plus and minus signs.

Explanations to parents—About three-fourths of the forms contain brief explanations for the home. In about one-fourth, the cards give lengthy explanations. Only about five percent omit explanations entirely.

More than one-half of the reports contain brief advice. Lengthy advice is given on about one-tenth. The remaining reports omit this item.

Parents are definitely invited to visit the schools in two-thirds of the cities, while in almost as many the coöperation of the home with the school is requested.

Size—Cards approximately four inches by six inches are used by 45 percent of the cities replying. Seventeen percent use the folder size. Two percent use small booklets.

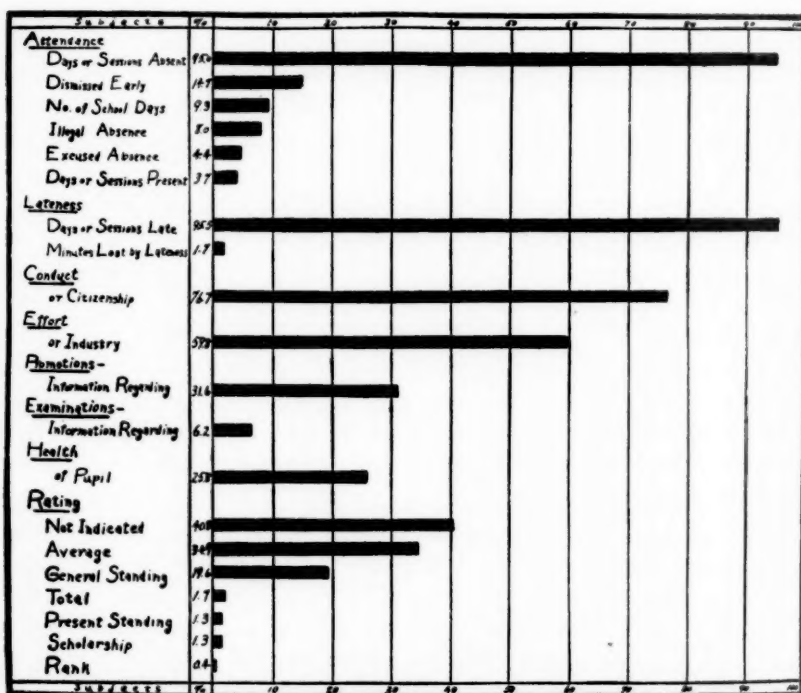
Color—White prevails in over three-fifths of the cities. Yellow is used by 18.6 percent, tan by 9.5 percent, and blue by 4.2 percent. Gray, salmon, pink, brown, and green are in evidence from 1.7 percent to .4 percent of the forms.

MISCELLANEOUS ITEMS ON REPORT FORMS

Diagram 1 shows the percent of cities listing attendance, lateness, conduct, and other miscellaneous items. It will be seen, for example, that "days or sessions absent" is listed in 95 percent of cases. The item "dismissed early," frequently used in New England, is listed by 14.7 percent of the 224 cities. The other items concerning attendance vary from 9.3 percent for "number of school days" to 3.7 percent for "days or sessions present."

With the exception of 4.5 percent, all the report forms studied list "days or sessions late." Only four cities have the item "minutes lost by lateness."

DIAGRAM 1.—MISCELLANEOUS ITEMS ON REPORT CARDS



More than three-fourths of report cards list "conduct or citizenship." In most of the others, compensation is made for the omission by the listing of appropriate habits and attitudes.

Likewise, "effort or industry" is listed by 59.8 percent of the forms. Cities omitting this item, list appropriate habits and attitudes.

The next three items in Diagram 1 regarding "promotions," "examinations," and "health of pupil" are self-explanatory.

The last item referred to in Diagram 1 is the rating of pupils. In two-fifths of the cities no general rating is indicated. In a little over one-third, an average of marks is used. In 19.6 percent of the 224 cities "general standing" is the term employed. Other miscellaneous items are shown in the diagram.

GENERAL SUBJECTS LISTED ON REPORT FORMS

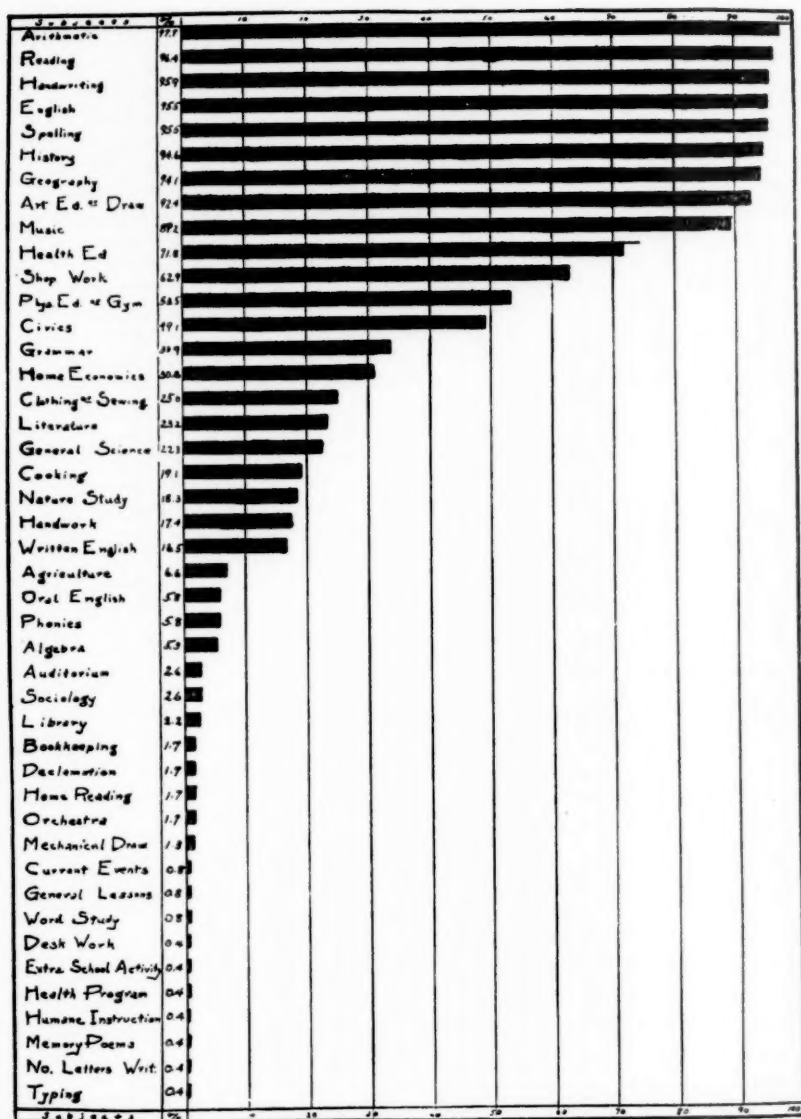
Diagram 2 shows the 44 general subjects which are found printed on report forms in typical cities of the United States. Arithmetic leads with 97.7 percent. Reading, handwriting, English, spelling, history, geography, art education, and music follow very closely with percents varying from 96.4 for the first to 89.2 for the last.

From this point down the bars of the graph decrease in length very rapidly to the infrequent mention of subjects such as memory poems and humane instruction. A study of the diagram will show that subjects of more general application are the most widely listed. Subjects of more specific application are much less frequently named.

The subjects which lead the list with percentages above 90 are of broad application. So likewise are health education, shop work, physical education, and civics, ranging from 71.8 to 49.1 percent. In contrast, agriculture and orchestra are given limited consideration.

A study was made of the report cards as to the average number of school subjects and the average number of habits and skills. Although the data were incomplete, there is evidence that certain cities and states consider it relatively unimportant to report upon the pupil's personal qualities.

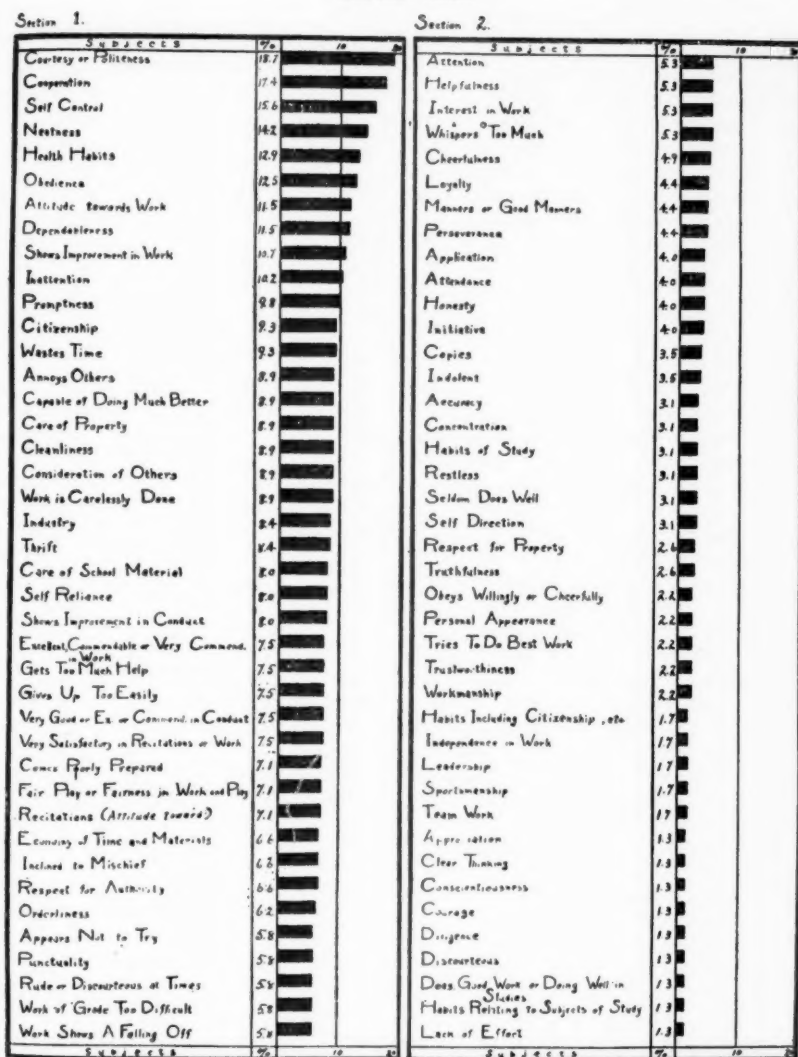
DIAGRAM 2.—PERCENT OF CITIES LISTING GENERAL SCHOOL SUBJECTS ON REPORT CARDS



HABITS AND ATTITUDES LISTED ON REPORT FORMS

Diagrams 3 and 4 give 163 habits and attitudes arranged accord-

DIAGRAM 3.—PERCENT OF CITIES WITH HABIT AND ATTITUDE ITEMS ON REPORT CARDS



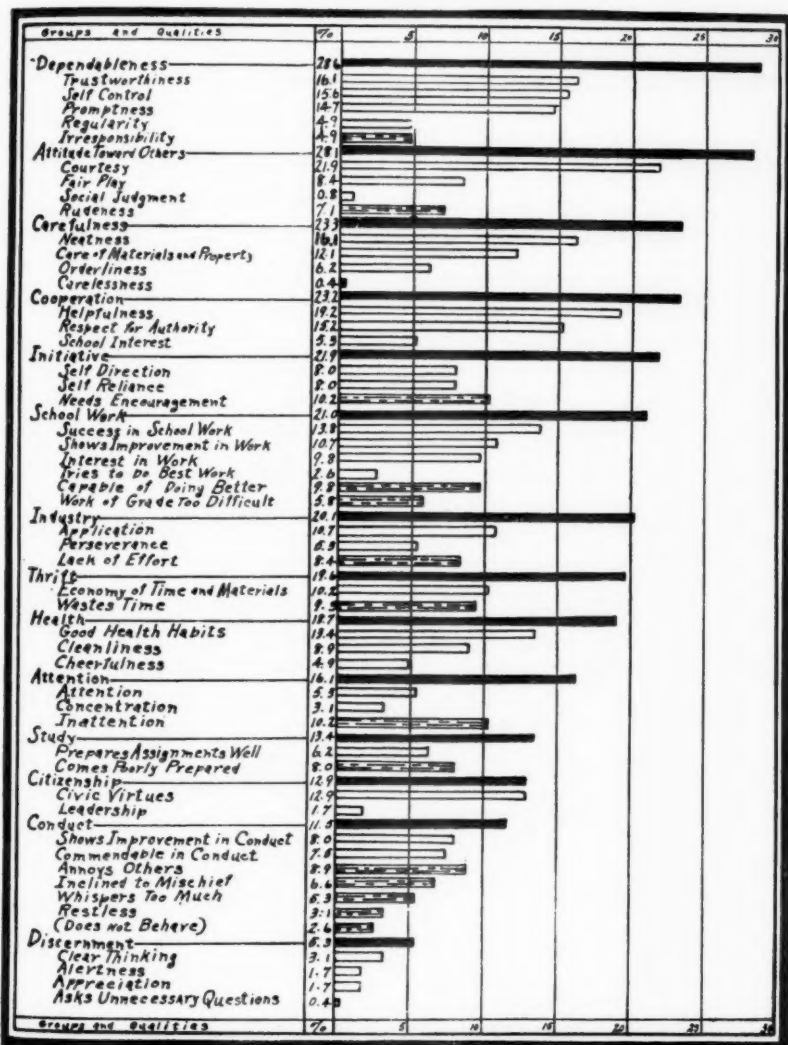
ing to the frequency of mention. Figures are presented in percent of the total number of 224 cities.

DIAGRAM 4.—PERCENT OF CITIES WITH HABIT AND ATTITUDE ITEMS ON REPORT CARDS

Section 3				Section 4			
Subjects		%		Subjects		%	
Needs Encouragement		1.3		General Intelligence		0.9	
Regularity		1.3		Generosity and Breadth-mindedness		0.4	
School Interest		1.3		Golden Rule in Practice		0.4	
School Service		1.3		Habits of Work		0.4	
Speech		1.3		Indurance		0.4	
Steadfastness		1.3		Interest in Community Welfare		0.4	
Appreciation of Proper Use of Money		0.9		Interest in Physical Well Being		0.4	
Asks Good Questions		0.9		Interest in Special Subjects (Art, Music, etc.)		0.4	
Carefulness		0.9		Lack of Application		0.4	
Character Building		0.9		Lifeless, Possibly Due to Late Hours		0.4	
Civility of Speech		0.9		Mechanical Skill		0.4	
Disobedience		0.9		Mechanical		0.4	
Disorder		0.9		Musical Skill		0.4	
Home Study		0.9		Needs Home Encouragement		0.4	
Home Work		0.9		Patriotism		0.4	
Indifference		0.9		Physical Energy		0.4	
Irresponsible		0.9		Plays Freely		0.4	
Kindness		0.9		Plays Hard and Fair		0.4	
More Study Needed		0.9		Pride in Personal Appearance		0.4	
Observation		0.9		Progress in Habits		0.4	
Pupils Assignments Well		0.9		Purposiveness		0.4	
School Spirit		0.9		Readily Admits Mistakes and Tries to Make Amends		0.4	
Sociability		0.9		Reasoning		0.4	
Willingness to Render Public Service		0.9		Resents Correction		0.4	
Ability to Think and Do Independent Work		0.4		Sees His Task Through		0.4	
Ability in Various Branches of Study		0.4		Sense of Humor		0.4	
Alert and Wide Awake		0.4		Slow to Obey		0.4	
Answers Questions Promptly		0.4		Social Judgment		0.4	
Appreciation of Beauty		0.4		Speed in Work		0.4	
Appreciation of Juvenile Literature		0.4		Stubborn		0.4	
Asks Unnecessary Questions		0.4		Success in School Work		0.4	
Attitude Toward Others		0.4		Takes Care of Self		0.4	
Attitude Toward Self		0.4		Tardy With Work		0.4	
Carelessness		0.4		Thoroughness		0.4	
Care of Clothes and Personal Belongings		0.4		Thoughtfulness		0.4	
Deceitfulness		0.4		Tidiness		0.4	
Destructive		0.4		Too Many Social Engagements		0.4	
Disturbs Class		0.4		Tries to Measure Up to High Standard of Workmanship		0.4	
Does Not Try		0.4		Willingness to Work		0.4	
Frankness		0.4		Work Carelessly Done		0.4	
General Influence		0.4		Works to Maximum Ability		0.4	
Subjects		%		Subjects		%	

The cards examined showed nearly 600 habits and attitudes. These have been combined into 163 items. Even in the smaller list there

DIAGRAM 5.—PERCENTS SHOWING OUTSTANDING HABIT AND ATTITUDE ITEMS OF REPORT CARDS



Explanation: Solid bars indicate grouped items, white bars show positive traits, and dotted bars represent negative traits.

are overlappings. For example, "attention" and "inattention" are the positive and negative forms of the same quality. "Dependableness" and "trustworthiness" have practically the same meaning. Since the nomenclature is interesting and suggestive, the 163 characteristics are given.

Diagram 5 shows the combination into 14 groups of the 163 habits and attitudes named in Diagrams 3 and 4. The qualities given under each heading are also the results of combination.

Diagram 5 shows some really strong habits and attitudes. Many of these characteristics are well worth considering in the selection of items for an improved report form.

Solid bars indicate group headings. The hollow bars show positive qualities within the group. Last in each group is a dash bar representing an allied negative quality.

The most frequently mentioned group headings are "dependableness," "attitude toward others," "carefulness," and "coöperation" ranging from 28.6 percent to 23.2 percent. Outstanding specific items are "courtesy" and "helpfulness" as shown by 21.9 percent and 19.2 percent respectively.

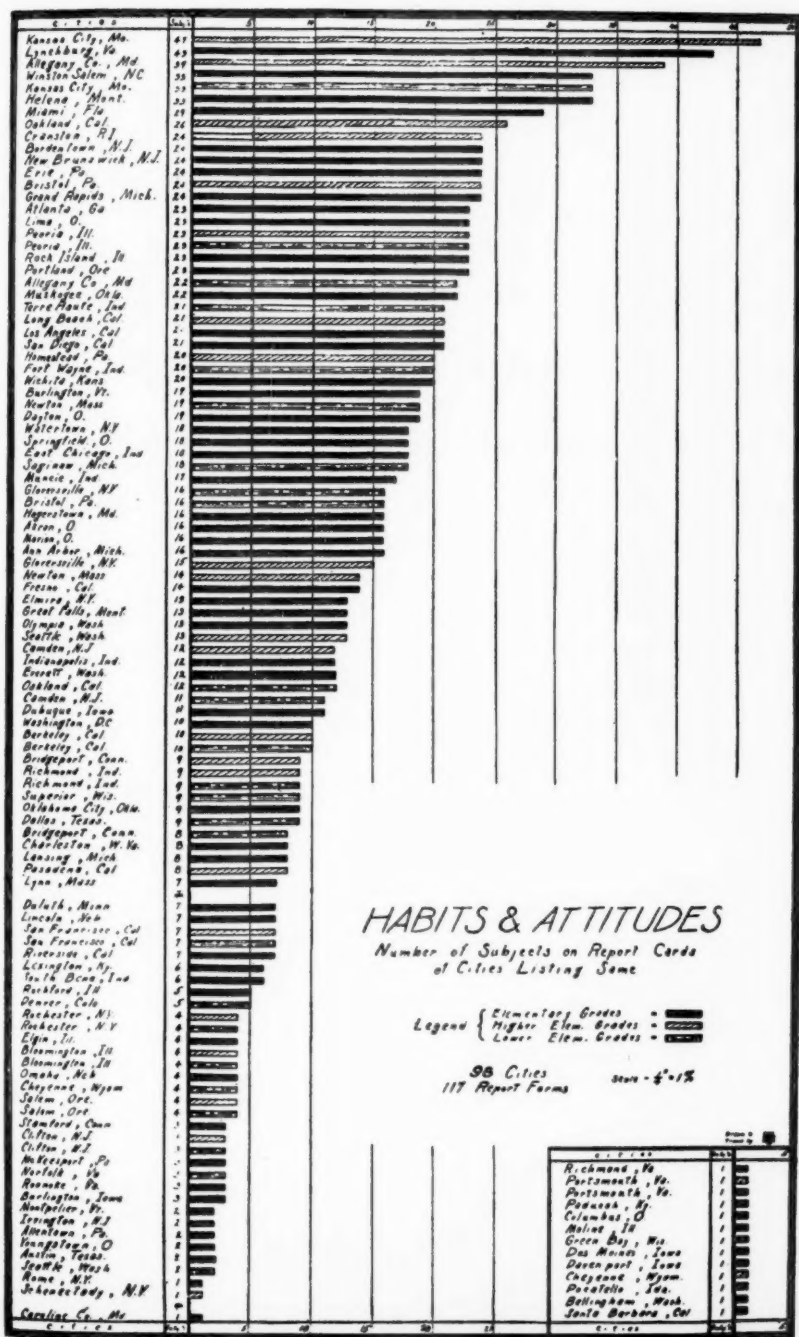
The negative habits and attitudes, "needs encouragement" and "inattentive," are the two most frequently used. Each is listed by 10.2 percent of the cities studied.

Diagram 6 shows the number of habits and attitudes used on the report forms of 98 cities. Solid bars indicate cities using one report form for all elementary grades. Diagonally hatched bars indicate report forms for upper elementary grades, and dash bars those for the lower grades.

Ninety-eight of the 224 cities list habits and attitudes in numbers varying from 47 on the Kansas City, Missouri, report to one on the report of Santa Barbara, California. The median number of subjects listed is ten.

A detailed study was made of the habits and attitudes in relation to the geographical location of the cities. It is evident that some cities and states give marked attention to habits and attitudes. From incomplete returns, the area of greatest interest is from the Eastern coast through the center of the United States to Missouri. The Pacific Coast states are apparently second in the amount of interest shown in habits and attitudes.

DIAGRAM 6.—NUMBER OF HABIT AND ATTITUDE ITEMS USED BY CITIES



The reproduction of certain report forms in this section will serve to illustrate some of the previous paragraphs. None of these forms are recommended for acceptance in school systems without adaptation to local conditions.

LAST NAME

FIRST NAME AND MIDDLE INITIAL

[illegible]

REMARKS:

FIGURE II

REPORT ON STUDIES, EFFORT AND BEHAVIOR

FOR THE PERIOD ENDING NOVEMBER		Attendance	
		Sessions Absent	
		Times Tardy	
		Times Discussed	
PROSPECT OF PROMOTION			
FOR THE PERIOD ENDING FEBRUARY		Attendance	
		Sessions Absent	
		Times Tardy	
		Times Discussed	
PROMOTED TO GRADE _____ SCHOOL _____			
FOR THE PERIOD ENDING APRIL		Attendance	
		Sessions Absent	
		Times Tardy	
		Times Discussed	
PROSPECT OF PROMOTION _____			
FOR THE PERIOD ENDING JUNE		Attendance	
		Sessions Absent	
		Times Tardy	
		Times Discussed	
PROMOTED TO GRADE _____ SCHOOL _____			

FIGURE III

METHOD OF GRADING					
E Excellent, - - -	Grade from 90 to 100				
G Good, - - - -	Grade from 80 to 90				
F Fair, - - - -	Grade from 65 to 80				
P Poor, - - - -	Grade Below 65				
Attendance Department & Studies	1st Period	2nd Period	3rd Period	4th Period	Half-year Average
Sessions Absent					
Times Tardy					
Department					
Arithmetic					
Language					
Civics					
History					
Geography					
Reading					
Literature					
Spelling					
Writing					
Physiology					
Music					
Drawing					
Manual Training					
Domestic Science					
Physical Training					

N. B. This Mark X is placed opposite to trait to which attention is called				
ATTITUDE TOWARD SCHOOL WORK	1st Period	2nd Period	3rd Period	4th Period
Very Commendable				
Shows Improvement				
Gives Up Too Easily				
Gets Too Much Help				
Indolent				
Wastes Time				
Work is Carelessly Done				
RECITATIONS				
Very Satisfactory				
Showing Improvement				
Comes Poorly Prepared				
Appears Not to Try				
Seldom Does Well				
Inattentive				
Promotion in Danger				
Capable Doing Much Better				
Work Shows a Falling Off				
CONDUCT				
Satisfactory				
Helpful				
Restless; Inattentive				
Inclined to Mischievous				
Rule-Disobedient at Times				
Annoys Others				
Whispers Too Much				
Shows Improvement				
Very Good				

FIGURE VI

TO THE PARENT

Regular reports are issued four times a year. Special reports are sent whenever we think that a parent should be informed of special shortcomings or especial merit in a pupil's work. Please feel free to call for special reports whenever you desire them.

Our aim is to help every child to make the most of himself, to become the happiest and most useful citizen that he is capable of becoming. You want the same thing. We must work together.

You will notice that we are marking pupils not only in the ordinary school subjects but in citizenship and health. What a person is depends as much upon his ideals and habits as upon his knowledge. We aim to teach children to desire to be good citizens. We want them to learn to do the right thing, the sensible thing, because they know what is right and have good sense, not because some older person makes them do it or because they are afraid of punishment. We want them to learn to get along well with other people. We want them to become interested in having strong bodies and good health so as not to waste any part of their lives by sickness which can be avoided. The marks will show what we think of their progress in these matters. You can help us by paying attention to the same things.

We think that children should know what their work is worth in comparison with what other people do. Therefore we are marking their work on a fixed standard. A means about the best work that any children of the grade can do; B means better work than children on the average can do; C is

about average work; D is work which is passable but below the average; X is work which is not passable, about the poorest in the class does not qualify the pupil for promotion.

But children vary much in ability. A gifted pupil may do better work than the majority of his classmates without half trying. One of less ability may work very hard without getting results which can be called good in comparison with the work of the whole class. We should not be satisfied, and the child should not be satisfied, with anything less than his very best. The pupil who is not working up to his capacity should be stimulated to do better even if he is already excelling his classmates. On the other hand we must not demand the impossible. The child who is doing the best work that he is capable of doing should be praised and encouraged. Therefore we are giving another set of marks for effort. 1 means that the pupil is doing his best; 2 means that he is making commendable effort but could probably do still better; 3 stands for ordinary effort, pupil is not really exerting himself; 4 means little effort, pupil has to be prodded; 5 means that the child is loafing, a failure as far as effort is concerned.

Thus A-1 means the pupil's best effort with excellent results; B-3 means that he is doing better than average work but not exerting himself; D-2 means that a pupil of less than average ability, or perhaps one who has been handicapped by sickness, is getting results which are only passable but is making praiseworthy effort.

WILLIAM E. STARK,
Superintendent.

RETURN THIS CARD, SIGNED, THE NEXT DAY AFTER ITS RECEIPT.

Figure I illustrates the report card which lists only the regular school subjects. Cards of this type usually report attendance, lateness, conduct, effort, and a general rating.

Figure II shows a form which provides spaces in which the teacher may write subjects or other notations. Only a small proportion of the cards examined were of this type.

The habits and attitudes shown in Figure III are used by a number of cities in various parts of the United States. An outstanding characteristic of such cards is the grouping of items under the heads: work, recitations, and conduct. The danger of over-emphasizing the negative traits is a problem deserving more study by elementary school principals.

FIGURE VII

TO PARENTS OR GUARDIANS

Our public schools are trying to train our children to become good American citizens.

The teacher and the parent must help each other in every way for the good of the child.

Please see that your child comes to school regularly, and on time every day.

In case of absence or tardiness please send an excuse giving definitely the cause, as required by the School Law.

If your child is often absent, he loses his time, his lessons, his interest, and possibly, his promotion.

Watch your child's weight.

If a child is not happy at school, or if he does not seem to be going ahead, come and talk it over with the principal and teacher, who will be glad to see you and to do all in their power to help your child.

Let us work together for the good of the children.

I (parent or guardian) have carefully inspected this report.

First Report.....

Second Report.....

Third Report.....

Fourth Report.....

Form 15½

"THE HOME AND THE SCHOOL SHOULD WORK TOGETHER FOR THE GOOD OF THE CHILD."

SAN FRANCISCO PUBLIC
ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS
GRADES 4 TO 8

Report of

.....Teacher

.....School

.....Principal

Grade.....Term Ending.....19.....

	REPORTS			
	1st	2nd	3rd	4th
Attendance				
Days Absent.....				
Times Tardy.....				
Health Conditions				
Physical Condition.....				
Underweight.....				

Figures IV and V represent a card which contains 47 habits and attitudes arranged in 11 groups. In this case the teachers are directed to mark only those items toward which the child and the home should direct attention. This report form also includes the regular school subjects.

Figures VII and VIII show a report form which includes a carefully chosen list of personal traits. The explanation under each trait is helpful. The qualities named emphasize positive social virtues, as contrasted with cards which list individual faults.

Several of the figures illustrated in this section show appropriate and well-written messages to the home (see Figure VI). A particular significant message found upon many cards is as follows: *The home and the school should work together for the good of the child.*

FIGURE VIII

CITIZENSHIP: ATTITUDES TOWARD SCHOOL

Education for good citizenship must be the chief aim and end of schools which gain their support from public funds raised through taxes. The training of boys and girls to be good citizens is not so much a matter of teaching them the facts as it is a matter of bringing forth within them the right spirit. The word "Attitudes" on the card is intended, then, to show a number of ways in which the pupil's civic spirit is made evident.

(The parent should note that a cross (x) means that his child's attitude is unsatisfactory.)

	REPORTS			
	1st	2nd	3rd	4th
CAREFULNESS (Neatness, Orderliness, and Thoughtfulness in handling books and other property.)				
COOPERATION (Willingness to join with others in work and play.)				
COURTESY (Kindness toward others as shown both in manner and action.)				
FAIRNESS (Readiness to respect the rights of others.)				
INDUSTRY (Firmness of purpose to try hard all the time; sustained effort.)				
INITIATIVE (Readiness to go ahead without being driven; self-direction.)				
PROMPTNESS (Willingness to act or serve at the right time.)				

REMARKS:

1.
2.
3.
4.

RATINGS IN SUBJECTS:

(Note: This page for use of grades 4 to 8.) Marks are as follows:

- A—Exceptional.
- B—Very Good.
- C—Average (should work harder).
- D—Not up to Grade (promotion in danger).
- E—Failing.

	REPORTS			
	1st	2nd	3rd	4th
Oral Reading				
Silent Reading				
Spelling				
Grammar				
Oral Composition				
Written Composition				
Arithmetic				
Science				
Geography				
History and Civics				
Writing				
Drawing				
Shop Work				
Sewing				
Cooking				

REMARKS:

1.
2.
3.
4.

CONCLUSION AND COMMENTS

1. Report cards are indicative of the education aims of the schools of America.

2. According to data previously cited a typical card would probably have the following general characteristics: Report marks for the whole year; issued three times a semester; lists more items dealing with regular school subjects than with personal qualities of pupils; uses marking symbols A, B, C, and so forth; contains explanations to parents; about 4 x 6 inches in size; and printed on white cardboard.

3. Since the schools aim to make good citizens, many cards provide for the marking of the pupils' personal qualities. Some of these habit and attitude lists are not well chosen, contain duplications, and emphasize negative qualities. Should such lists include items which do not lend themselves directly or indirectly to the development of good citizens?

4. There is evidence that a few cities give little or no space to the pupils' personal and social virtues. Probably these cities are not aware of the usefulness of trait rating in developing young citizens.

5. About two-thirds of the report forms urge parents to visit the school. A majority of the cards contain some printed message requesting coöperation from the parents. Such efforts indicate the importance of enlisting parental interest in the school and its work.

6. The data submitted above should be helpful to local committees. Certainly the problem of adequate report cards is an open one. There is a need for further study and the formulation of basic principles. Such basic principles would do much in improving and standardizing practice throughout the United States.¹

¹ In this connection see "Uniform Records and Reports," *Research Bulletin*, National Education Association, Vol. 5, No. 5, 1928, pp. 267-73, a chapter on "Reports on Teachers to Parents," by M. R. Trabue.

CHAPTER IX

HOW TEACHERS RATE THEIR PUPILS

JOHN S. HERRON

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SOME YEARS ago the standard testing movement began. Receiving impetus from the parallel development of the "efficiency era" in the business world at that time, the movement spread and developed until the use of tests was general. The motive power behind the movement was the goal of greater efficiency in the school product, through measurements upon a purely objective basis. Later came the intelligence testing movement which was adopted by educators for the same general purpose: to use specialized knowledge in more efficiently placing the individual and in organizing homogeneous groups of pupils.

The past decade and a half presents stupendous efforts on the part of American educators to solve experimentally the new problems that have been raised by new developments. Psychology, method, and administration changed with the newer trend. Yet, strange to say, the technic for the evaluation of pupils' work in the school has apparently not improved. Today the same unreliable, individualistic expression of the teacher's judgment continues to exist.

Is the rating of pupils important?—Many educators argue that ratings are in themselves fetters on school authorities. A number of experimental schools have eliminated them altogether. Some extremists contend that the real, precious outcomes of education cannot be measured. Others say that marks in a few formal subjects can only partially indicate the child's school experience, and that even these unreliable ratings cannot be given with a wholesome regard for all members of a class. Therefore, away with all marks!

Goldstein¹ enumerates five fundamental reasons why ratings of pupils are indispensable:

- (a) Children have the right to know how they are progressing.
- (b) Parents desire the same information regarding their children.
- (c) Promotions are made by school officials on the basis of marks.
- (d) Ratings constitute the basis of placement when pupils are transferred from one school to another.
- (e) Ratings are used by teachers and school officials to justify non-promotions.

¹Goldstein, Henry M. "Pupil Rating and Report Cards." *Journal of Educational Method* 7: 128-33; December, 1927.

Whether or not the teaching profession, or the public in general, places any value upon school ratings, the fact remains that the practice is in general use throughout this country. There is no evidence to warrant a belief that the public will not continue to demand reports from the school on the work of pupils. Therefore, if ratings are to remain as operating tools of school administration, all will agree that marks should be made to signify something as real and dependable as possible. Fifteen years of scientific effort in education should show decided improvements in the technic of rating and in the message of report cards. But is this the situation today?

Technic of research—The purposes of the study were to secure first-hand information on present day methods by which elementary school teachers arrive at school marks, and to ascertain the improvement made during the last decade in the technic of marking. A questionnaire was circulated among teachers of grades four to eight, inclusive, in the schools of Newark, Bloomfield, East Orange, and Nutley. The schools circularized are representative of both city and suburban practice in New Jersey. The questionnaire was made by a committee consisting of Susan F. Lockhart, principal of the Washington School, Nutley; Mrs. Eva P. Miller, principal of the Spring Garden School, Nutley; and the writer. The work was done as a part of a principal's course of Teachers College, Columbia University.¹ One hundred and fifty teachers returned the questionnaire. The questions asked are printed at the end of this article.

Presentation of data—The next section of this article will present a summarization of the replies. Percents are calculated in terms of the number answering each question.

Rating the daily recitation—Fifty-nine, or 41 percent of the teachers rate the daily academic work of pupils with separate daily marks. The remaining 59 percent do not use a daily mark but trust to memory for an evaluation.

Making weekly marks—Eighty-one, or 56 percent of the teachers summarize the daily recitation by a weekly mark. In other words, a number of these teachers who depend upon memory for the daily work must arrive subjectively at the evaluation of the weekly rating.

Determining report card marks—Most teachers use both daily work and written tests in arriving at report card marks.

¹ Under the direction of Dr. James F. Hosis.

One-third of all teachers allow a credit of 75 percent of the report card mark for daily work, 85 percent of all teachers allow credit of one-half or more for daily work. Daily work of pupils, then, is the major factor in determining the worth of a pupil's work in school.

Frequency of written tests—Most of the teachers returning the questionnaire give formal tests either weekly or biweekly. The various replies are as follows:

40 percent of all teachers give written tests once a week.

30 percent of all teachers give written tests once in two weeks.

20 percent of all teachers give written tests once a month.

8 percent of all teachers give written tests once in six weeks.

Value of the daily work—Six out of every 10 teachers would fail a pupil who passes the formal tests but fails consistently in daily work.

Outside work—A majority of teachers reported giving extra credit for outside work.

Testing the reading—One out of every six teachers judges the reading ability of his pupils by oral tests alone. The majority of teachers employ both oral and silent reading tests.

Report card symbols—Most schools use letters on report cards instead of figures. This fact was also brought out by Goldstein in his study previously referred to.

Check on value of daily work—Sixty percent of the teachers replied that they would pass a pupil who works diligently, but fails on the formal written tests. This result bears out, in another way, the fact that most teachers place greater emphasis upon the *daily* work of pupils.

Class standards—Eight out of every nine teachers recognize individual differences and rate accordingly. They do not believe in a strict standard for all members of the class.

Most important factors in reports—Twenty-five percent of those replying would pass or fail a pupil *on test results alone*, irrespective of effort. Seventy-five percent of the teachers take a broader view and consider *effort* as the dominant factor.

Value of standard tests—Two-thirds of the teachers feel that their own tests are more serviceable to them than standard tests.

Conclusion—Although this investigation was limited in scope, it should have discovered some evidence that the scientific movement in education has brought improvement in the evaluation of the work of pupils. Yet, there is little or no uniformity of practice. Teachers rate to suit their fancies. Report card marks reflect teacher opinions and not the work of pupils.

Scientific education has attempted to eliminate the subjective element in measurements. Yet our elementary schools go blithely on and apparently ignore the results of this movement. The replies submitted show that some teachers have little faith in the serviceableness of standardized objective tests. The replies show that most of the evaluation of pupils' work is done subjectively. This fact is brought out most strikingly by the following findings of the investigation:

(1) In arriving at the report card mark, most teachers allow two-thirds credit for the *daily work*.

(2) Yet, most teachers determine the worth of the daily work by a *weekly* mark.

(3) This weekly mark (for daily work) is decided according to *memory* of the teacher. Marks determined in this way are unavoidably affected by many subjective influences.

It is fair to ask such questions as these: If teachers place so much emphasis upon daily work, why should they not employ some objective evidence to counteract the vagaries of the human mind? How long can we continue to proclaim that scientific education is at hand while we close our eyes to the true situation? How long will we befuddle ourselves and the public by employing a scheme of evaluation which is as dependable and reliable as the weather?

The writer believes that the majority of our teachers are meeting the problem of report cards as well as they know how. But authoritative data are not exerting the benefits which we can expect. Must this knowledge be developed or is it simply ignored in practice? Certainly, we have a right to expect scientific education to develop principles and systems to guide in the rating of pupils.

The questionnaire—The queries below were sent out in questionnaire form to classroom teachers.

1. Do you rate the daily recitation of each pupil with a separate mark?
2. Do you summarize the worth of the daily work of each pupil by a *weekly mark*?
3. Do you give written tests in the major academic subjects once a week?
4. Do you give written tests in the major academic subjects twice a month?
5. Do you give written tests in the major academic subjects once a month?
6. Do you give written tests in the major academic subjects once in six weeks?
7. For the report card mark, do you depend *entirely* on daily recitations?
8. For the report card mark, do you depend *entirely* on written tests alone?
9. Do you combine the marks given for daily work with the marks made in written tests in order to arrive at a pupil's report card mark?
10. If you combine the two (No. 9), what percent of the report card mark do you allow for daily recitation?
11. If a child fails consistently in daily recitations but receives a passing mark on your written tests, do you give him a passing mark on his report card?

12. Do you allow additional credit in a subject if a pupil does extra outside work in it?
13. In arriving at a pupil's mark in *reading* do you depend entirely on oral reading tests?
14. In arriving at a pupil's mark in *reading* do you depend entirely on written silent reading tests?
15. In arriving at a pupil's mark in *reading* do you depend entirely on both oral and written silent reading tests?
16. Do you use letters on your report cards?
17. If a pupil works conscientiously and fails in your written tests, do you think he should be given a passing mark in the subject?
18. Is it possible to have one strict standard for a class of 40 pupils?
19. Which should be the greater factor in determining a child's report card mark—*test results* or *effort*?
20. Do you think that standardized tests are more effective than your own tests?

WHEN A TEACHER observes that a child of great natural ability secures a relatively high achievement with little effort and with small gain, she rates him as less successful than a child of little natural ability who through great effort succeeds in making large gains, even though the final level of ability reached in the latter case is a relatively low achievement with reference to the class as a whole. The teacher's action seems justifiable to her because school marks are conventionally used as a means of reward and punishment, but to the degree to which they are so used, they cease to be pure measures of success.—Courtis, S. A. *Why Children Succeed*. Courtis Standard Tests, 1925, p. 63.

CHAPTER X

STUDIES OF FAILURES IN THE SIOUX CITY PUBLIC SCHOOLS¹

E. E. BRIGGS (Chairman)

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EACH YEAR the Administration Club of Sioux City Schools has taken over some definite piece of research work. This past year their committee, in conference with the superintendent, decided upon a study of the failures in the Sioux City public schools for the first semester of the school year of 1927-1928. The members of the committee were E. E. Briggs, Chairman, D. D. Zinn, Minnie L. Steckel, Fannie Foster, Fern Boan, and Rachel Cook.

This study was undertaken with three objects in mind: First, to ascertain in what grades and subjects the most failures were occurring in our schools; second, to find by tabulation the various reasons given by teachers for failures in their classes; and third, to provide the teachers with an incentive to study their failure problems.

METHOD OF PROCEDURE

A questionnaire was given to each teacher of a room in the elementary schools and each subject teacher in the junior and senior high schools. These blanks were filled out showing the number of pupils who had entered each class during the semester, the number promoted and dropped, and finally the number of failures. A space was indicated upon each sheet for the teacher to list the names of his failures in each class and to give the reason which in his opinion caused such failure. These results were tabulated by the research committee of the Administration Club and the findings were listed below.

The reports are presented in two sections: the first deals with the causes of failures as listed by the teacher, the second deals with the number of failures in the schools. The committee felt that it was more feasible to allow the teacher freedom in the study of causes rather than to put a check list of failures before him and ask that

¹The complete report includes failures in the junior and senior high schools, but these data were omitted as not pertinent for this yearbook. See *General Circular, No. 2*. Sioux City, Iowa, M. G. Clark, Superintendent.

certain reasons for failure be checked. The committee felt that the plan that was adopted would give the teacher a better opportunity to analyze his particular problems. When the reports were all collected, the causes were inspected by the committee and the classification was made as the reports came from the teachers.

TABLE 1.—TEACHERS' OPINIONS AS TO CAUSES OF FAILURE IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

Probable Cause of Failure	Distributed Total	Total	Percent
I. LOW MENTALITY.....	..	304	22.87
1. Positively stated by teacher.....	195		
2. Assumed by teacher.....	45		
3. Slow	64		
II. PERSONALITY AND BEHAVIOR DIFFICULTIES....	..	292	21.97
1. Timidity	70		
2. Lack of application.....	38		
3. Lack of concentration.....	33		
4. Indifference	26		
5. Not responsive	20		
6. Lack of ambition.....	13		
7. Careless	12		
8. Emotional instability	6		
9. Not dependable	6		
10. Sex irregularities	2		
11. Inferiority complex	1		
12. Superior attitude	0		
13. Unclassified	65		
III. ATTENDANCE PROBLEMS	..	259	19.48
1. New entrants	70		
2. Late entrance	49		
3. Irregular attendance	47		
4. Prolonged absence	42		
5. Habitually changing schools.....	33		
IV. ACADEMIC DIFFICULTIES	..	188	14.14
1. Poor foundation	142		
2. Reading difficulties	26		
3. Arithmetic difficulties	14		
4. English difficulties	3		
5. Spelling difficulties	3		
6. Too many courses.....	0		
7. Poor study habits.....	0		
V. HEALTH OR HEALTH HABITS.....	..	139	10.45
1. Physical inability	53		
2. Undernourishment	21		
3. Nervous	16		
4. Ears	14		
5. Eyes	14		
6. Speech defects.....	11		
7. Anemic	1		
8. Rheumatism	1		
9. Overweight	1		
10. Appendicitis	1		

TABLE 1.—TEACHERS' OPINIONS AS TO CAUSES OF FAILURE IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS—Continued

Probable Cause of Failure	Distributed Total	Total	Percent
11. Lack of sleep.....	1		
12. Not clean	1		
13. Smoking	1		
14. Nose	0		
15. Throat	0		
16. Teeth	0		
17. Spinal trouble	0		
18. Unclassified	3		
VI. FAMILY SITUATIONS	..	117	8.80
1. Poor home environment.....	84		
a. Broken home	4		
b. Poverty	1		
c. Lack of parental control.....	0		
2. Foreign home (Language).....	26		
3. Death	2		
VII. ACTIVITIES OUTSIDE CLASS.....	..	2	.001
1. Social	2		
2. Work	0		
3. Athletics	0		
4. Music	0		
VIII. UNCLASSIFIED REASONS.....	..	28	2.10
GRAND TOTAL	1329	1329	99.811

CAUSE OF FAILURES

Table 1 shows that the largest classification of failures in elementary schools comes under the group of low mentality, since over one-fourth of the entire number are so classed. A number of teachers stated low mentality or "slow" as the cause for failure but gave no I. Q. as a basis for their judgment. Since the committee had no way of determining whether the child had been tested or not, the case was counted as low mentality, positively stated by the teacher, or placed under the classification "slow." *The committee recommends that a follow-up study be made of the children reported as slow or of low mentality in order to ascertain whether the children are subnormal or whether some other cause makes them appear to have low mental ability.*

Attendance problems rank second in importance. The type of attendance problems that are prevalent in the elementary schools shows that they do not come within the range of the law or school authorities.

Academic difficulties rank third in Table 1. New entrants compose the majority of these cases and remedial work seems to be the only solution for this problem.

Personality and behavior difficulties rank fourth. Indifference, not responsive, and lack of application constitute one-half of the total number of cases in this group. Since this is a classroom problem a more intensive study of these children would be worthwhile.

The unclassified reasons in Table 1 for the elementary schools are as follows:

- 17 Habitual repeaters
- 1 Dislikes school
- 1 Too old for the grade
- 2 Lack of coördination
- 2 Guesses
- 1 Depends on copying
- 1 Only child
- 1 Large
- 1 Twin
- 1 Overdressed

TABLE 2.—CLASSIFICATION OF FAILURES BY GRADES—ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

Grade	Enrolment			Number of Failures			Per- cent Failed	Per- cent Pro- moted
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total		
Jr. Kgn.	338	347	685	3	4	7	1	99
Sr. Kgn.	319	366	685	12	5	17	2	98
Jr. 1.....	439	390	829	62	30	92	11	89
Sr. 1.....	338	341	679	48	30	78	11	89
Jr. 2.....	364	322	686	26	18	44	6	94
Sr. 2.....	319	273	592	32	14	46	7	93
Jr. 3.....	357	323	680	32	7	39	5	95
Sr. 3.....	269	264	533	19	9	28	5	95
Jr. 4.....	390	341	731	34	11	45	6	94
Sr. 4.....	307	296	603	23	15	38	6	94
Jr. 5.....	365	355	720	27	17	44	6	94
Sr. 5.....	280	268	548	27	7	34	6	94
Jr. 6.....	356	311	667	24	23	47	7	93
Sr. 6.....	273	301	574	19	17	36	6	94
Total	4714	4498	9212	388	207	595	6	94
Per Cent	51	49	100	65	35	100		100

NUMBER OF FAILURES

In Table 2 certain facts are striking and deserve further comment. First, the percent of failures is almost the same in all grades with the exception of the kindergarten and first grade. In the kindergarten the basis of promotion is chronological age and when a child reaches the age of six, unless he is very immature, he is promoted to the first grade. This makes our first elimination take place in the

first grade, hence we may expect a large percent there. If we failed children in the kindergarten, as we do in the other grades, the percent would probably be the same in all grades. This can be seen by comparing the percents on the four-semester plan. A child should attend 14 semesters to complete the work. The total percent of failures equals 25 for the first four semesters, 23 for the second four semesters, 24 for the third four semesters, and 13 for the last two.

Second, the percent of failures among boys is greater than among girls, but this study did not reveal any outstanding cause for that fact, hence we must leave our readers to draw their own conclusions.

RECOMMENDATIONS

1. The committee recommends that this study be continued and data for another semester be added to the material herein presented in order that a more complete analysis of our failure situation may be made.

2. The committee recommends that the teachers in thinking of their failure problem be constantly on the alert to observe small factors that may present themselves leading to possible failures. This frequent analysis of the pupils' difficulties will do much to eliminate unnecessary failures.

3. We further recommend that a study be made of the reasons for the preponderance of failures among boys over girls, and that a readjustment of our technic be planned to meet better the needs of the boys.

THE STANDING of any professional organization is indicated by the evidence found in its office files and in the type of publications which it sends out. The coöperative studies made by the Club and published in its special bulletins, and especially in the Yearbooks, represent the concerted efforts of the Club as a professional organization to make worthwhile contributions to the progress of public education.—Chicago Principals Club, *1928 Yearbook*, p. 7.

CHAPTER XI

AN INVESTIGATION OF VACATION LOSS

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PRINCIPALS and supervisors have sometimes accounted for the weakness of pupils at the beginning of the school year by reminding the teacher that he is judging his new class by the standard of last year's class—as he remembers it from June. Its accomplishment in arithmetic, its ready response to any appeal, its organization, its social accomplishment—these are the scales with which he weighs his new class. And he finds it “short weight.”

Experiments have shown a consistent loss in the learning process through forgetting, and educators talk about the need of “over-learning” to enable one to retain for a longer period. Yet this information has rarely been used as an answer to the apparent unpreparedness of the incoming class in September.

This article reports an attempt to uncover the amount of loss, and the possible time of recovery. Incidentally, there appears some light on the summer school pupil and the summer school problem.

In June, 1927, the Woody-McCall Mixed Fundamentals test was given to about 150 children in the fifth grade. The test was given again the first day of school in September to these same children. This test was repeated four weeks later.

Table 1 shows the gain or loss, for the entire grade, for the summer school pupils separately, for the non-summer school pupils separately, and for the whole group four weeks later.

A study of the losses in Table 1 shows that the average loss is about two points in a maximum of 35, or about six percent. The last column shows that this loss has been recovered at the end of four weeks. Between June and September about 70 percent of the entire group had lost one or more points; nine percent had not gained or lost, and 21 percent had gained. Thirty-four percent of those who had attended summer school had gained, and 58 percent had lost. In October 41 percent of the entire group had gained, and 40 percent had still some to go before they were as good as they were in June.

TABLE 1.—DISTRIBUTIONS SHOWING GAINS AND LOSSES IN ARITHMETIC DURING THE SUMMER VACATION

		June Test All Pupils	September Test		October Test All Pupils
			Summer School Pupils	Non-Summer School Pupils	
Gain	8	1	1	0	3
	7	1	1	0	1
	6	0	0	0	2
	5	3	1	2	4
	4	4	0	4	8
	3	3	1	2	15
	2	7	5	2	17
	1	13	4	9	18
Same	0	14	3	11	15
Loss	1	21	4	17	15
	2	17	5	12	19
	3	22	5	17	10
	4	14	4	10	6
	5	10	1	9	2
	6	5	0	5	2
	7	7	1	6	2
	8	1	0	1	1
	9	0	0	0	1
	10	2	1	1	0
	11	1	0	1	0
	12	1	1	0	0
	Total	147	38	109	141 ¹

¹ Six of the pupils had left during the first month, but there were no extreme scores or variations in any of their results.

More illuminating, however, is the following tabulation based on the median scores at the three different dates:

TABLE 2.—MEDIAN SCORES IN ARITHMETIC TEST COMPARED WITH MAXIMUM SCORE AND GRADE STANDARDS

Month	September Standards		Median Scores			Maximum Score
	Fifth Grade	Sixth Grade	Summer School Pupils	Non-Summer School Pupils	Entire Group	
June	17.8	22.5	22.0	19.2	21.6	35
September	17.8	22.5	19.5	19.3	19.5	35
October	17.8	22.5	22.6	19.3	22.0	35

From Table 2 it is evident that the class in June was only 0.9 of a point below the standard for the sixth grade for September, or in matter of time about two months behind a normal schedule. But in September the same pupils are 2.0 points below, or about a half year behind, although one-fourth of them attended summer school.

The fact that these pupils are nearly a half year below standard, according to this test, and that some of them must have been over a year below, may seem to call for some explanation. Why they were promoted is outside the purpose of this paper. A partial explanation for the low median in the test is that the school is largely of foreign parentage. The median I. Q. is 80 for the class under consideration. The range in intelligence quotients is from 43 to 112 for the whole class and the median I. Q. is 76 for the summer school group.

The "summer school" group was about three points below the rest of the group in June. In spite of the extra work during the vacation they show practically no gain, and in October they have apparently made no advance. Has the summer school helped?

The same experiment was repeated again in 1928 with almost identical results, as seen below:

Class A.....	June median.....	24.0
Class A.....	September median	21.7
Summer School Group.....	June median	20.5
Summer School Group.....	September median	20.2

Here the loss of the whole group is 2.3 points, and for the summer school group is 0.3 point.

These findings led me to make use of some other available test material about this group. Table 3 shows the results of summer losses for three classes as shown by the Woody Arithmetic Scales.

TABLE 3.—SUMMER LOSSES IN ARITHMETIC AS MEASURED BY THE WOODY ARITHMETIC SCALES¹

Date	Median Scores											
	Addition (Maximum Score 19)			Subtraction (Maximum Score 15)			Multiplication (Maximum Score 20)			Division (Maximum Score 15)		
	A Class	B Class	C Class	A Class	B Class	C Class	A Class	B Class	C Class	A Class	B Class	C Class
June.....	14.9	12.4	10.9	12.7	8.7	8.4	15.4	10.6	6.1	9.9	8.6	4.9
September.....	13.3	11.4	9.2	8.9	8.2	5.7	10.7	8.6	4.6	7.2	5.4	3.4
Loss over the summer.....	1.6	1.0	1.7	3.8	0.5	2.7	4.7	2.0	1.5	2.7	3.2	1.5
Average loss...	1.4			2.3			2.6			2.4		

¹ The personnel of Classes A, B, and C changed slightly over the summer. We have presumed that the children entering these classes were as well prepared as those leaving.

Table 3 shows losses as follows:

Addition	1.4 points, or 7 percent.
Subtraction	2.3 points, or 15 percent.
Multiplication	2.6 points, or 13 percent.
Division	2.4 points, or 16 percent.

Taking the four tests together, the greatest loss was in Class A (passing from the fifth to the sixth grade) in spite of the fact that the summer school group was in that grade. This is probably due to the fact that there is greater opportunity to forget in attempting 20 examples than in attempting 10. On this basis the percentage of mistakes is about the same as that of the other grades.

Further study in this matter of "loss" was available in the subject of reading. The tabulation of the results is given in Table 4.

TABLE 4.—SUMMER LOSS IN READING ABILITY

Class	April 1927 Reading Quotient	September 1927 Reading Quotient	Loss	Average Loss
A	93.4	89.8	3.6	5.2
B	95.4	89.7	5.7	
C	91.0	84.6	6.4	

Two new factors make these figures in reading very interesting. In the first place the R. Q., and not scores, are given. To maintain a constant R. Q. there must be a higher score for each succeeding month. Consequently, as the children were in school some three months after the April tests under good instruction, and as the quotients are under the norms, it is probable that the June R. Q. would have shown improvement. But in September we find what we have learned to expect—a *loss* due to the summer vacation period.

Class A (passing from fifth to sixth grade) also contains the "summer school" group. Without this group it is probable that the loss would have been greater.

The second factor to be considered in interpreting these results is that the processes and the information used as a basis for these tests in reading is not all of recent acquisition. Most of it is the accumulated and often used material of the previous three to five years. If the tests had been on the subjectmatter of the previous year only, the loss would have been very much greater, probably as high as 50 percent in many cases.

It would be unwise to draw very definite conclusions from this small study. But certain tendencies may be noted. First, that pupils do not bring back in September what they carry away in June, either

in subjectmatter or in habits. Second, that the low summer school group seem to hold up better for the extra work, but the others overtake them in the course of a few weeks.

Also, that in order to use norms of standard tests in measuring the work of a grade, a school, or a city, the principal must know exactly what time during the first few weeks of the school the norms represent, for the rapid change during these days represents practically *one-half year* of progress.

The significance of these findings will vary according to the reader's point of view. The advocate of the all-year school will see at once arguments for the all-year school. The "vacationist" will point to the rapid recall and the value of such a period of rest.

One real value of this information seems to the writer to be the understanding of this loss, and the possible quick recall, and the consequent adjustment of the work to meet this situation.

WHY DOES IT HAPPEN that some learning persists and other learning fades out? The answer is obvious: Some things were in fact learned and others were not. Some had amounted to actual adaptations; others had been mere memory content, good until after examination and then lost.

The test of a real product of learning is then: first, its permanency; and, second, its habitual use in the ordinary activities of life. Indeed, so fundamental is the latter of the two tests that any truly educated person can appraise the whole education of his fellow in its terms.—Henry C. Morrison. *The Practice of Teaching in the Secondary School*. The University of Chicago Press, 1926, p. 25, 29.

CHAPTER XII

USING THE RESULTS OF STANDARDIZED TESTS

MRS. P. LUCILE HAWLEY

Principal, Washington Community School, Lynn, Massachusetts

THE WASHINGTON elementary school enrolls about 800 children. Nearly all of them come from the homes of foreign speaking parents—Jewish, Greek, and Italian races predominating.

At present, there are five first, five second, four third, four fourth, and three fifth grade rooms. All of the classes in these rooms have been organized on the X Y Z grouping plan, after a standardized testing program for all pupils in grades one to six, inclusive, throughout the city.

The testing program was arranged and carried out under the direction of the research department of the Lynn public schools.¹ The regular classroom teachers administered and scored the tests.

The testing program—The testing program which influenced this year's grouping at the Washington School included the following tests:

- I. Intelligence Tests (Grades 1-6 inclusive), October, 1927.
Grades 1 and 2: Pintner-Cunningham.
Grades 3 to 6: Illinois General Intelligence.
- II. Achievement Tests (Grades 3-6 inclusive), January, 1928.
Grade 3: Stanford Achievement, Primary, (Form A).
Grades 4-6: Stanford Achievement, Advanced, (Form A).
- III. Achievement Tests (Grade 2), May, 1928.
Grade 2: Stanford Reading (Form A).
- IV. Intelligence Tests (Grade 1), October, 1928.
Grade 1: Pintner-Cunningham.

The results of these tests showed that the old form of school organization was far from perfect. Many classes contained children who differed widely in mental capacity. Children were found whose chronological ages varied greatly from the standard for the grade.

As the teachers themselves expressed it, the tests showed exactly what they had believed for a long time. Less than half of the children in the ordinary classroom were doing work consistent with their capacity. The others were doing work which was too easy for them or were attempting something which was entirely too difficult. All

¹Burr, Lynn E. "How to Formulate a Testing Program and Utilize Test Results." *The Nation's Schools* 2: 61; December, 1928.

agreed that the results under such an organization were unfair to both teacher and pupils. Therefore, the teachers welcomed the idea of trying out a plan of X Y Z grouping for the year 1928-29. Everyone hoped that a more homogeneous grading would help each child to progress better according to his individual needs and ability.

Grouping of pupils—The first step in the grouping of the pupils for the present school year had to do with placing them appropriately in the various grades.

In making promotions, the child's mental age, his school attainment, his chronological age, his social environment, and the teacher's opinion were all given due weight. The general rule followed was that of placing the child in the grade and in the group where, all things considered, he would be able to make the most satisfactory progress.

Every teacher's promotion list was carefully gone over by the principal in conference with the teacher. Doubtful cases were discussed with the supervisory staff.

With the exception of the first grade, there were few non-promotions. Failure in only one subject did not hold a pupil back, unless that subject was first, second, or third grade reading. Repeaters, except in the first grade, were grouped on the basis of the I. Q., the teacher's opinion, and the physical development. The thirty first-grade repeaters were put into one group, largely because of their maturity as compared with the September beginners in this grade.

Children who had already spent two years in a grade, but who had not yet made satisfactory progress, were given a trial promotion to the next higher grade. These pupils were also listed for special individual testing by the school psychologist, who is a member of the research department staff.

Children who were considered worthy of double promotions were promoted to the next grade with the recommendation that they would probably be ready for another promotion at the end of the first semester. Such children were given special tests this year, the final decision concerning their promotion resting with the supervisory staff, who rightly took into account the mental, physical, and social maturity of these children as well as their accomplishment.

After they were assigned to grades, the teachers listed all of the pupils consecutively according to the intelligence quotients. The children with an I. Q. of 111 or above were classed as X pupils; those with an I. Q. from 110 to 86, inclusive, were classed as Y pupils; while those with an I. Q. of 85 to 75, inclusive, were classed

as Z pupils. Pupils with an I. Q. below 75 were put on the waiting list of the special class for mentally retarded pupils.

The above procedure gave a tentative grouping on a plan of three regular sections per grade. Modifications of this tentative grouping were made in terms of mental ages, educational quotients, teacher's estimates, and, in a few cases, chronological age and resulting social development.

The final outcome as to groups varied widely from the typical grade. Usually, there are about 25 percent X pupils, 50 percent Y pupils, and 25 percent Z pupils. In our second grade there was one X group of 45 pupils, two Y groups of 40 pupils each, and two Z groups of 30 pupils each. Grade three contained two X Y groups of 44 pupils each, and two Z Y groups of 35 pupils each. Grade four had one X group of 40 pupils, two Y groups of 35 pupils each, and one Z group of 30 pupils. In grade five, there was one X group of 47 pupils, one Y group of 45 pupils, and one Z group of 40 pupils.

The final grouping showed some overlapping of the elements considered. Both X and Y pupils were necessarily found in some classes, and Y and Z pupils in others. However, the median I. Q. and E. Q. was found to be progressively higher from class to class, and the median M. A. and C. A. were progressively higher from grade to grade.

Size of classes and assignment of teachers—Wherever possible, the size of the classes was determined according to ability of the pupils. The X classes contained from 40 to 47 pupils, the Y classes having from 35 to 40 pupils, and the Z classes having from 30 to 35 pupils. We found Z groups of over 30 pupils to be both unpopular and unsatisfactory.

The teachers drew lots for the various groups. Two teachers made special requests for Z group pupils. In the future, we hope to assign to the X, Y, or Z classes, those teachers whose ability and training best fit them for these particular groups.

After the grouping was made, all comparisons between classes were stopped. The teacher centered her attention upon helping each child in her room to accomplish a full year's work according to his ability.

The curriculum—Any X Y Z grouping plan makes it necessary to adjust the curriculum upon a three track basis, as follows:

1. Minimum essentials to be mastered by all pupils of the grade.
2. Average accomplishments which both X and Y pupils will complete.
3. An enriched and broadened offering for all X pupils.

For the past several years, Lynn has been working toward a child activities program, as the best recognized medium for meeting the needs of the children of all ability levels.

A statement of minimum essentials is already in the hands of every teacher. The teachers, the administrative and supervisory staff officers are now at work upon the other requirements. They meet once a week as a curriculum research council, with the Director of Research as chairman, to discuss the material for a revised course of study for Lynn. A number of sub-committees are working out the program outlined by this council.

Individual differences and remedial teaching—The plan of X Y Z grouping, backed by the testing and the activity program, emphasizes the individuality of every child. It brings the teacher face to face with the imperative need for considering and meeting individual differences.

Much remedial work is going on in each classroom. Further remedial work was effectively accomplished at the Washington School last year by a fulltime coaching teacher. She helped those children of grades one, two, and three, who were not up to grade, but who had the ability to profit by special help.¹

Other children who are handicapped by poor hearing are attending the lip reading class three times a week. This class is in charge of a special teacher who goes from school to school.

Professional study—Along with the reorganization of the work at the Washington School, has come a demand on the part of the teachers for their own professional study group. They wanted to discuss the testing movement, its relation to a new curriculum and other applications which can be made in an elementary school. A series of six meetings is being carried out this year. In March the professional study will culminate in a Research Department demonstration for parents.

The teachers of the Washington School have reviewed such books as: *After Testing—What?* by Corning; *The Individual Pupil*, by Mort; *The Technic of Curriculum Making*, by Harap; *Foundations of Method*, by Kilpatrick; and *Curriculum Making in an Elementary School*, by the Lincoln School Staff. Throughout the year, the teachers have enjoyed the experience of coördinating theory and practice.

¹ See three articles on the work of the coaching teacher, by Samuel Engle Burr, Director of Research, Lynn Public Schools, in *Journal of Education*, December 5, 1927, February 27, 1928, April 9, 1928.

SUMMARY

The experiment in ability grouping at the Washington School is far too new to warrant any profitable conclusions. We know that X Y Z grouping has been helpful in other places. We hope, through continued testing and by studying carefully tabulated results, to determine its worth with us.

We have, however, come to feel that through the use of standardized tests and their results, personal prejudice is giving way to truth in estimating children's accomplishments. Informal tests for judging and comparing regular classroom work have taken on a new meaning for the children. Also, there are better and more comprehensive records to pass on with each child from year to year.

To summarize, the results of the testing program call attention to the following outcomes:

- A. Ability grouping.
- B. The use of improved informal classroom tests.
- C. Increased attention to individual differences.
- D. Remedial work in the classroom.
- E. Remedial work by the coaching teacher.
- F. The professional study group of a research nature for teachers.
- G. A public demonstration of the work of the research department for parents.
- H. Membership in the curriculum reconstruction council.
- I. A better card record system of pupil ability and achievement.

EVERY CHILD in the school should be studied each term with reference to the relation between mental ability and performance. Tests of accomplishment in subjectmatter must go hand in hand with the intelligence test. Proper placement cannot be made without both types of tests. In the ideal school each child would be working fully up to his ability.—Virgil E. Dickson, *Mental Tests and the Classroom Teacher*. World Book Company, 1923, p. 213.

CHAPTER XIII

SHOULD EXAMINATIONS BE ELIMINATED?

A. J. WILLIAMS

Principal, School 9, Buffalo, New York

DURING the past several years there has been considerable agitation in some quarters for the entire elimination of examinations as they have grown up in connection with school work. A number of arguments are advanced for this procedure, among which are:

1. Examinations are an artificial thing which will not be met by the child in any phase of life outside of school work.
2. It is not fair to pupils to expect their entire term's work and sometimes their entire year's work to depend on an examination lasting two or three hours.
3. Ratings on examinations are not the same when made by different teachers teaching the same subject or by the same teacher at different times.
4. Examinations in a subject may vary in value from year to year.

Developing informal tests—During the past three years at School Number 9, we have done considerable experimental work in attempting to answer these different objections, and have arrived at a solution which seems satisfactory. This involved two steps: Making new type examinations for the work which should be covered in a monthly test, and administering the testing program in such a way that it would not be burdensome to any individual. In order to accomplish these ends we appointed committees to take charge of each subject. For example, the teachers who had reading classes were on the reading committee, and those who taught English were on the English committee.

The chairman of each committee then assigned sections of each month's work to the various members of the committee. Each person prepared a certain amount of material for the monthly test. This material was in the form of objective tests. For the first month or two, examinations were compiled in the office, as the committees were not experienced in arranging objective tests. Since that time, however, the material has been supplied and arranged by members of each committee, with only minor changes by the office.

Our practice has been to give the same test from grades four to eight. This means that the test must be of such difficulty that fourth grade pupils can answer a reasonable number of items, and the eighth grade pupils cannot answer all items.

There are several reasons for using tests for several grades, as follows:

First, to save time in the mimeographing of materials. If we use a different test for each grade, it would be necessary to make at least 25 or 30 stencils instead of the 10 now required.

Second, these tests serve as a check on the work throughout the school. Where there is no check-up from grade to grade, teachers may assume that the child knows everything taught in the previous grade. Such assumptions tend to advance pupils without adequate foundation for the new material. Each grade tends to become a water-tight compartment, as far as subjectmatter is concerned.

It was a revelation to some of the teachers in the upper grades to find through our new tests that a few pupils were failing on fourth or fifth grade material. That rarely happens at present, because all the teachers coöperate in eliminating obviously weak spots in the lower grade subjectmatter. Each teacher feels responsible for all material from the fourth grade up.

Test results are checked each month to find whether the tests are easy enough at one end and difficult enough at the other; also, whether the difficulties are distributed evenly enough, so that the difference in scores between the various classes is about the same each time. Table 1 below shows the distribution of scores on a recent test in reading.

TABLE 1.—DISTRIBUTION OF SCORES IN THE READING TEST

Scores		0	5	10	15	20	25	30	35	40	45	50	Total	Medians
		4	9	14	19	24	29	34	39	44	49	54		
Number of cases in each grade.	8b	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	10	29	45	3	88	45.5
	7a	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	9	13	14	2	38	43.8
	7b	..	..	..	1	..	5	15	25	34	12	1	93	40.0
	6a	..	..	..	..	1	4	11	13	7	1	..	37	35.9
	6b	..	..	3	..	7	25	22	26	6	3	..	92	32.5
	5a	..	..	..	..	4	12	8	7	2	1	..	34	30.6
	5b	..	..	3	11	21	18	8	..	..	..	..	61	23.9
	4a	..	..	5	5	10	6	5	1	..	..	..	32	23.0
	4b	1	4	24	29	23	1	..	..	..	..	..	82	17.1

For example, referring to Table 1, in reading the median, scores range from 17 in the fourth grade to 46 in the eighth grade. The steps from grade to grade are practically even, so that a line drawn through the medians in the various grades is almost a straight line, except that it curves slightly at the upper end. In arithmetic (table not given) the medians are not in a straight line. The 5A follows a little behind, and the 7B goes a little ahead. However, they come

very close to the line. The even distribution shows that the difficulty of these two examinations is very well graduated. There are no places in the examinations where the difficulty increases at a much more rapid rate than in other parts. The range within each grade, which is found no matter how careful the grading is done, is considerable. It is somewhat more in the 6B grade, in both cases, than it is in any of the others.

For our own use in making comparisons between classes and between pupils in the class, it is entirely satisfactory to use the test scores. We know the relationship between the scores in the various grades, and can compare a pupil directly with the pupils in his own class. For instance, take a child in the seventh grade with a score of 45 or 46 in reading. Table 1 shows that only 13 pupils in the 7B grade were equal to or better than his score. On the other hand, if he had a score of 25, we see immediately that only one pupil had a poorer score.

Marking report cards—The marking of report cards would not be satisfied by this method. So the question arises of how we may change test scores into marks of the same relative value, and in terms that are understood by the parents. This can be done by establishing standards for the various points in the marking scale commonly used on report cards. Theoretically this scale runs from zero to 100 although the lower half is not used, because comparatively few marks are found below 60 or 65. The main part of the report card scale is from 75 to 100 with some marks between 65 and 75. The first question that arises is: What percent of the marks should be below 75, and what percent of the marks should be above 90?

There are two ways of making a tentative settlement of this question. First, we might ask a number of authorities in education for their opinions. A second method would be to assume that the marks given by the teachers were reasonably satisfactory, and then to find the various points on the scale from the distribution of the teachers' marks. This second method was selected as probably the most satisfactory, and a tabulation of teachers' marks was made.

In connection with the Annual Survey of the Buffalo Public Schools in 1925-26, teachers were asked to give the marks of pupils in reading, arithmetic, English, and spelling. These marks were to be the average of the three monthly marks of September, October, and November. About 40,000 marks were tabulated in several grades and ages, and it was discovered that in practically every case the distribution of marks followed closely the curve of normal distribution, or the normal probability curve.

TABLE 2.—DISTRIBUTION OF TEACHERS' MARKS

Teacher Marks	Total of Eighth Grades			Total of Sixth Grades			Total of Sixth and Eighth Grades		
	Actual Distribution	Basis 1000 Cases	Normal Distribution	Actual Distribution	Basis 1000 Cases	Normal Distribution	Actual Distribution	Basis 1000 Cases	Normal Distribution
100	18	1	21	21	1	22	39	1	8
95	627	47	53	600	29	49	1227	36	33
90	2013	151	115	2620	124	105	4633	135	101
85	3094	232	205	4504	214	172	7598	219	203
80	3214	242	233	5449	258	212	8663	251	261
75	2401	181	192	3819	181	195	6220	182	220
70	1077	81	110	2074	98	136	3151	92	120
65	451	34	45	903	43	71	1354	39	42
60	223	17	13	560	26	27	783	23	10
55	79	6	3	196	9	9	275	8	1
50	73	5	..	183	9	2	256	7	1
45	20	2	..	67	3	..	87	3	..
40	9	1	..	64	3	..	73	2	..
39 and below.....	5	..	..	54	2	..	59	2	..
Total	13304			21114			34418		
Average	82.95			81.4			82.0		

In Table 2, the actual distribution of these totals is shown, and compared with the normal distribution on the basis of a thousand cases. It seems reasonable to say that the basis of marking pupils ought to be the same in all classes. It does not seem reasonable that there should be many more failures in sixth grade classes than in the eighth grade classes. Of course, there are arguments that can be advanced to support that condition, such as elimination of poorer pupils. With proper methods of classification that argument ought not to have much force.

In every case then, the actual distribution of the marks is very nearly the same as its normal distribution. The eighth grade scores on the whole come more closely to the normal distribution than do the sixth grades. It is reasonable to suppose that the eighth grade teachers are a little more accurate in their marks than are the sixth grade, since they have the final examination, and must submit their papers to the office for review. If we select a normal distribution in which there are 17 percent below 75 and about 18 percent above 90, we will have a scientific basis for the distribution of marks. This will compare very closely to the actual distribution of *all* marks by *all* teachers in the city. Such a table has been made and used for three years to the satisfaction of everyone concerned.

TABLE 3.—KEY FOR TRANSMUTING TEST SCORES INTO TEACHERS' MARKS

Percent	Mark	Percent	Mark	Percent	Mark
0.0-2.5	100	38.3-42.8	85	93.4-94.7	70
2.6-3.1	99	42.8-47.6	84	94.8-95.9	69
3.2-4.1	98	47.6-52.4	83	95.9-96.9	68
4.2-5.3	97	52.5-57.1	82	97.0-97.6	67
5.4-6.7	96	57.2-61.8	81	97.7-98.2	66
6.8-8.4	95	61.9-66.2	80	98.2-98.7	65
8.5-10.4	94	66.3-70.5	79	98.8-99.1	64
10.5-12.7	93	70.6-74.5	78	99.2-99.3	63
12.7-15.4	92	74.6-78.2	77	99.31-99.4	62
15.5-18.4	91	78.2-81.5	76	99.41-99.65	61
18.5-21.8	90	81.6-84.6	75	99.66-99.75	60
21.9-25.5	89	84.7-87.2	74	99.76-99.83	59
25.6-29.5	88	87.3-89.6	73	99.84-99.88	58
29.6-33.7	87	89.7-91.6	72	99.89-99.93	57
33.8-38.2	86	91.7-93.3	71		

Using the key table—Let us suppose that a teacher gives one of our informal arithmetic tests to a class of 40 pupils. After scoring the tests he makes a distribution of the scores as shown in Table 4.

TABLE 4.—DISTRIBUTION OF TEST SCORES IN ARITHMETIC TEST

Score	Frequency
20-24	4
25-29	6
30-34	25
35-39	4
40-44	1
	—
Total	40

Examining step 20-24 it is seen that there are four pupils receiving this score. Statistically it is correct to assume that these four cases are scattered evenly upon this step. Hence, 38 or 95 percent of the class is *above* the midpoint of the step. Examining Table 3, we find that the mark corresponding with 95 percent is 69. Therefore, a score of 23 on the test is entitled to a teacher's mark of 69. Scores below 23 would be marked less than 69, and higher scores would receive proportionally higher grades.

Let us determine the mark of the one pupil receiving the highest score. The midpoint of the highest step is 43. Theoretically, the highest scores are scattered evenly on the step. Hence, one-half of a score out of the class of 40 is above the midpoint 43. In other words, 1.25 percent of the total number of scores is above point 43. Examining Table 4, we find that the teacher's mark 100 corresponds with 1.25 percent.

In the same way the teacher determines the *standard* teacher's mark, which corresponds to each pupil's score on the test. In this way his report card marks can be placed upon the same basis as all other teachers of the system.

The total amount of time required by the teacher in scoring papers and putting on the marks is considerably less than would be used by a conscientious teacher in scoring old-type examinations, on the basis of 10 points per question. Our method not only gives a much more accurate mark, and one which is comparable from grade to grade, but also from subject to subject. Furthermore, it actually takes less of the teacher's time than he would use in making his own examinations, and scoring them in the old-fashioned way.

Some of the advantages of the plan described above are as follows:

1. A more thorough knowledge of the pupil's ability in a given subject is acquired by the teacher. Instead of ten or twelve items, such as are found in the old type examinations, the pupil is tested on from 50 to 100 items.

2. The pupil has a better chance on this test to show what he can do. He might miss two or three items out of the ten in the old type examination and thus get a poor mark. In the new test several unfamiliar items would not influence his mark so disastrously.

3. The new examination has the great advantage of coördinating the work of the teachers in several grades in a given subject. For example, heretofore the eighth grade teacher in arithmetic has concerned himself largely with the problem of his immediate course of study and comparatively little with the subject-matter which has been presented in previous grades. Now the eighth grade teacher has to consider the subjectmatter from the fourth grade up, because the examination contains items from each of several grades.

4. These tests are of considerable diagnostic value. Each of the teachers in the committee has his own ideas as to what should go into the examination and each is assigned some particular phase of the work which has been covered during the month. After the papers have been corrected a table is made showing the percent of errors in each class on each item of the test. This table helps the teachers to determine the particular type of error which is most frequent among the classes and to take measures in correcting the situation.

5. The new scheme provides scientifically accurate marks, which are directly comparable between pupils of the same class and different classes. Marks are directly comparable for the same pupil from month to month and from year to year. Moreover, the marks in one subject can be compared directly with the marks in another subject, because the scheme of rating makes all the examinations identical in value no matter what the month, grade, or subject.

6. The objection sometimes made by pupils and parents—"The teacher doesn't like me," "She has a grudge against me,"—can no longer serve as an alibi for poor marks. The teacher has nothing whatever to do with giving a child his mark except to help in preparing the examination. We have entirely eliminated complaints of this kind from parents during the last year, as they can readily see the real situation.

7. These examinations have helped the faculty to realize the importance of coöperation between teachers of the same subject. The course of study has become a continuous matter instead of a series of isolated compartments, such as are likely to exist where the teachers work independently.

Sample tests—The next section of this article has been given over to illustrations of the tests described above.

SAMPLE 1.—READING TEST FOR GRADES 3 TO 5

1. Jack lived with his mother in a little cottage. His father was dead. A big giant had stolen all his money. His mother had to work very hard, and they had very little to eat.

Draw a line under the word that tells what kind of boy Jack was:

rich fortunate poor

2. Jack's mother sent him to the fair to sell their only cow. Jack traded the cow for a hatful of beans. When he returned home, his mother punished him and sent him to bed.

Draw a line under the word that tells what kind of boy Jack was:

wise helpful silly

3. Jack's mother threw the beans out of the window. When Jack woke up the next morning, he looked out. Jack exclaimed, "Oh, mother! Come and look! A beanstalk has grown up to the sky!"

Draw a line under the word that tells you how Jack felt:

sad surprised ill

4. As soon as Jack was dressed, he ran out of the house and began to climb the beanstalk. He climbed and climbed until he reached the top.

Draw a line under the word that tells you the kind of boy Jack was:

lazy weak strong

5. At the top of the beanstalk Jack saw a big castle. When he knocked at the door, a kind old woman let him in. She told Jack that the big giant who had stolen his father's money lived there. Jack made up his mind to get the money. The old woman said she would help.

What kind of a boy was Jack?

frightened brave stupid

6. Jack found the money bags and started home. He climbed down the beanstalk as fast as he could. The giant climbed after him. When Jack reached the bottom, he took an ax and chopped the beanstalk down.

What kind of a boy was Jack?

quick slow clumsy

Peter Rabbit was dreadfully frightened. He rushed all over the garden for he had forgotten his way back to the gate. He lost one of his shoes among the cabbages and the other among the potatoes.

After losing them, he ran on four legs and went faster. I think he might have got away, if he had not run into a gooseberry net and got caught by the large buttons on his jacket. It was a blue jacket with brass buttons.

7. What had Peter forgotten?.....

8. Where did he leave his shoes?.....

9. Where did he catch his jacket?.....

10. What kept him from getting away?.....

Do you think he would like to lose his shoes and jacket?.....

Susano is a little Japanese boy. He lives far away on a big island, called Japan. Susano has yellow skin and coarse, black hair. His eyes are small and slanting. We call them almond eyes, for they are just the shape of an almond. They are as black as coal. Susano has a sister called Fumi. She, too, has black hair and eyes. Susano and Fumi are dressed just alike. They both wear long

gowns. They wear sashes about their waists. Fumi's sash is longer than Susano's and hers ties behind in a big bow. You should see their stockings. They are made of white cotton. They have a place for the big toe, just as our mittens have a place for the thumb. When Susano and Fumi are in the house, they walk about in their stocking feet.

12. Susano lives on a big.....
13. His eyes are shaped like an.....
14. Susano's sister is.....
15. Fumi hashair.
16. His eyes are as black as (tar, coal, ink).....
17. They wear long.....
18. Whose sash is longer?.....
19. Their stockings are made of.....
20. In the house they walk about in their.....

The port of Chicago owes much to the Chicago River which has been repeatedly widened, opened, and straightened. It is today one of the world's most important rivers, commercially considered. After extending about one mile westward from the lake, the river divides into two branches, one extending northwest, the other southwest. Many docks have been built along its fifteen miles of navigable channel, and its banks are lined with factories, warehouses, coal yards, and grain elevators.

21. To what does it say Chicago owes much?.....
22. The Chicago River has been widened (once, several, many) times.
23. It is (the least known, broadest and widest, among most important) rivers.
24. It is important because of (its water, its scenery, its commerce).
25. How far westward does it extend before dividing?.....
26. In what two opposite directions does it flow?.....
27. Write the word that means boats may safely travel on it.
- 28-31. and are storage places for
and

More than twenty centuries ago, a wise old Chinese philosopher recognized the importance of fine table manners, when he cautioned his countrymen always to eat as if in the presence of a king. He saw that if they were to have good table manners, they must practice them daily at home.

On dotted line, write the number which you find, before the correct meaning for each word.

- | | |
|--------------------|---------------------------|
| 32.....centuries | 1. warned |
| 33.....wise | 2. learned or wise men |
| 34.....philosopher | 3. do over and over |
| 35.....recognized | 4. hundreds of years |
| 36.....importance | 5. worthy of notice |
| 37.....manners | 6. having a good judgment |
| 38.....cautioned | 7. be with a person |
| 39.....countrymen | 8. your behavior |
| 40.....presence | 9. to have knowledge |
| 41.....practice | 10. people of your land |

SAMPLE 2.—READING TEST FOR GRADES 4 TO 8

A quaint figure is the candy vender of Japan. Down the narrow street he comes singing, with his small stand and his stock of candy figures. A crowd of

children follow him. When the crowd is large enough the candy man sets down his stand and begins business.

With a little bamboo tube he blows bubbles of hot sugar somewhat as a child blows soap bubbles. These he twists and shapes into flowers, fruits, animals, and fishes. When he completes a figure he hangs it on a nail in the edge of the stand.

All the while the candy man is working he entertains the children with humorous remarks or with tales of adventure in which the hero is always one who eats quantities of candy. Most of the candy venders are old men who are fond of children and who love their calling. The Japanese have a saying, "Once a candy man, always a candy man."

In each of the sentences below underline the word or words that make the sentence right.

1. The paragraph tells about (Japanese children, why we should eat candy, the candy man).
2. The candy man comes down the street (soberly, merrily, slowly).
3. He tells the children (exciting, boresome, long) stories.
4. The children (dislike, adore, abhor) the candy man.
5. Copy the word in the paragraph that means *peddler*.....
6. Copy the word that means *amuses*.....
7. Copy the word that means *funny*.....
8. Copy the word that means *finishes*.....

Daniel Boone was one of the pioneers. When he crossed the mountains to Kentucky the whole of that section was a wilderness. There were no roads. The pioneers built a few log huts in which to live, and surrounded them with a stockade as a protection against the Indians, who were apt to attack them at any time. The men of the company cleared some ground and tried to raise some grain and vegetables. Often they went on hunting trips to secure wild animals for food. The women dared not leave the stockade while the men were away.

9. What does the paragraph say about roads in the wilderness?.....
10. In what kind of houses did the pioneers live?.....
11. How did they protect themselves from the Indians?.....
12. What did they try to raise?.....
13. Why did they go hunting?.....
14. Where did the women stay while the men were away?.....

The fresh green of the wheat fields began to turn to a golden brown. The harvest was ripening. Before long the air rang with the steady beat of the flail, as the Pilgrims threshed their first crop of golden grain.

15. What season of the year was it?.....
- Underline the word which makes the sentence true:
16. The Pilgrims were (planting, harvesting, cultivating).
17. The flail was (a bird, a tool, grain).
18. These people were (industrious, lazy, careless).

Betty skipped merrily into the house, and snatching up some broken corn-cake left from the morning meal, ran lightly out to the field where Daisy was kept, her own horse, which she had helped to raise from a colt.

19. Betty skipped (sadly, soberly, happily).
20. What word means picking up quickly?.....
21. What time of day is mentioned?.....
22. Find a word in the paragraph that means *assisted*.....
23. A colt is a young (deer, horse, cow, sheep).

SAMPLE 3.—READING TEST FOR GRADES 4 TO 8

Mother Nature is a tireless worker. At all seasons you may find proof of her labors. In the spring and summer, she adorns field and byway with beautiful flowers. What does she do in fall and winter?

Find a word in the paragraph which means:

1. autumn
2. side path
3. untiring
4. beautifies
5. evidence
6. work

Cheapside is one of the busiest streets in the largest city of the world. Do you know the name of that city?

London is not in the United States. It is in England, a beautiful country across the Atlantic Ocean.

Underline the word which makes the statement true:

7. Cheapside is a (city, street, country).
8. London is in (United States, England, America).
9. To reach London you would sail (west, across Atlantic Ocean to Europe).

The sun flashed on the little red and black vase which sparkled like a brilliant jewel before the wondering eyes of the king, while from the crowds of people rose cries of delight.

10. What sparkled like a jewel?.....
11. This was not in our country because they were ruled by a.....
12. With what kind of eyes did the king look?.....
13. How do you know the people were pleased?.....
14. The vase was (full, ugly, shiny).
15. Select a word that means a gem.....
16. Select one meaning groups or herds.....
17. Rose means (flower, pink, issued).

The trophy was an exquisite thing—a small silver standard, and on that, poised on tiptoe and balanced as if for instant flight, was the delicately wrought silver figure of a girl in regular athletic costume, bloomers, middy, and tie, just what every girl in Midlands was wearing for school sports. The little figure seemed vivid and alive, with tie and hair ruffled a bit as though being blown by friendly, invisible breezes.

18. This describes, explains, questions.
19. It had a standard.
20. How was the figure poised?.....
21. It seemed ready for.....
22. The costume was composed of.....
23. Invisible means (apparent, unseen, noticeable).
24. The seemed vivid and alive.
25. What expression tells how carefully the figure has been made?....
26. Costume (duty, habit, dress).

From the above paragraph select a word meaning:

- | | |
|-------------------------|--------------------------|
| 27. worked | 30. reward |
| 28. delightful | 31. strong, robust |
| 29. support, base | 32. immediate |

Select another word for:

33. balanced
 34. alive

The following sentences are out of order. Using the numbers, indicate the correct order:

1. So we know that coal is made from plants, because it consists mainly of a substance, called carbon, which is abundant in plants, and because in connection with coal beds we find leaves, tree trunks, roots, and fruits in petrified or fossil condition.
2. In ancient periods in the history of the earth, forests grew in great swamps and on their borders.
3. This mass of plant substance was turned into coal, in much the same way as vegetation in swamps may now change into the brown substance called peat, which is used for fuel in Ireland and in a number of other countries.
4. The wood, leaves, and mosses of the forests gathered for a long time and were kept from decay by the water.

SAMPLE 4.—READING TEST FOR GRADES 6 TO 8

The ideal wheat climate, with a rainy winter and a dry summer, is sometimes called the Mediterranean type of climate because it is characteristic of most countries facing that body of water. The western part of our country (about 40-45 percent of the whole) is mostly too arid for cultivation, except when irrigated. The district that is most arid is in the Great Basin. Going from the east toward the arid region we find close to the line of 20 inches of rainfall the most important wheat belt in America, reaching from Texas north through Oklahoma, Kansas, Nebraska, the Dakotas, and Minnesota into Canada. A second belt is found as we go north and northwest from the deserts of the Great Basin, into an area of increased rainfall which gives the wheat areas of eastern Oregon and Washington. To the west of the Great Basin, across the Sierras in California, is the great valley of the State, one of the most important wheat regions of the country. Its essentially Mediterranean conditions give it the best wheat climate in America.

1. Select a word that means artificial watering of land.....
2. One that means area or district.....
3. One that means dry, parched from heat.....
4. One that means tilling the land or raising of a crop.....
5. A word that means excellent.....
6. What is the rainy winter and dry climate sometimes called?.....
7. Write the first six words of the sentence which tells the region having least rainfall.....
8. Write the first four words that tell where the most important wheat belt in America is.....
- 9-10. Write the names of the states that are included in the second wheat belt
11. Write the name of the state that has the best wheat climate in the United States.....
- 12-15. The best climate for wheat is that which has a..... and a
- 16-17. Except when the western part of the United States is too for wheat raising.
- 18-19. The district that is most arid is found in the.....

Underline the word that spoils the meaning in the two paragraphs below:

20. The postage was so high for carrying the mails in Colonial times that few letters were written. As the charge of twenty-five cents on a single letter was common, people wrote often to their friends.
21. The high mountains near the coast of Alaska shut out from the interior much of the warmth and rainfall which the winds bring to the shore lands. Consequently, interior Alaska is much warmer and a temperature of fifty or more degrees below zero is common in the winter.

Combine each of the following groups into a sentence:

- A. brave all men are in the United States Navy.
22. B. in which every American the splendid country lives he should appreciate.
23. C. in our colonial history who is one of the noblest figures to the principals of freedom deserves to be honored Roger Williams for his heroic devotion.

In the following selection "power" is needed for the first blank so it is numbered (1). Number the remaining words in the list to correspond to the blanks:

- 24.....trade
- 25.....poured
- 26.....grinder
- 27.....competing
-power
- 28.....seaboard
- 29.....manufacturer
- 30.....second
- 31.....elevated
- 32.....recently
- 33.....freight
- 34.....western

Buffalo with the 1 of Niagara Falls at hand has
 2 become the
 3 milling center of North America. On the natural
 4 route between the 5 grain fields and the Atlantic 6 wheat was 7 from the holds grain vessels and
 8 into 9 cars. From a trans-shipper of wheat, Buffalo has become a
 10 of it, and is now
 11 with Minneapolis for the first place in flour milling.

Sentence (b) gives the same thought as sentence (a) if you use the right word. Underline the *one* word in parenthesis in sentence (b) which could *not* be used.

- (a) To carry the goods from this place to their destination is expensive.
35. (b) To (transport, transfer, ship, insure) the goods from one place to their destination is expensive.
 Do the same for (c), (f) and (h).
- (c) The people of that community refuse to work together for the common interest.

36. (d) The people of that community refuse to (compete, coöperate, join, associate) for the common interest.
(e) The three branches of the government are that which makes the laws, that which enforces them, and that which decides what they mean. The last two have no power to make laws.
37. (f) The three branches of our government are the legislative, judicial and executive. The last two have no (continental, congressional, legislative) powers.
(g) Henry Clay who arranged the compromise of 1850 said that it was evident that the people of each section would have to yield some of the points in the dispute to prevent war.
38. (h) The people of each section should have to (compromise, concede, adjust, ratify) some of the points in the dispute to prevent war.

Read the following problem. Do not solve it, but answer the question printed below it.

A clerk receives a salary of \$8.00 a week and in addition a commission of 4% on the total amount of his sales each week. What is his weekly income if his sales average \$250 a week?

39. What amount is the clerk sure of receiving each week whether he makes any sales or not?.....
40. If his commission for a certain week is ten dollars what will his income be for that week?.....
41. If his sales average less than \$250 a week will he receive any commission?
42. If his sales should be as high as \$400 would he get a commission on the \$400 or only on the \$250?.....

The word "grain" has the following definitions:

1. The cereal grasses themselves.
2. Texture; fiber.
3. To paint in imitation of the grain (fiber) of wood.

In the blank before each sentence place the number of the definition you think has been used:

- 43.....He grained the top of the table with great care.
44.....The wood is of a very fine grain.
45.....We passed field after field of grain.

CHAPTER XIV

A GUIDANCE PROGRAM FOR A SCHOOL SYSTEM

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INTRODUCTION

AN EDUCATIONAL pioneer of my acquaintance believes that our school curriculum should be organized around a fundamental subject, physical science, with emphasis particularly on biology, the science of life. He would make the schoolroom and all outdoors a laboratory for studying life and its surroundings at first hand.

Another educational pioneer friend would like to make of every schoolroom a good library rich in biography, history, fiction, science, and travel. He would like to make drill in the mechanical processes of reading, writing, and spelling incidental rather than fundamental and to substitute wide reading and browsing among the thinkers of the past and present for the tedious analysis of a few pieces of literature chosen from a little miscellaneous reader or two.

A third educational dissenter would put modern foreign languages very early into the public school curriculum. He would broaden the minds of our whole nation by making it possible for all to come into actual contact with the peoples of other countries. He would like to open to all, even the poorest, some of the opportunities for personal and public international contacts which are greatly increasing today. He would like to break down the language barriers which separate us from our neighbors.

A fourth pioneer or dissenter would like to see the schools put more time into real training for citizenship; into the study of history, of economics, of sociology; into the study and practice of government.

One unifying purpose runs through all these suggestions for reform: that of taking the emphasis off the mechanical processes of reading, writing, spelling, and calculating, and putting it upon life and preparation for life. Every one of these pioneers wants to introduce the youth of the country to something real, to the physical processes going on around them; to the thinkers and seers of yesterday and today; to peoples separated from them by the barrier of language; to the social and economic problems we all face.

Every one of these purposes is important. But where shall we get the time to carry them out? It is such a difficult task to teach the mere processes of reading, writing, spelling, and arithmetic that there is no time for these other fancy things! Even now we have young people who stay in the elementary schools for eight years or more and who come out unable to read a newspaper, to write legibly, to spell the simplest words, to add a column of 10 figures, to speak an English sentence correctly. What good does it do to give them all these advanced ideas if they disgrace themselves and us by being unable to do these elementary things?

Perhaps one answer to this may be found in the experience which we often have in our part-time schools. It happens frequently that we get here a young person 14 years of age or over who is badly retarded; who after spending eight or nine years in school is unable to speak a sentence, write a paragraph, read a page, or add a column correctly. He may seem like impossible material for any occupation or any phase of life for which we train people. Yet again and again boys and girls of this type when confronted with a real need for these elementary processes for practical work in homemaking or shop or business life have simply buckled down to work and mastered these processes. Again and again, boys and girls who have read nothing and show absolutely no taste for reading and no ability to read have been led through literature courses which introduce them to attractive books on animals, Indians, the west, the south, mysteries, and every other subject in which boys and girls delight. Often these children become indefatigable readers and patrons of the public library.

Our experience in the part-time school with people who have been declared hopeless has led us to believe that the will or motive to learn plays a considerable part in the ability to learn. When we have dropped the tactics of the drillmaster and have simply shown the necessity for mastering some process before going on to something the pupil wants to do, we have conquered his prejudice against mastering the process. Many of our young people are wasting much good effort in resisting our attempts to make them do something for which we have not furnished a motive or reason. Some teachers seem to take a delight in a "that's for me to know and you to find out" attitude toward the purpose of their assignments.

Many educators have come to feel that we can save much time in learning the fundamental processes of reading, writing, arithmetic, and other subjects, if we give children worthwhile reasons or motives for learning them. The possible motives are legion. The

study of animal and plant life at first hand will provide some of them. The presence of attractive books of all sorts and frequent excursions into these books with an enthusiastic teacher furnish others. The study of the languages of other peoples makes us see our own as we never saw it before. The study of the social problems of our community, and the history of the way they came to be as they are, develop interest and curiosity which can only be satisfied through reading.

One of the strongest motives in the part-time school is the occupational motive. When the pupil finds out how few things he can do to earn a living without some degree of mastery of reading, writing, spelling, and arithmetic, he ceases to resist and goes to work to make up for his deficiencies. Experience with the strength of this occupational motive might well lead one to the conclusion that it should be introduced as early as possible into the elementary grades. This means the introduction of another subject, "Occupations," into an already crowded curriculum. If, however, the fundamental processes become easier because of the introduction of the study of occupations, of more literature, physical science, social science, language, or other motivating subject, it may well be that the curriculum will grow less crowded as it grows richer. It may be that as the emphasis in the elementary grades shifts from the acquisition of a few fundamental tools like reading and writing to guidance into life, it will be found that the tools can be picked up more easily than when they were the chief object of educational effort.

A GUIDANCE PROGRAM

It will not be a matter of surprise that the guidance program which I am going to outline briefly does not place its primary emphasis upon tests or records of the individual or any of the paraphernalia often associated with the idea of guidance. It places it upon something which many educators seem afraid to defend in these days when almost everyone is shouting, "Don't teach the subject, teach the child." It places it upon all the subjectmatter of instruction.

I am not able to subscribe to the theory that it makes little difference what you teach a child provided you say to yourself all the time, "This is a human being who must be treated as an individual." The world is full of many wonderful and vital and challenging problems. It is also full of many trivial and inconsequential things which we can well afford to miss. Many people spend their lives flitting

from one trivial activity to another. The first item, therefore, in a program of wise guidance must be the opening of the eyes of young people to the important and vital problems of life.

That can only be done effectively when those who teach our schools overhaul their stock, look at it critically, and cast out the trash. The first step in reorganizing a school for guidance might well be to call the teaching staff together; ask them to outline what they are doing, consider why they are doing it, throw overboard whatever they find which is not vital, and present the whole thing to the staff. In meeting after meeting the instructors should discuss among themselves what they are doing and why; they should justify their work to themselves, to their colleagues, and to fair-minded laymen, or change it until they can defend it.

I am always suspicious of the person who says, "I am not a teacher of mathematics (or history, or language, or what not). I am just a teacher of youth." A person who does not believe in his subject would have no place in the school of my ideals. A person should be teaching a subject because he believes it has something of great value for those whom he teaches. The great teachers of music are men and women who believe in the power of music in the world. The great teachers of physical science are those who hold science in reverence. The great teachers in the realm of political science are those who believe in the possibilities of better government and join with their fellow men in striving for it. The great teachers of language are those who feel that it is a great and fine thing to learn to know a people through the language they have developed.

The first thing, then, for those who wish to organize a school which will offer real guidance for life is to get teachers who know the value of their subject in life and who will explain that value and impress it upon their pupils. To work with teachers like this, who are leading a purposeful existence themselves, gives young people a strong incentive to prepare to do likewise.

With teachers like this it is not difficult to secure the second and third items in the guidance program. The second is that every subject should be so taught as to show its particular value in all the occupations the teacher and the class can recall. This means that every teacher must have a wide knowledge of occupations as well as of his subject.

The third item is, to my mind, the most important in the whole guidance program. It is simply that every subject should be so taught as to show the existence of the problems still to be solved in connection with it.

We are likely in these days of careful measuring, to forget that ability to perform a task is not fixed but variable, and that one of the great causes of variability is the presence or absence of motive or inspiration. There are fairly capable people who will do as they are told but who never see what to do next. Life for them is empty. They hang around listlessly complaining of nothing to do.

There are others who, with apparently little if any more ability, are always happily buried in work. They can see things to do faster than they can possibly do them. They are never listless or lonely or longing for something to do. Everything they look at offers challenging problems. No life could be long enough to do all they see to do. Contact with others like themselves sometimes inspires them to accomplishments which seem humanly impossible. All of us have done, on sudden inspiration, in an emergency or desperate need or strong emotion, things which we could not do ordinarily. We do not get the power to do by sitting down with a little card which asks for the qualities needed for certain occupations and searching our souls to see if we possess them. We get it by being thrown into a situation where we are called upon to use every capacity we have and some which we did not dream we possessed.

In every occupation we find a few men and women who are awake and active and many more who are asleep. In the medical profession, for example, we find a few great physicians who think and work day and night on the terrible problems which beg constantly for solution. They see people die every day for lack of a little knowledge. They search day by day for the key to Nature's closed doors.

There are a few such physicians and scientists. Because of them and their work, life is steadily lengthening; and suffering from certain causes is disappearing. But for every one of these wide-awake physicians there are many torpid ones. There are hundreds of good decent fellows who take what was given them at school and live off it for the rest of their lives, never contributing anything to the science they profess. They do as they were told to do, but they never see anything to do unless it is pointed out to them.

The same thing is to be seen among lawyers. A few have vision and ingenuity and work for the improvement of legal practices. The others mark time as long as they live. So with men in business. There are always the two classes. They are in all the professions, in commercial life, in the trades, and among the unskilled day laborers. Everywhere there are a few people who see problems sticking up everywhere and who long for the time and strength to solve them.

Everywhere, too, there are those who see no problems of any kind before them and whose lives are drab and uninspired.

Take, for example, the average young girl sitting before a knitting machine with 14,000 needles. To her the machine, if she thinks about it at all, is a complicated finished affair. She knows nothing about it except how to run it. She does not realize that it is not perfect, that it will never be perfect, that some day some one with open eyes will see what needs to be done to make it better, and get credit and money for doing it.

No doubt some people have the gift of seeing the problems in front of them to a much greater extent than others. But the school can do much to cultivate this gift in both the more gifted and less gifted. If pupils are challenged every day, in every subject, to look for the unsolved problems connected with it, they will gradually develop the habit of looking for the next step. Over a school period of many years, they cannot help finding many problems of permanent interest to them.

Sometimes it looks as if, in our enthusiasm over developing the individual along the lines of his natural tendencies, we are likely to make him too self-conscious. We keep worrying him about his abilities just as an injudicious mother worries her child about the food he eats. We direct his attention too much toward himself, too little toward an interesting world in which he might forget himself.

This leads us to the fourth item: the definite study of occupations, which should begin very early—probably in the first or second grade. Even very young children can be encouraged to look around them and to inquire about and tell about the occupations of their parents, relatives, and neighbors: the nature of the work, the conditions, the hours, the time the father or mother goes to work and comes home, the wages, and some of its pleasant and unpleasant characteristics. Discussion with their parents and with the class will be excellent training in English as well as in investigation. Many new words will be learned. Every new word may be put on the board, pronounced, written by the pupils, spelled, and discussed until everyone has mastered it. It is this sort of incidental practice which will help to solve the problem of reading, writing, and spelling, and to make unnecessary a period of drill on arbitrarily selected material.

Following a year or two of this rather unsystematic, random study of familiar occupations, the class may pass to a more intensive study of the various occupations, classed perhaps as agricultural, manufacturing, commercial, professional, or perhaps as rural and urban. At least a year should be devoted to the rural occupations and a year to the occupations of the city.

In studying carefully the different problems involved in agriculture, the class would discuss the different types of farming, such as market gardening, stock raising, milk production, grain growing, horticulture, melon raising, the characteristics and training needed for each kind of work; the working conditions, the work of women on the farm, hours, wages, and profits prevailing in each; the problems of marketing, of land ownership, tenancy, farm credit and farm labor, and the possibilities of each. The housing, the social life, the school, the library, church, and all cultural facilities should all be considered. The laws affecting farm life, encouraging or aiding the settler, the school laws, the restrictive laws, should all be studied in connection with agriculture. The experiences of the children who go to the farm in the summer, their summer gardening work, will all come in for discussion here. Above everything these rural occupations should be studied as changing activities with emphasis on the problems calling for solution.

In dealing with manufacturing the pupils could take up all the kinds of manufacturing which are of any importance in the locality and which might become of importance in the state. In studying these, consideration should be given to the different types of occupations found in industry, the trades, the administrative and the technical scientific work involved; the lines of promotion in each; the training and preparation needed for each, the laws regulating the industry or touching any of its occupations; the conditions of the work, its advantages and disadvantages; and the problems now pressing for attention.

The same method should be followed in dealing with other occupations. One period a day for four or five years devoted to an intelligent discussion of occupations will result in bringing the child, by the time the law will permit him to leave school, to a point where he will be able to go into the part-time continuation school or the fulltime high school and understand why he is urged to study this and that which he might otherwise consider distasteful.

In the last year or two of the required all-day school the period previously devoted to occupations should be devoted to a different form of guidance. Guidance here is chiefly needed for two problems: first, a study of the opportunities for continued education and training of all sorts; and second, the planning by each pupil of one or several possible programs for future training and development.

In the matter of education and training facilities, generalities will not serve. Announcements and catalogs of all the possible schools in the state and outside should be collected, examined, compared,

and discussed. These would include local high schools, trade schools and part-time schools, colleges and universities offering general and special teaching. The training programs of various well-known industries, such as the apprentice schools of Brown and Sharpe, R. R. Donnelley and Sons, the Ford Motor Company, the General Electric Company, R. Hoe & Company, the Westinghouse Electric, Yale and Towne, and many others should be obtained and studied, as well as other industrial courses offered by fulltime trade schools, part-time schools, evening schools, and public or private correspondence schools.

On the basis of these catalogs, pupils should make out programs of training leading to various occupations. Finally, each pupil should make a plan representing the program he wants to follow, or alternate plans based on various types of work in which he is interested.

Of course, no eighth grade pupil can be sure that he will always want to stick to the program he has outlined. He ought not to be given the impression that there is anything final about it. The person who plans does not always reach the place he plans to reach. *But he gets somewhere.* He goes farther than the person who never plans at all. If he begins to plan his program with a purpose before he leaves the elementary school, he will, if he is given an opportunity, continue to do it in the secondary and higher schools.

The supplying of opportunity and encouragement for careful planning is one of the important items in the guidance program of every school. The individual conference is often given as an important item in guidance. It is important only if it arises out of a desire for advice on some definite problem. I question the value of a few minutes of arranged conference between a pupil and a strange adviser; but the instructor of a course in occupations will probably have an opportunity for many valuable and spontaneous conferences with all his pupils. The discussion of such questions as the selection of the course in that school will surely lead to individual conferences where plenty of time can be given to each pupil.

The secondary school which the pupil chooses may be a fulltime or a part-time one. Before the opening of each school term, the elementary school should give to each secondary school a list of those pupils who plan to attend it the next year. The secondary school should send a friendly letter to each of its prospective pupils announcing the opening of school.

When the pupil arrives, he should be sent, with other entering pupils, to the person in charge of guidance. The latter should talk with the freshmen, telling them as much as possible about the school

and its work, and giving them an opportunity to ask questions and make comments. Pupils may be conducted through the school.

The study of occupations should be continued here in the form of a try-out course in the various types of training which the school offers. Our part-time schools in Wisconsin give a try-out course of from one to two years. In some of the schools, pupils spend 10 weeks in each of six or seven shops and in the commercial department. The shop teacher is instructed to give in that 10 weeks as good a view as possible of the occupation, to provide as many varieties of experience within the occupation as possible; and to discuss fully the occupation and its possibilities. Such a course needs to be worked out carefully to insure that instructors stick to the main objective of giving a view of the occupation as a whole and do not start in to teach it as they would to some one who knows this is what he wants.

When the pupil has gone through the try-out course, he should be ready to select some line of training around which to organize his program for the remainder of his time in this school.

Somewhere in the life of every young person there ought to be a combination of work and school. When young people first go to work, they should not be cut off from school. They should be coming back continually to school in order that the school may show them how to make the most of their work. The guidance instructor in the school needs to have young workers for an hour or so a week in order to show them how to look for the interesting things in their job and the work with which it is connected; for the problems to be solved; for the possibilities in it.

Before young people leave the secondary school, they should again have formed their plans for continued future training. The person or persons engaged in guidance should hold group meetings at which the catalogs and announcements of a variety of colleges, technical schools, evening courses, and correspondence courses are discussed. For those who are going on to college on a fulltime basis, the planning of the program is fairly easy. For those who must work, it is harder. There are, of course, many young people who now work their way through college. There are some colleges like Antioch and the Colleges of Engineering of the University of Cincinnati, Harvard, and Marquette which not only permit part-time employment but make it the basis of their program, but these are comparatively few. There are some universities in the larger cities which offer evening courses for teachers and professional people, and others who work during the day, but except in these large cities, the community evening college is still a beautiful dream of the future. Until we realize this

dream, our guidance program falls down for lack of a place toward which to guide. It leaves many of us "All dressed up with no place to go."

Objective tests of intelligence, aptitude, ability, performance, and information have some place in a guidance program as well as in an English, a science, or a language program, and probably will not do much damage if the tester has a sense of humor and does not regard the test as an infallible sacred object. Most of the tests purporting to measure intelligence and aptitude remind me of the professor's remark when a young woman described a lobster as a "red fish that moves backwards." He said, "Young lady, you are absolutely correct, except that it isn't a fish, it isn't red, and it doesn't move backwards." Most of the "objective tests" which I have seen are not objective at all but subjective; and most of the intelligence tests do not measure intelligence but information, background, and environment.

However, the fact that most of the "objective tests" are not objective and that most of the "intelligence tests" are not tests of intelligence does not mean that such tests cannot be made. I believe that the guidance instructors in the elementary, secondary, and higher schools, coöperating with teachers of other subjects may, by keeping records of all pupils as they pass from school to school, by using some of the best tests which they or the psychologists can prepare, by following up their pupils to observe their careers after they leave school, in time help the psychologists to determine some reliable principles of measurement, and thus help the school authorities to some reliable principles of grouping and of instruction. So far, the most satisfactory aptitude tests I have seen are those which involve a sampling of the activities in connection with which the individual is being tested. They are, in other words, little try-out courses.

SUMMARY

No matter how skilful we may become in determining individual aptitudes, the test from without will probably continue to be as now, a matter of secondary importance. For more important in our guidance program are: the constant and conscious winnowing and sifting of the materials of instruction to eliminate useless effort; the purposeful study of occupations and of the possibilities of training for these occupations; the continuous planning of the next step in training and in work; the effective motivation of school work and of life by calling attention to the unsolved and interesting problems in every line of activity.

CHAPTER XV

A STUDY OF CHARACTER EDUCATION IN WISCONSIN SCHOOLS

P. M. VINCENT

Superintendent of Schools, Stevens Point, Wisconsin

A STUDY was made in April, 1928, to determine the status of character education in the Wisconsin schools. No attempt was made to make a complete survey of the state, but rather to get a sample of typical practices. The survey was made by means of a questionnaire which is printed at the end of this article. Questionnaires were sent to nine training schools of the state teachers colleges, and to thirty representative schools in communities ranging from small villages to cities of forty thousand population.

The replies were such that a detailed presentation of data was impractical. A summarized statement of results is as follows:

- (1) Do you have a separate course in character education? Yes—3 No—26
- (2) Do you teach conduct, ideals, and manners as character education, though not organized as a separate course?

Definitely organize work.....	13
As part of weekday religious education.....	2
Not teaching anything definite.....	1
In connection with other work.....	1

- (3) In connection with what subjects do you give character instruction?
Nearly all subjects, particularly English, citizenship, and civics.
- (4) How much time do you allot to character instruction?
Replies varied from incidental teaching in all subjects to regular period of 40 minutes per week.
- (5) What objectives do you set up?
Answers include: to keep character building before the child at all times, civic virtues, honesty, square dealing, fair play, courtesy, kindness, neatness, adaptability, perseverance, poise, initiative, efficiency, and sportsmanship.
- (6) What special work do you give?
Conservation, safety education, and thrift.
- (7) Do you think character instruction should be a scheduled school subject?

Definite time should be set aside.....	3
In connection with other school subjects....	23

- (8) Further remarks:
We need to be doing something in this field.
It should not be isolated. Character is an integral part of the child's being.

The child has to build his own character. We place the best kind of influences around him in the school, the community, and the home, and he will have to make his response to these influences. To teach character direct is to make it academic instead of emotional. It is of the heart and not of the brain.

We are planning a course for next year in which it will be taught in connection with other work the same as now, but with more distinct objectives.

Teach it without labeling it, if possible. Our big job is to find teachers—the right kind can teach it anywhere—the wrong kind cannot get away with any procedure. I always give special emphasis upon this question when I employ teachers, at teachers' meetings, at assemblies, in the classes, especially citizenship, and at other times. Character training is one of the biggest reasons for my staying in this work. I am positive that much can be done, if the big leaders would stress it more at the expense of perhaps 100 per cent efficiency of mind.

Our whole school programs should tend toward character education as an objective.

Prefer that every teacher take every opportunity to stress character building in connection with her own subject.

A questionnaire was submitted to the presidents of the nine teachers colleges to determine what the training colleges of Wisconsin are doing to train teachers for the work in character education. Nine replies were received. Of the nine, four offer a definite course in this work and five do not. Of the four schools offering courses, two are required. In the two schools where this work is elective, one offers a semester course of two hours per week and the other offers a two-point course for one semester. One of the schools which requires a course also offers an additional course in educational and vocational guidance and counseling.

The comments of the presidents are rather enlightening. They said:

We are giving it this year for the first time. We think it is going to be very valuable.

Much needed, but hardly enough time given to it. However, all possible with crowded program.

My own opinion is that courses of this sort are of very little value.

Character is a thing that has to be caught and cannot be taught. In my mind, character education is a thing that has to be an outgrowth, or what would be more accurate to say, the resultant by-product of all school activities. Neither honesty nor patriotism can be taught; they must be an outgrowth of situations in which patriotism and honesty are involved.

I question very much the value of courses in character building as such. I cannot picture a student or pupil selecting a course or subject to strengthen his character. Character isn't built in that way. Personally, I should resent a direct attempt on the part of a teacher to build my character and I should not care to say to a child: "This subject is to be taken to help you build your character." Our business as teachers is to conduct ourselves and our work so as to develop character in our boys and girls.

We do not offer any course under the designation "Character Education." I trust that this does not imply, however, that we are not giving attention to this important matter. I am of the opinion that practically all courses in a school of this kind should result in character education. Very frequently, in my opinion, formalized instruction in the field of morals and ethics yields very little.

Such a course depends for its value upon the worth of the subject matter and the effectiveness of the instructor.

Conclusions—Only a few conclusions are warranted by this brief survey. Very little *formal work* in character education is being done in Wisconsin public schools and very little *formal work* is being done to train teachers to carry out character teaching. The majority of the schools are against formal work in character education. There is almost unanimous agreement that this work is highly important. It is agreed that the schools and teachers should strengthen the child's character through example, precept, and routine work.

In the writer's opinion, formal work should be given teachers in the teacher-training institutions. There should be conscious, directed effort to give character instruction to those who have the responsibility for guiding the youth in the schools. There should be little *formal* teaching to children, except in the field of manners and conduct where situations can be developed to give practice and participation. The tendency in Wisconsin schools is in the direction of greater emphasis in building character rather than merely teaching subjects.

The questionnaire—Character education in the questionnaire was defined as "any organized attempt to teach ideals, manners, conduct, and so forth." The questionnaire is given below.

1. Do you have a separate course for this work? Yes.....No.....
 - a. If so, how much time do you allot per day or week for this work in elementary schools?..... in High School?.....
 - b. If so, enumerate the larger objectives that you have set up in this work
 - c. What are the outstanding things taught?.....
2. Do you teach this work in connection with other subjects, but have it definitely organized? Yes.....No.....
 - a. If so, with what subjects?.....
 - b. If so, approximately how much time do you give per day or week in elementary schools?.....in High School?.....
 - c. If so, enumerate the larger objectives that you have set up in this work....
3. If you answer "no" to the above, will you list below any special work that you have in such activities as Safety Education, Manners and Conduct, Thrift, Conservation.....
4. If work of this nature is given, how do you think it should be offered?
 - a. As separate course with a definite time in the program.....
 - b. In connection with other work.....
 - c. Incidentally without special emphasis.....
5. Remarks:
6. Will you kindly enclose any outlines or material that you have for distribution in connection with this work?

CHAPTER XVI

MORALLY HANDICAPPED CHILDREN

CHRISTINE SCHLENKER

Principal, P. S. 61 (Probationary), Brooklyn, New York

THE SUBJECT of morally handicapped children is so broad that it would be impossible to consider it from all angles and in all its phases in a paper of this length. I shall, therefore, endeavor to limit my discussion to the following headings: (1) The meaning of the term, "morally handicapped," (2) types, (3) causes, and (4) suggested remedies.

The meaning of the term, "morally handicapped"—The word moral in a broad, general sense means the practices, conduct, and spirit of men toward God, themselves, and their fellow men with reference to right and wrong and to their obligation to duty.

The word handicapped carries with it the meaning of having any disadvantage or hindrance which makes success in an undertaking more difficult.

Combining our definitions we get the following meaning for our term, "morally handicapped": having any disadvantage or hindrance making more difficult success in the practices, conduct, and spirit of men toward God, themselves, and their fellow men in reference to right and wrong and to their obligation to duty.

Types—As soon as we are aware of the fact that there are different causes for a certain condition we invariably expect to find various types of that condition. The inclusion of the words, "any disadvantage or hindrance" in our definition immediately suggests the fact that there is more than one type of morally handicapped child.

We find two big divisions, which we may term the "amoral" and the "immoral." In the class of the "amoral" are included all those who are devoid of any sense of right and wrong. The second class includes all those whose standards of right and wrong do not conform to the standards set by society at large. It can readily be seen that this classification has been made on a basis of the degree to which the individual possesses a moral sense. Each class may be further subdivided on the basis of the special line of handicap that the individual follows—the pyromaniac, the sex pervert, the drug addict, the thief, the burglar, the forger, the murderer, and so forth.

The first general group is composed largely of the mental defective, including the moron. Lack of mental ability makes him a menace to the community.

The second class is by far the larger and more dangerous to society, for these individuals possess a sense of right and wrong but their standards are either so low or so distorted that they do not conform to the standards of society. The hope of improving the second group rests largely with society itself. Helping the first is still in the experimental stage.

Any public school will furnish numerous examples of the various types of the morally handicapped, *e. g.*, the boy who suffers from "wanderlust"; the thief whose parents do not detect his dishonesty or who approve his acts; the one who is thoroughly imbued with the "gangster" spirit; the one who may come from a broken home where drinking, stealing, and gambling prevail; and those who have become addicted to the use of drugs. Among the girls we find practically the same types but in addition thereto we will have the girl who is encouraged by her parents, because of the financial return, to indulge in immoral practices. Also, the girl who because of excessive sex development and improper training has become a sex pervert. With the girls, of course, the sex problem is more difficult to solve.

Causes—Upon investigation we find that the two factors—heredity and environment—which play so large a part in all phases of life, have a great influence here, too.

In the so-called "amoral" class we find the individuals never questioning the right or wrong of an act, and often unable to control or inhibit any impulse, emotion, or act. They have no standards of right or wrong to which an appeal can be made. It is sometimes utterly impossible to make such persons realize that their acts are wrong, unjust, or unfair.

In the "immoral" class we find quite a different situation. The individual may inherit tendencies which develop into a very low level of moral sense. He, however, knows the social standards, but through environmental influences or lack of training prefers to ignore them.

As we turn back the pages of history we find that nations at different stages of their civilization have had varying standards of right and wrong. What was considered conventional and right at one time, at another time was considered unconventional and wrong.

Again that which is considered right in one nation may be considered as a crime in another nation. The study of the origin of the laws of a nation reveals the fact that the laws at one time were merely *mores* which later developed into conventions and finally into codes. In the more civilized nations the rights of the individual are respected to a greater degree than in the less civilized countries. In many respects the life of an individual closely follows the development of a race or nation. The attitudes of the members of a family develop into a code of morals for that family. The same act will merit praise in one family and censure in another. It is only in comparatively recent times that we have realized that child training should begin in the preschool period.

The degree of intelligence of a person is measured largely by his ability not only to meet the various situations with the proper responses, but also to adjust himself to the conflicts which confront him. The morally handicapped individual finds it utterly impossible properly to adjust himself to the various experiences he meets. If we start early enough in life we may be able to help morally handicapped persons to form correct attitudes and habituate the proper reaction to certain stimuli.

Suggested remedies—The great problem that confronts society today is how these morally handicapped children can be helped. The safest and sanest method to pursue in suggesting remedies is to diagnose the causes. We immediately find that in many cases the home is at fault. The standards of the home can be raised by improving labor conditions, teaching the proper use of leisure time, and extending and intensifying educational facilities. In this way we will raise the general moral tone of the home. Education must be recognized as extending from the cradle to the grave. Training must be begun before the child enters school. Various agencies must coöperate. Society must not place the entire burden on the schools. The parent as well as the child must be educated. Parents must be taught to recognize the responsibilities that rest upon their shoulders. It is their duty to train their children from early infancy to recognize right and wrong. It is the duty of society to furnish them with assistance if they lack the ability properly to train the child. If these things are done in the home not only during the preschool period but as long as help is needed much more can be accomplished than at present. Under such conditions we will not have to tear down and then rebuild to the extent that is now necessary.

The school should furnish ample opportunities to the child to respond in a desirable way to concrete life situations. It should place upon him social responsibilities similar to those he must eventually assume. He must, however, be assisted in meeting these situations.

We cannot expect to discover a panacea for eliminating all moral handicaps but if the various social agencies and the school work together earnestly, much will be accomplished in removing the moral handicaps which many children now possess.¹

¹ In connection with this chapter the reader's attention is called to the discussion and extensive bibliography on character education in "The Principal and Progressive Movements in Education," *Research Bulletin* 7:75-82; March, 1929. National Education Association.—*Editor*.

WE MUST JUSTIFY our democracy by demonstrating that, even with the handicaps of our mobile masses, and the diverse standards of conduct represented by our conglomerate population and our tradition of lawlessness, and with an educational system that keeps its doors open to all throughout all of its levels, we can make this educational system an effective source of mental and moral discipline for all; that, even under these handicaps and with this condition, we can make public education the steadying and stabilizing force that it must be if our dreams of a triumphant democracy are to come true.—William C. Bagley, *Official Report*, Department of Superintendence, 1929, p. 144.

CHAPTER XVII

AN EXPERIENCE IN CONSOLIDATION

NAT G. BARNHART

Principal, Meadowview Public School, Meadowview, Virginia

THE MEADOWVIEW PUBLIC SCHOOL provides for 350 pupils and 13 teachers. It is a fourteen-room, brick, steam-heated building of a modern type. This fine building resulted from the consolidation of five rural schools which were closed in June, 1924. Before consolidation the attendance for these scattered schools was 85.4 percent of the enrolment. Beginning in 1924-25 the attendance has averaged approximately 90 percent.

SCHOOL PROGRESS OF PUPILS

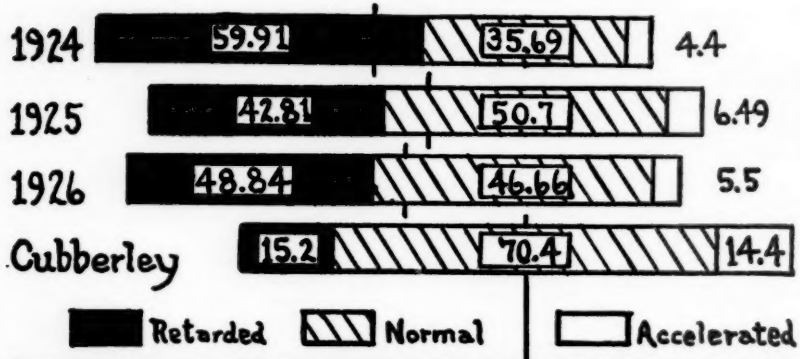
A retardation problem—The term reports for the five separate schools showed much retardation. Now the data for the isolated and consolidated schools show that retardation has been reduced. That is, under better school conditions it is easier for the children to make normal progress. The new school with its nine months of work offers greater possibilities to the pupils than the five schools with an average term of eight months.

In the case of the isolated schools, 4.4 percent of the enrolment was accelerated, 35.69 percent was normal, 27 percent was retarded one and two years, while 32.91 percent was retarded from three to eight years. A total of 59.91 percent were retarded.

Figure 1 shows the promotional results before and after consolidation. No count has been made of the pupils who, failing of promotion, did not attend school in the fall of 1924. May the question be asked: "How many of those who were branded as 'failures' would rather leave school than be classed as 'repeaters'?"

The 1924 bar in Figure 1 shows that in the five isolated schools pupil progress was as follows: 35.69 percent making normal progress, 59.91 percent retarded, and 4.4 percent accelerated. In the case of the consolidated school an improved situation was apparent at the end of the first school year. In 1925, of the enrolment, 6.49 percent was accelerated, 50.7 percent was normal, and 42.81 percent was retarded. Only one child was retarded six years, while in 1924 there was one case of eight years retardation.

FIGURE 1.—PROMOTIONAL RESULTS BEFORE AND AFTER THE CONSOLIDATION OF SCHOOLS



Explanation: In 1924, before consolidation, 59.91 percent of the pupils were retarded; 35.69 percent at grade; and 4.4 percent accelerated.

The 1925 and 1926 bars show the improvement after consolidation.

Cubberley calls the last bar an "average" condition when the course of study is adjusted to the pupils. See Cubberley, E. P. *Public School Administration*, Houghton Mifflin, 1916, p. 295.

The average attendance increased 5.4 percent, bringing it up to 90.8 percent. The average percent of attendance for all the schools in Virginia for the same year was 76 percent, or 14.8 percent less than the Meadowview School for its first year.

The over-ageness produced by the isolated rural schools brought to the new institution many pupils who were repeaters. It cost \$3,759.47 to re-teach those children who had not been promoted the previous year. Approximately one-third of the pupils were repeating a grade. The above cost represents 35.7 percent of the total cost of the new school.

The over-ageness in 1925-26 of the new school cost only 26.5 percent of the total cost of the school for the year. This percentage is 9.2 percent less than the cost for repeaters before consolidation. This represents a saving for the taxpayer.

As shown in Figure 1, the end of the second school year, June, 1926, revealed a different condition. Of the enrolment, 5.5 percent was accelerated, 45.66 percent was normal, and 48.84 percent was retarded. The greatest over-ageness was six years.

A bird's-eye view of the promotional results is set forth in Table 1. Cubberley's text¹ has been used as standard in comparing our schools before and after consolidation.

¹Cubberley, E. P. *Public School Administration*. Houghton Mifflin Company, 1916, p. 295.

Why is the normal percentage for 1925-26 in Table 1 less than the preceding year? In 1925 another one-room school was closed, and all of its pupils came to our school. From this one-room school 14 percent of the enrolment was accelerated, 24 percent was normal, and 62 percent was retarded. The greatest over-ageness was six years. This 62 percent retardation made it impossible for us to hold up the percentage of our gain. Probably by the end of a five-year period at least part of this "ice" will be melted.

TABLE 1.—SCHOOL PROGRESS BEFORE AND AFTER CONSOLIDATION ¹

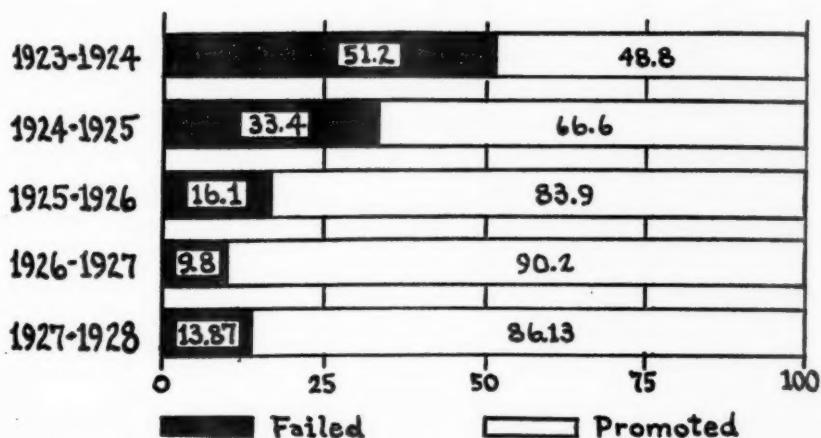
Data From	Status of Pupils		
	Percent Retarded	Percent Normal	Percent Accelerated
Cubberley	15.2	70.4	14.4
1923-24	59.91	35.69	4.4
1924-25 ¹	42.81	50.7	6.49
1925-26	48.84	45.66	5.5
1926-27	40.46	53.00	6.54
1927-28	43.65	52.22	4.13

¹ Consolidation program since June, 1924.

A better promotion record—The actual number of children promoted shows a striking contrast for the five year period. Figures 2 and 3 give the percent of the enrolment promoted for the school as a unit and for the school by grades.

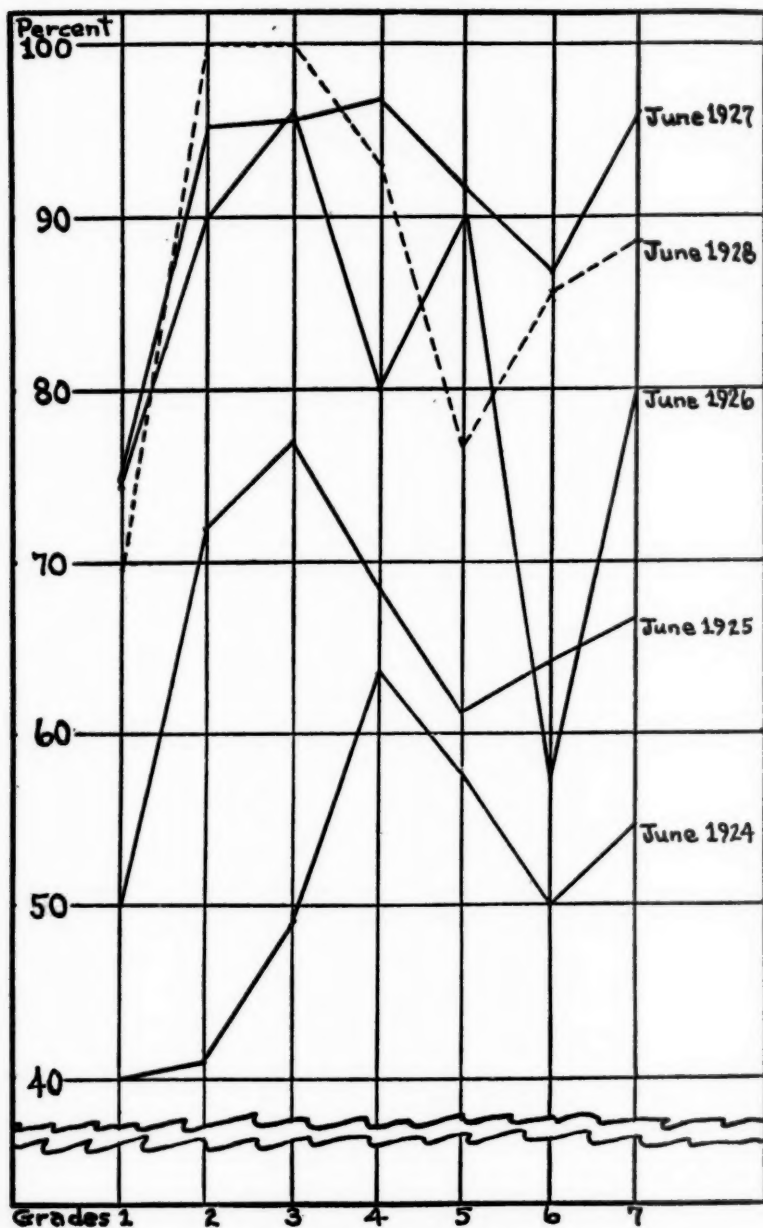
In general, Figures 2 and 3 do not need to be explained. Something needs to be said about the decrease in the promotions in the

FIGURE 2.—PERCENT OF PROMOTIONS AND NON-PROMOTIONS FROM 1923-24 TO 1927-28



Explanation: In 1923-24, before consolidation, 51.2 percent of the pupils failed of promotion. Since consolidation, the percent of promotions has steadily increased. The setback in 1927-1928 was due to further consolidations as explained in the text.

FIGURE 3.—PROMOTIONS BY GRADES FROM 1924 TO 1928



sixth grade in 1926 and the fifth grade in 1928 as shown in Figure 3. In the fall of 1925-26 the sixth and seventh grades enrolled 47 pupils in each room. An additional teacher was employed to relieve this overcrowding.

The new room was organized with pupils from the sixth and the seventh grades. The class was handicapped by starting over a month late and by entering work under a new teacher. The seventh grade pupils seemed to be able to overcome these difficulties better than the younger pupils had been able to do.

The depression of the 1925 line in Figure 3 for the fourth grade was due to a modification of the regular program. This particular group contained many children who were doing unsatisfactory work. The scientific data already available, the judgment of the teachers, and the pupils' records showed that it would be best to permit this group to cover the requirements at a slower rate of speed. By the end of 1927-28 every pupil in this slow group had completed more than the minimum requirements for the fifth grade, but it had taken them longer to do it. This method is highly recommended, for it helped to hold these children in school. Yet it did show in the normal percentages of the age-grade distribution chart.

In Figure 3 the 1928 line drops to a low point for the fifth grade. There is also some loss in the sixth and seventh grades as compared with the 1927 line. Both of these conditions were influenced by a radical modification of the plans. It was the plan of the administration to join together two slow groups in such a way that normal promotions would be given.

However, late in the session of 1927-28, the principal was informed by the school board that one teacher would be cut off at the end of the year because of a shortage of money. The principal was instructed to make adjustments so as to carry the program out in the best way possible. Only one thing was left to do: that was to leave this slower group in the fifth grade for another full year.

The pupils, teachers, and principal cannot be held responsible for such non-promotions when the school board fails to provide means for the proper operation of the school system.

BETTER TRAINED TEACHERS

Consolidation has meant teachers with better training. In Table 2 the school year 1923-24 was prior to the consolidation program.

The year before consolidation there were two teachers with Normal Professional Certificates, three with First Grade Certificates, two with Provisional Firsts, and three with Specials. The first year, 1924-25, found one teacher had a Normal Professional Certificate, three held the Collegiate Certificate, one held Elementary, and four held First Grade Certificates. The second year three held the Normal Professional; two had the Collegiate; three the Elementary; and three the First Grade Certificates.

TABLE 2.—CERTIFICATES HELD BY THE TEACHERS BEFORE AND AFTER CONSOLIDATION

Year	Name of Certificate					
	Provisional First Grade	First Grade	Elementary	Normal Profes- sional	Special	Collegiate
1923-24	2	3	..	2	3	..
1924-25 ¹	..	4	1	1	..	3
1925-26	..	3	3	3	..	2

¹ First year of consolidation was 1924-25.

At the present time five of the twelve teachers hold a college degree or its equivalent. This is a standard of training above that possible in the average rural school of Virginia.

THE MEASUREMENT PROGRAM

Achievement testing—In the first year only a meager start was made on the measurement of instruction and pupil progress by standard tests. The Ayres Spelling Scale was used in grades two to seven inclusive. Tests were given three times during the year, in October, January, and March. The Gettysburg Handwriting Scale was used in grades five and seven in October and March. The Courtis Research Tests in arithmetic were used in grades six and seven.

These objective data suggested the use of remedial instruction and practice drills wherever there seemed to be the greatest need. Of course, a great deal of help could not be given because of the other demands upon the time of the teachers and the principal. The children were greatly interested in the testing program, especially in the spelling. They were always eager to see the graph which showed their standing with other grades. This enthusiasm served as a fine way to motivate the work in the regular spelling, for each pupil wanted to pull his own class score up as high as possible.

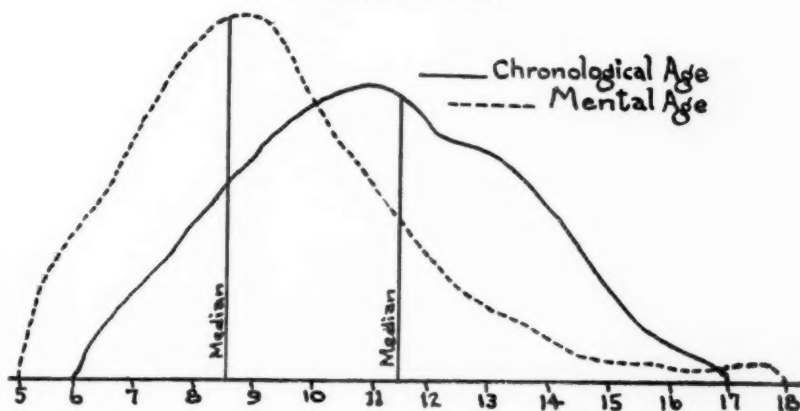
The Ayres Spelling Scale is taking the same place in the school it held the first year. Measurement in handwriting was extended to all of the four higher grades the second year. Standardization and informal tests were used in grammar in grades six and seven.

Intelligence testing—In the second year the testing program received more attention. It meant more to the school. It was a means in determining grade standing for comparative and diagnostic purposes. The first step was to determine the intelligence and mental age ratings of the pupils for comparisons with the chronological ages.

The Otis Group Intelligence Tests were used in grades two to seven inclusive. This test was given to 288 children in September, 1925. The tests showed that the median mental age for the school was 3.2 years lower than the median chronological age.

Figure 4 shows the mental age curve with its median at 8.3 years, drawn over the chronological age with its median at 11.5 years.

FIGURE 4.—COMPARISON OF MENTAL AND CHRONOLOGICAL AGES IN THE MEADOWVIEW SCHOOL



Explanation: The solid line shows the distribution of the chronological ages. The youngest and oldest children were six and seventeen years respectively. The broken line shows the distribution of the mental ages. The lowest and highest mental ages were five and eighteen years respectively.

In the third year of consolidation the Otis Group Intelligence Tests were given to the new second grade and all of the new pupils who came to the school. The testing program was extended to take in the first grade also. In it the Detroit First Grade Intelligence Test was used with wonderful results.

The data from these tests were used for classification purposes from time to time, and it was found that it was easier to place children in homogeneous working groups when due respect was given to the findings of the intelligence tests. To be sure, the common-sense judgment of the teachers was not disregarded even when the scientific data were available. One set of information was a great aid to the other.

Each test is analyzed for its diagnostic value and records are kept of both pupil and class performance. A class record sheet is used by the principal in making report to the room teachers. This sheet calls attention to the class standing in relation to the norm, and makes suggestions as to remedial instruction or special drill work that may be needed. All test scores, except those of intelligence, are shown to the pupils. In this way the testing program has helped to motivate the regular work in the classrooms and this influence is well liked by the teachers.

WORK IN SILENT READING

The informal silent reading tests, used chiefly in the upper grades, have created the most interest in the school. These are tests for speed and comprehension. They were given at regular intervals, bi-monthly. Selections previously studied from the grade readers were used at first. The true-false examination is used for a comprehension test.

Seven tests were given 15 days apart in the seventh grade, and the most striking results were exhibited. The first four tests included old prose, the fifth was old poetry, and the last two new prose selections. The average class scores are given in Table 3.

Figure 5 is read as follows: For the test given in October, 1925, the second grade average rate of silent reading was 84 words per minute; the third grade rate was 136 words; the fourth, 130 words, and so on for each grade. The tests were not given in the first grade. The requirement or standard rate for silent reading for these grades was 95 words, 125 words, and 160 words per minute, respectively. These were standards for the end of the grade.

The average of all of the rate tests given during the year is shown by the line of dashes in Figure 5. For the second grade it is 95 words, third grade 126 words, fourth grade 146 words per minute, respectively. It may seem that the average rate for the fifth grade is too high. Yet on any type of test, oral, informal, or standardized, this group of children would excel the requirement in the rate of reading. When it came to the comprehension test this fifth grade made a high average every time. As pointed out in another connection the slower pupils had been left behind in the fourth grade the year before.

FIGURE 5.—RATE SCORES IN SILENT READING IN 1925-26

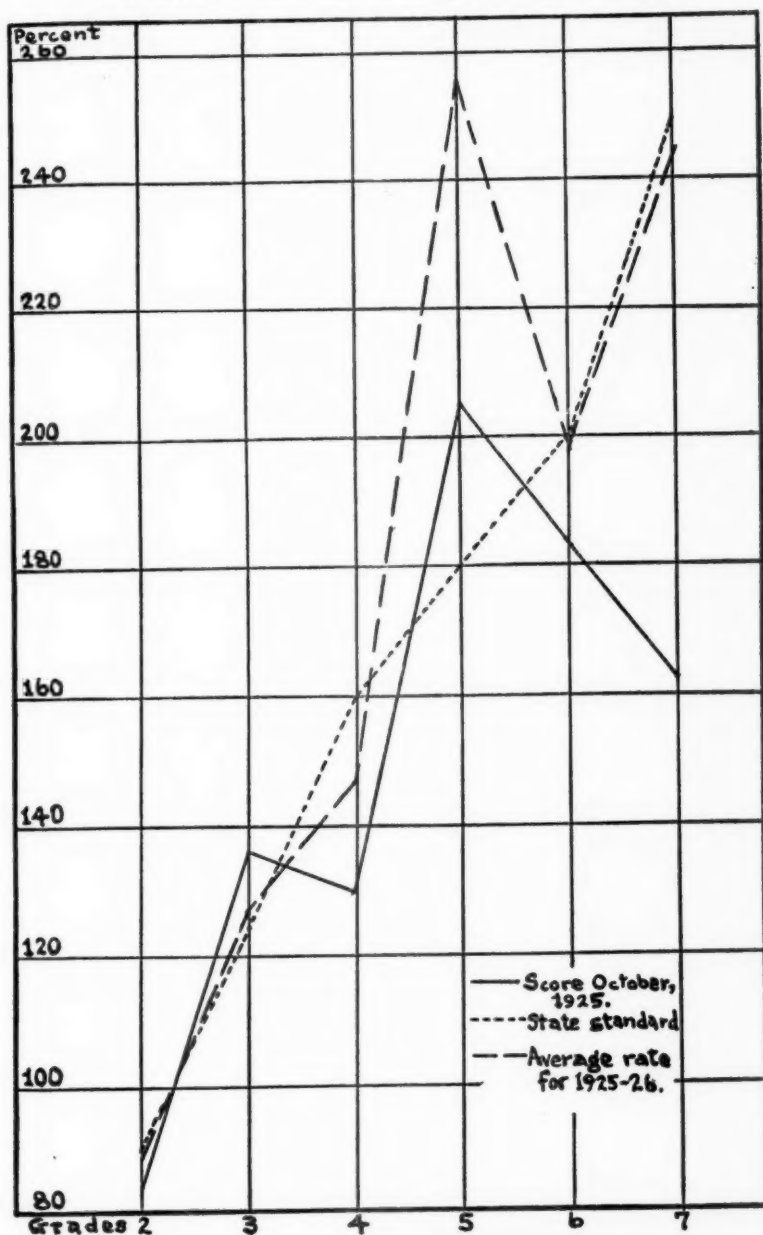


TABLE 3.—AVERAGE CLASS SCORES IN READING TESTS

	Test 1	Test 2	Test 3	Test 4	Test 5	Test 6	Test 7
Speed	163	226	244	269	247	269	209
Comprehension ...	5	8.2	9.5	10.5	5.6	9.2	11.6

The average speed for the class for all seven tests was above 232 words per minute. The Virginia course of study sets the speed norm for silent reading at 250 words per minute. On this basis the seventh grade had a rating of 92.8 percent at the end of the first semester in February, 1926.

For the comprehension score the state norm is 9.7 points. The composite class mean is 8.5, which is a rating of 87.6 percent. This is a gain of 36.1 percent over the first comprehension test score.

Table 4 summarizes many of the advantages of consolidation.

TABLE 4.—SCHOOL IMPROVEMENTS DURING THE YEARS AFTER CONSOLIDATION

Improvement	Years ¹			
	1923-24	1924-25	1925-26	1926-27
1. Better attendance (percent).....	85.4	90.8	89.3	93.2 ²
2. More promotions (percent).....	48.8	66.6	83.9	90.2
Not promoted (percent).....	51.2	33.4	16.1	9.8
3. Cost on repeaters (percent).....		35.7	26.5	10.45
4. Fewer pupils per teacher (average)..	47.9	37.6	31.8	30.0
5. Teachers with more years of experience (average)	3.9	5.7	8.09	7.09
6. Better monthly salaries for teachers.	\$70.00	\$92.77	\$94.54	\$96.81
7. Number of pupils transported.....	None	190	201	212

¹ The first year of consolidation was in 1924-25.

² First half year average.

The cost of transporting 190 pupils was \$1,710 for the school year 1924-25. The cost for 1925-26 amounted to \$2,433 for hauling over two hundred children. For 1926-27 it was \$1,760.87 for hauling two hundred and twelve pupils. The increase of the second year was caused by extending the bus routes over greater distances.

The other outstanding advantages of consolidation are the following:

1. Better building and equipment
2. An increase in the school term from 8.1 months to 9 months. The average for Virginia was 8.05 months last year
3. The pupils receive more individual instruction, for teachers have fewer grades and children per room
4. It brought into the school more scientific supervision
5. It has made supervised study in the classroom possible
6. It has made measurement of pupil progress and instruction a reality for comparative and diagnostic purposes
7. It makes playground supervision possible, and trains children in better discipline.

CHAPTER XVIII

A STUDY ON THE SEATING OF THE KINDERGARTEN AND THE PRIMARY GRADES

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THE PROPER SEATING of school children of the primary grades is a problem which has been the basis of some study, much conjecture, and no little confusion of opinion. Especially is this true of the upper primary grades. This diversity of opinion is perhaps due to the lack of agreement in the various standards set forth, to which good seating should conform. In the past the factors determining proper seating were considered in the light of cost, economy, depreciation, posture, and sanitation. These are very important criteria, to be sure, but there are also necessary and important educational and instructional conveniences and features which should certainly be included with these standards to make for the best seating obtainable. Our advance in teaching technic is being reflected in the type of furniture required for various grades and educational purposes. Heretofore standards referred to individual seats rather than types of seating.

To evaluate a type of seating, then, requires a set of criteria as a test for any type of seat or seating proposed. The following discusses some of the more important of these standards as applied to the primary grade classrooms.

STANDARDS OF SEATING PRIMARY GRADES

I. Educational and instructional factors involved in the seating of primary children:

1. Adaptability of the seating to *informal* and *socialized* work; work carried on more or less independently of other groups and individuals in the class, and work requiring group coöperation and a unitary focus of the class.
2. Adaptability to group instruction—*i. e.*, several kinds of work carried on at the same time with frequent shifting of teacher supervision and control.
3. Adaptability to activities of a constructive and manipulative nature, such as painting, pasting, cutting, where ample desk room is necessary.
4. Availability of free floor space for dramatic, project, and play activities found in the primary school—Mobility.

5. Adaptability to the satisfactory use of modern materials such as large paper for poster work, large sets for silent reading, large booklets for instruction in primary reading, writing, and arithmetic.
6. Adaptability to the young child's need for freedom of movement in the seat.
7. Possibility of making the room serve multiple purposes such as library, gymnasium, music room.
8. Possibility of making the room beautiful and more homelike.
9. Provision for the storing of materials.
- II. Factors involving hygiene, sanitation, and safety:
 1. Necessity of individual seating to lessen spread of contagion, colds, that come from seating pupils too close together or facing one another.
 2. Adjustability of the seating to the constantly shifting lights.
 3. Adjustability to correct posture of each child with little or no constant change.
 4. The ease and thoroughness with which the floors can be cleaned (absence of dust and dirt accumulation on floors or in seat crevices).
 5. The lack of noise and disturbance in getting in and out of seat or in shifting the pupil's position. (Stability of the seat also involved.)
 6. The absence of interference of seats during fire or panic scares (chairs not easily tipped over, etc.)
- III. Factors involving cost, depreciation, and administrative use:
 1. Low initial cost.
 2. Slow depreciation of seats.
 3. Seating in relation to destruction to floors. (Screw holes, scratching, gouging caused by sliding furniture.)
 4. Adaptability of the type of seating to crowded room conditions within the building (exchange of seats from room to room or from one school to another).
 5. Adaptability to community use of the rooms for auditorium purposes.
 6. Avoidance of carrying emergency stocks of idle seating equipment to avoid removing unused seats in other rooms.
 7. Cost of installation of furniture in the room.

There are doubtless other standards which should not be omitted in considering the best type of seats and seating in these grades, such as finish, construction, and ink wells, which factors are more or less readily included in the above. There exists overlapping among these various factors and other methods of classifying them which may not be germane to the problem. Again some standards may be constant for any particular grade, whereas others may depend upon the different lines of work offered in the separate grades, or be peculiar to a certain grade. These factors vary considerably in relative importance depending upon one's viewpoint. The answer to many such questions is dependent upon experimental basis rather than upon solution by opinion.

TABULATION OF RESULTS

Our data were taken from the individual and consolidated opinion of various school superintendents, assistant superintendents, building

superintendents, primary supervisors, primary classroom teachers, and elementary school principals, tabulated from a questionnaire itemizing these standards, so that each standard would be considered apart from the rest and in each primary grade separately. Even such universal opinion cannot yield the final word to the solution of a problem of this nature but can surely furnish material, valid as well as interesting, to school executives.

Replies to the questionnaire brought out various limitations which were partly due to the gathering of information in this way and partly to faults in the questionnaire itself—its necessary length and lack of clearness of directions for answering. In the course of tabulation it was found that, to some, a certain type of seating was preferable in regard to every single standard for one grade, but not so on these same standards for another grade, showing that when general preference for a particular type of seating was made, these standards were not applied to that type of seating, free from the bias of other standards. For instance, tables and chairs were preferred to chair-desks in the second grade from the standpoint of adaptability to community uses of the room, while in the third grade chair-desks were preferred on the same account. Inconsistencies of this type were not frequent.

Three types of seating were considered, the adjustable fixed seats, the movable chair-desks, and tables and chairs (two pupils to a table). A comparison of these types was confined to the best type of each; not a comparison of the fixed seat ordinarily found in the classroom with the best kind of movable chair-desk or table. By movable chair-desk is meant that type of seat which has an adjustable desk top (not armchair top) adjustable for height and slant, of construction and manufacture as rugged as possible—conforming to the latest demands of hygiene, posture, and mobility.

These three types of seating were scored with reference to each standard for each grade. If fixed seats were preferred in the third grade over movable chair-desks or tables and chairs on the basis of "slow depreciation," then it was scored "1" in the appropriate column, the next best type "2," and the type least valued on this basis "3." The total value of each standard for each type of seating was found by grades. (See Table 1.) The type having the lowest score in each standard was the one preferred for that grade. (See figures which are starred.)

For convenience these scores could be made more easily comparable by dividing the scores of second and third preferences in any one grade by the score on the first preference. This is not given here.

On tabulating results sent in by (1) classroom teachers of primary grades, (2) principals, and (3) other school executives separately, fairly complete agreement between these groups was found with respect to general preferences.

Supervisors and administrative officers favor tables and chairs in the kindergarten, first, and second grades, with movable chair-desks optional in the second grade. In the third grade the choice is movable chair-desks with tables and chairs almost equally adaptable.

TABLE 1.—TOTAL SCORES FROM TABULATION OF QUESTIONNAIRES *

Educational and Instructional	Fixed Seats Grades				Movable Chair-Desks Grades				Tables and Chairs Grades			
	Kdg.	1	2	3	Kdg.	1	2	3	Kdg.	1	2	3
I. Factors Involved in Seating Primary Children.												
1. Adaptability to informal or socialized work	185	180	185	177	180	134	116	102	64*	67*	78*	97*
2. Adaptability to group instruction	182	177	173	168	128	132	110	93*	67*	80*	89*	107
3. Adaptability to construction and manipulation activities ...	178	180	176	166	127	126	119	111	65*	69*	82*	93*
4. Free floor space for dramatic, project and play activities	182	179	181	182	127	104	108	93*	66*	76*	85*	93*
5. Adaptability to use of modern materials ...	180	173	172	163	128	120	118	112	65*	75*	86*	101*
6. Adaptability to child's need for freedom in seat	180	175	170	163	133	127	130	158	62*	68*	82*	94*
7. Possibility for making room beautiful	183	177	176	168	134	119	117	115	66*	65*	76*	87*
8. Making room serve as library, gym., laboratory, etc.	184	186	188	182	129	120	112	108	63*	66*	75*	83*
Total	1454	1424	1421	1369	1036	982	930	891	513*	566*	652*	755*
II. Safety, Hygiene and Physical Factors.												
1. With reference to hygiene and sanitation.	164	159	161	153	105	103	99	92*	66*	77*	88*	92*
2. Efficient cleaning of floors	172	169	174	171	116	99	106	101	63*	72*	76*	80*
3. Adjustability to lights.	176	175	180	181	107	94	80*	83*	68*	82*	91	101
4. Adjustability to posture	139	144	153	147	104	94*	90*	84*	84*	104	109	121
5. Lack of noise	94*	85*	80*	79*	123	122	125	122	124	133	146	149
6. Absence of interference during panic..	80*	79*	78*	76*	126	124	134	126	130	147	148	159
Total	825	811	810	807	681	636	643*	608*	535*	615*	658	702
III. Economy and Administrative Factors.												
1. Initial cost	53	42*	44*	46*	60	60	55	54	51*	61	56	60
2. Slow depreciation	69	68	65	64	63	51	51	48	42*	39*	39*	43*
3. Absence of destruction to floors	77	71	72	67	52*	51*	49*	46*	57	66	68	68
4. Adaptability to crowded room conditions	80	87	86	83	46	48	43*	41*	43*	47*	47	47
5. Avoidance of idle seating	84	86	89	86	49	49	46	45*	39*	42*	45*	45*
6. Adaptability to community uses of room.												
Total	363	354	356	346	270	259*	244*	234*	232*	285	255	263

* Low scores indicate preferences.

Principals of elementary schools showed decided preference for tables and chairs in the kindergarten and first grade with the same preference in the second grade and were evenly divided between tables and chairs and movable chair-desks in the third grade.

Primary classroom teachers favor tables and chairs in the kindergarten and grades one and two, and movable chair-desks in the third grade with tables and chairs a close second. These decisions did not include the significance of the third group of factors, those relating to economy and administrative uses of furniture.

On the basis of the first 14 factors (educational and safety and hygiene) the principals' choice is tables and chairs in all four rooms, with chair-desks a close second in the third grade. The teachers choose tables and chairs in kindergarten and grades 1 and 2, with movable chair-desks in the third grade. Superintendents and other school executives choose tables and chairs in all grades with movable chair-desks equally as good in the third grade.

DISCUSSION AND ANALYSIS OF THE CHOICE OF SEATING ON EACH STANDARD AS GIVEN BY THE QUESTIONNAIRE

I. EDUCATIONAL AND INSTRUCTIONAL FACTORS

Adaptability to informal and socialized work and group instruction—For these purposes the choice of tables and chairs was made for the kindergarten and grades 1, 2, and 3, except that, for group work in the third grade, movable chair-desks were favored. Fixed seats received the poorest score indicating little relative adaptability to these factors in the opinion of those returning the questionnaire.

To this choice one may agree with the following observations taken from H. E. Bennett's discussions.¹ He indicates that where large tables are used, and pupils are facing in various directions, or working in groups unrelated to pedagogical requirements, the practicable ideals of informal socialized instruction are often defeated, while they are also unfavorable to individual concentration.

As for group instruction, seating must be adaptable to groups of varying sizes, from two pupils to a large fraction of the whole class, without interfering with individual concentration or study. For this latter reason double seating was abandoned years ago. Small groups are determined by the necessities of instruction and not the furniture. "Group instruction is sound pedagogy but only if the grouping

¹ Bennett, H. E. References 4 and 5 at the end of this chapter.

is flexible." Individual movable seating is capable of any combinations for group teaching, whereas fixed seats are inflexible and tables and chairs, unless individual, have certain handicaps. Movable furniture arranged for group teaching must be arranged with due regard for individual light conditions.

For socialized recitation purposes a unitary arrangement of individual seats, as proposed by Bennett,² furnishes a unitary focus for the pupils, a clear view of all the pupils by the teacher, and an unobstructed view for the pupils of the blackboard and activity center of the room. Here, proper conditions of lighting, egress from the room and many other conveniences are offered to individual pupils as well as to the class as a whole.

These factors mentioned above have greater relevancy in the higher grades, second and third, than for the kindergarten, first and second B grades, due to curriculum and activity differences between these grades.

Adaptability to construction and manipulation activities—Tables and chairs are again favored for all primary grades. This choice seems perfectly logical especially as these activities require more table or desk room than is offered by the average fixed seat or movable chair-desk. Such project work requires the coöperation of several students; tables and chairs may be indispensable. Our own recommendation is that two or three tables with chairs be provided in each room as extra equipment regardless of the type of seating for class purposes.

Free floor space for activities—In the kindergarten and grades one and two, tables and chairs are preferred, with movable chair-desks equally good in the third grade.

It is not clear why a purely physical situation, like available floor space, determined by the size of the room and the square feet occupied by any type of seating, should vary from the second to the third grade with any one kind of seating. A table with two chairs really requires from 10 percent to 20 percent more floor area than two fixed seats or two chair-desks, all designed for the same size pupils. Unless estimates are made with the chairs placed on top of the table or underneath, in which position the area per pupil is about the same for any type of seating.

Adaptability to the use of modern materials for instruction—In all these grades, tables and chairs are better adapted to this requirement than chair-desks or fixed seats by virtue of their larger desk

² Bennett, H. E. "Seating Arrangements in the Classroom." *American School Board Journal* 73: 45-6; July, 1926.

surface. This factor should perhaps be placed with the discussion under adaptability to construction activities.

Adaptability to the child's need for freedom in the seat—Tables and chairs were chosen in all grades—as they offer a greater variety of possible positions than either the fixed seat or movable chair-desk to a small child who quickly tires in any one position. This freedom may be perfectly legitimate in so far as it does not interfere with the formation of the proper posture habits so important to the growing child. It perhaps does not do so in the kindergarten and first grade where the child is seated in his chair at a table only for very short intervals, the rest of the time being occupied in the various activities of these grades which do not require sitting. However, in the second and, more particularly, in the third grades where there is usually more seat work, a type of seating is made necessary which will correct as well as maintain as far as possible good posture. (See Standard II-4.) Freedom of movement should not interfere with the study of others seated at the same table—especially in writing periods. This will obtain in the second and also the third grade. Individual seating is a necessity in this type of work.

Making the room beautiful and homelike—Tables and chairs are considered more fitted to do this than the other types of seating. If the “informality” of the seating arrangement does not interfere with the individual lighting and hygienic requirements, or if care is taken not to injure table tops by placing chairs on them, we have no objection to this argument or choice.

Possibility of making the rooms serve as library and so forth—Tables and chairs were given the best rating in all these grades—to which may be added: tables and chairs when the room is used for library and laboratory work, but chair-desks where gymnasium playroom, or music purposes are to be served.

Provision for storing materials was not placed in the list of standards in the questionnaire. In tables furnished with drawers the only objection is the necessity of moving the chair in pulling out the drawer with its attendant noise and necessary readjustment for correct posture. In the movable chair-desk the pupil's weight serves to keep the chair from moving when he opens the drawer, which is under the seat. In some of the later types of chair-desks this book compartment is placed on the side of the desk part, the cover being integral with the desk top when closed.

Totaling the scores of all these instructional factors for each grade, indicates that tables and chairs are preferred for the kindergarten and first three grades.

It would seem that better all-round adaptability could be attained by the use of tables and chairs in the kindergarten and first grade, with movable chair-desks and a few tables and chairs in the second and third grades.

II. PHYSICAL SAFETY AND HYGIENIC FACTORS

Hygienic and sanitary factors—Scores show preference for tables and chairs in kindergarten, first, and second grades, with movable chair-desks equally good in the third grade. To the extent that such factors depend upon how much longer pupils are seated in one grade than in another, this preference is logical, though on the basis of this standard alone we would expect the scorers to prefer one type throughout these grades.

Generally speaking, individualized seating is always preferable from a hygienic standpoint. Coughing in one another's faces, increasing chances of contagion, may be considerably minimized by individual seating. This objection directed against tables and chairs does not hold where pupils are placed on one side of the table only.

Ease and thoroughness with which the floors can be cleaned—The choice of school men and teachers is tables and chairs. The superiority in these respects of movable furniture over fixed needs no explanation. It should be added that many janitors object to the lifting of chairs (practice of placing chairs on tables when sweeping) on the basis of time necessary to prepare the room for sweeping. However valid this objection may be, it points to very little choice between tables and chairs and movable chair-desks when considering ease and thoroughness of sweeping. The practice of placing chairs on table tops for any purposes is destructive to the tops and perhaps is unsanitary.

Adjustability to constantly shifting lights—In the kindergarten and first grade the preference is for tables and chairs and for movable chair-desks in the second and third grades. This physical relationship is not dependent upon the grade in which the furniture is used, all-round preference of tables and chairs in the kindergarten and first grade influencing the scoring on this standard.

Proper lighting for each pupil depends upon the pupil's position with respect to the window. The usual position of seats in a classroom furnishes a good optical average for the class but about half of its members are bothered by the glare which comes from the windows on the left. The intensity of the light from the windows is greater than that coming from the blackboard. The only correct solution is the adjustment of the individual pupil's position to the best

angle of light incidence. This requires individual seating. Fixed seats may be made a little more adaptable to this requirement of lighting, if they are of the swivel type, but this does not better conditions greatly. The placing of each fixed seat in the position of proper light incident (see Bennett's "Quadrant Plan") for each individual works considerably better but does not provide for the shifting of the light angle. Of course, artificial lighting of the best type may avoid some of the obstacles to good natural lighting.

With tables and chairs greater flexibility toward adjustment to light conditions may be had—but the flexibility is limited by the proximity of the two pupils sitting at the same table. The use of larger tables seating 8 or 12 pupils, with some facing each other, provides the poorest lighting conditions of any type of seating and should not be considered. Movable chair-desks are the most completely adjustable to proper lighting of any type.

The above discussion has greater import in the second and third grades than in the kindergarten or first grades because of the relatively short time spent in seats in these latter grades.

Adjustability to correct posture—The questionnaire findings show a choice of movable chair-desks in first, second, and third grades, and of tables and chairs in the kindergarten. It is our opinion that the improved types of fixed seats and movable chair-desks are both superior to tables and chairs; the fixed seat, by its adjustable seat and desk heights and desk slope; the chair-desk, by its correct adjustment between desk height and seat height. Just as important is the relative position between the knee-edge of the seat and the inside edge of the desk. A proper plus distance¹ is essential for correct posture, and with proper desk and seat height, desk slope, and plus distance, correct posture is induced with very little attention on the part of the pupil and a minimum of insistence on the part of the teacher. Attention to the posture habits of pupils in the second and third grades, where a large part of the time is spent in seats, is one of the important tasks of the teacher, and has received less recognition, perhaps, than some other things of less importance to the health of the growing child. Table and chairs may serve with little objection in the modern kindergarten and first grade in this respect, though, for the second and third grades, the time and trouble necessary to keep the tables and chairs in the proper relative positions militate against their use in these grades.

¹How to find the plus distance: drop a vertical line from inside edge of the desk and another vertical line from the knee-edge of the seat. Measure the distance between these lines.

Lack of noise—The choice falls upon fixed seat for all the grades. Even in the customary fixed seat the noise of getting in and out is less than with tables and chairs, unless the latter are rubber-tipped.

Absence of interference during panic and fire scares—Fixed seats again chosen, with chair-desk second, and tables and chairs last, due, no doubt, to the multiplication of pieces of furniture and instability in the latter two.

A consideration of all the standards in II shows a preference for tables and chairs in the kindergarten and first grade, with movable chair-desks in the second and third grades.

III. ECONOMY AND ADMINISTRATIVE FACTORS

Low initial cost—This item could not be answered by the scorers with the definiteness with which it could be determined from other sources.

Good tables and chairs for these grades (two pupils to a table) cost about \$7 per pupil; movable chair-desks with drawers from \$6.15 to \$9.75; and fixed desks from \$4.50 to \$5.50, depending upon type of each kind. In Flint we pay \$14 for a table and two kindergarten chairs, \$6.15 for one type of movable chair-desk with drawer, \$9.75 for another type, and \$4.45 for the present type of traditional fixed seat.

Educational service is more important, however, than initial cost, though large differences in cost and depreciation will often decide the type of seating to be purchased. From all indications the movable chair-desk would seem to meet all the ideals of economy and educational service better than the other types of seating for classroom purposes above the second grade.

Slow depreciation—Table and chairs for the kindergarten and fixed seats for grades 1, 2, 3 were the preferences in the replies. This factor, in view of the usual guarantee by seating companies, leaves little choice. The temptation of placing chairs on table tops may cause more or less rapid deterioration of its surface—but matters of slow depreciation should be determined on an experimental basis.

Absence of destruction to floors—Here tables and chairs are preferred in all primary grades. It is easily granted that fixed furniture causes more destruction to the floors, in the event of changing the seating arrangement through the many necessary screw holes. Movable furniture may also injure good flooring unless suitable provision is made for easy sliding. Metal gliders allow easy sliding back and forth, but our floors show the lines and dents to some extent. This is minimized by the use of rubber tips made of old tire casings, but in that case the furniture must be lifted to move it properly.

Adaptability to crowded conditions of rooms—In rapidly growing schools and school systems where large classes are often necessary, the use of movable individual seating is more adaptable than the other types. This is the decision of those answering the questionnaire.

The avoidance of large stocks of idle or emergency seats—Equipment for the above purposes favors the use of movable seating. From the returns, tables and chairs in the kindergarten and first grade, and movable chair-desks in the second and third grades are favored.

The very important point of cost of installation and moving was not brought out. This would favor movable furniture in avoiding the cost of screwing down and removing the seats from the floor.

Adaptability to community uses of the room and building—Tables and chairs were given first choice in the kindergarten and the first two grades with equal adaptability of chair-desks in the third grade. This standard resembles that under I-7, "Use of the room as library, gymnasium, laboratory, music room, and club room." It seems that for some purposes the chairs alone would serve better in this capacity than the chair-desks.

Combining the factors under economy and administrative uses, tables and chairs are favored for the kindergarten, and movable chair-desks for the first, second, and third grades.

CONCLUSIONS

Taking all these standards into consideration, there is a marked preference for the use of tables and chairs in the kindergarten and first grade, but this preference is a little less decided in the second grade and not a few would choose movable chair-desks for the third grade. Several large cities have already established a policy of using tables and chairs for the kindergarten and first grade, and movable chair-desks for the second and third grades.

The results taken from individual questionnaires suggest that teachers and principals judge these types of seating from one or two educational or instructional factors, rather than from a consideration of all these factors and the extent to which any type of seating does embody the largest number of them. It should also be mentioned that some school systems favor tables and chairs for all ordinary classroom purposes, from the kindergarten through the high school. This seems to be the choice of many professors of education, who have had to do with all types.

In view of *all* the factors and opinions mentioned, it seems advisable to use tables and chairs in the kindergarten and first grade, where the predominant activities of the children are of a constructive and

manipulative type, and to use movable chair-desks for all other ordinary classroom purposes, where posture habits are being rapidly formed and individual concentration is important to the formation of right study habits, and matters of lighting, hygiene, sanitation, and multiple use of school furniture are to be taken into consideration.

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IT IS A FAR CRY from the log of Mark Hopkins to a modern school building, and yet universal education today is much more cheaply provided than it could be provided under the old log plan with one teacher for one pupil. Democracy's demand for universal education has been met through developing a school plant where both quality and quantity in education are possible. Education costs more today than it used to cost because we have more of it, much more of it. Economy in future school building programs is to be served through providing buildings, grounds, and equipment adapted to the needs of a modern program of education.—Joseph Marr Gwinn, *Official Report*, Department of Superintendence, 1929, p. 32.

CHAPTER XIX

A COMPREHENSIVE PLAN FOR MAKING A STATE CENSUS OF SCHOOL CHILDREN¹

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EVERY TEN YEARS the federal government takes a complete census of the population of the United States. This census not only enumerates every man, woman, and child, but collects voluminous economic and social data regarding age, nationality, employment, schooling, and similar items. Any additional registration through a school census is justifiable only for the purpose of collecting very definite information needed by and used directly in the public schools of the state. The purpose of the California school census is to enable the school authorities to place suitably and keep in school all children of school age, thus securing to them their rightful educational opportunities.

Briefly, the provisions and procedures under the present California Registration of Minors Act are as follows:

Registration of every child from one day to 18 years of age must be taken regularly every three years except in such districts as maintain a yearly or a continuous census. Responsibility is placed on the governing board of each elementary school district, to appoint and pay a registrar and his assistants according to provisions of the act. The state superintendent of public instruction provides suitable blanks for recording the information deemed necessary in securing proper educational advantages for the children of the state. Parents and guardians are instructed by the law to furnish the required information, but there are no specific penalties for failure to do so. The district reports are filed with the county superintendent of each county, who furnishes a summary to the state superintendent.

¹The plan discussed in this article has been approved by the Los Angeles Elementary School Principals' Club and the legislative committee of the California Elementary Principals' Association. The proposed California plan has points which will be helpful to principals faced with school census problems in other states.—*Editor*.

The law has three serious defects which tend to nullify its effectiveness:

(1) *It fails to provide a complete, uniform method of administration*—Since this act became a law in 1927, the census information has been compiled in a variety of ways throughout the state. Some school districts have paid special agents so much for each name noted. These districts secured a registration of practically every child, but were not always able to get full and accurate information. Some districts employed agents by the day. Such agents apparently failed to record as many names or secure as complete data as those who were paid on a per capita basis. Other districts attempted to get their information without the expenditure of additional money for registrars. In such districts, the census was taken by having the school children carry home the registration blanks, by questioning the children at school, or by asking parents to come to the schoolhouse. It is obvious that parents who are deliberately keeping their children out of school will not furnish the required information voluntarily, and that this method can never be relied on to secure complete registration. Thus, inadequate methods of administration have defeated the purpose of the law.

(2) *The extent and kind of information to be collected is not prescribed*—The law does not specify the kind of facts that may be called for, nor the number of questions that may be asked in any one case. Hence, a complicated record was adopted which made the registration in the state excessively difficult and the tabulation unavoidably inaccurate and misleading. The present blank calls for data on 40 items for each child. Few of these items were selected for their practical use to the schools attended by the children. Nor are they reliable in the aggregate for use by state and county administrative units. For example, the state report shows exactly twice as many fathers and twice as many mothers as there are children in the state. A family registering six children would count as 36 in the total sum of the final compilation.

(3) *The law assures the availability of census information to central administrative offices, but does not provide for its record in each school unit*—Every elementary school could use the school census data in diagnosing individual needs, classifying pupil and similar work. Under the existing law the volume of work in duplicating these records is so great that few schools retained this information for their own use.

The situation in Los Angeles City illustrates this point. In 1927, our system attempted to comply with the requirements of the state

office as indicated on the new census blank. Our aim was to make a complete registration throughout the city school district. No special agents were engaged to compile the data, but the principal of each school, elementary or secondary, was made responsible for obtaining the information regarding his own pupils and such others not in school as he might hear about. This resulted in considerable duplication of the records. The bulk of the work fell on the classroom teachers. As all information had to be collected within a given week, it was necessary for teachers to use school time as well as out of school hours. In 252 elementary schools reporting to the Principals' Club on this point, 16,244 hours of teacher time were thus consumed during that week, and 3,171 hours of principal and vice-principal time, an average expenditure per day of 3,883 hours, by far the greater part of which should have been devoted to instructional purposes.

Carrying through this extra burden while maintaining school was so arduous that few were able to duplicate the clerical work required to transcribe the data on school files. Although 189 out of 252 principals expressed a desire to have this record permanently in their respective offices, only three of them had been able to secure it.

The elementary school principals of Los Angeles recognized clearly these inherent weaknesses of the law. They were dissatisfied with its administration, and with the results as manifested throughout the schools. Much time had been lost, teachers had been overworked, and the gain to the individual school was negligible.

One hundred and five principals stated that they had acquired from the school census a better understanding of their districts. One hundred and ten principals felt that their teachers had evidenced a better understanding of the community's educational problems. Both of these groups were balanced by approximately an equal number of principals who recognized no such gain. The disorganization of school work through the deflection of teachers from classroom work was evident for a much longer period than the one week designated for census taking.

The most serious dissatisfaction of the principals lay in their desire for an accurate, complete, continuing census, and their belief that existing conditions prevented them from fulfilling a personal obligation to maintain the census.

Early in November the principals, through their club organization, decided to study the matter of school census in the United States. It was hoped that greater efficiency of administration could be de-

vised and, if necessary, that certain changes might be found advisable in existing legislation. The latter possibility was a significant factor in placing the problem in the hands of the legislative committee.

The committee prepared four questionnaires: One to departments of education in every state of the union; one to city superintendents in cities of 25,000 population or over, outside of California; one to rural school principals in 11 counties of California selected as having difficult attendance problems caused by a transient population; and one to every elementary principal in the Los Angeles city school system. These questionnaires sought information on such subjects as: The school census laws in other states; the administrative methods employed in enforcing these laws; the educational gain or loss due to information collected in the school census; suggestions as to the practical use of census facts; and any constructive criticism or ideas applicable to our California situation.

Responses were obtained from 33 states, 165 city superintendents, 324 country school principals, and 252 Los Angeles principals. The majority of these reports were carefully and completely filled out. Twenty-five of the 30 states reporting a school census law sent copies of the requirements and the state report blank. Samples of census cards, transfer blanks, and other child accounting forms were received from 124 cities. A number of city superintendents expressed their interest and offered to give further help. Many principals were generous of time and thought in sending the committee criticisms and constructive suggestions.

In addition to sending out the questionnaires, the committee arranged for discussions by a group of local school officials. Originally, the group included only five persons, but was expanded to include 25 principals chosen for their standing and experience. To this group were added county and city supervisors of attendance.

The study of the questionnaires and subsequent discussion by many administrators resulted in the formation of certain basic principles:

1. A school census is necessary if compulsory school attendance is to be enforced.
2. The school census must be so authorized by law and so administered in practice as to be complete, accurate, and always up-to-date during the school year.
3. A school census is not adequate when taken at the schoolhouse from children who come there to enroll. Nor is it good practice to rely exclusively on information furnished by or through children. The only adequate method is a house-to-house canvass, made at regu-

lar and frequent intervals. The frequency of taking the census will vary with the district, but it must be often enough to register the transient population.

4. The school census should not be imposed upon the busy classroom teacher. It should be cared for by competent agents who are paid for their time.

5. The whole state must be continuously covered by the school census. Duplication of effort should be eliminated as far as possible through a system of state transfers.

6. The information asked for by school census forms should be definite, and designed to meet specific educational and administrative purposes.

7. Since the information gathered by the census is of primary importance to many school workers, it should be tabulated so as to be readily accessible, and a copy filed in each school.

8. Record forms should be as simple and practical as possible. Provision should be made for the necessary clerical work.

With these principles in mind, a comprehensive plan was drawn up to include certain important features: (a) a scheme for taking, recording, and filing the census information for practical use; (b) a combination and simplification of all child accounting forms used in the elementary schools; and (c) a system of state transfers.

School administration is facilitated by noting the census facts about the children in one family on a single family card. Not only are such family cards of more value to the office of the school, but they increase the ease and speed of taking the census. In the elementary schools these family cards give clues to the educational and social needs of the child, which are influenced in part by the home environment.

Certain data, pertinent to the educational needs of the individual child, should be matters of permanent record, which accompany the child from teacher to teacher. Such cards help the new teacher to diagnose the child's specific needs and to place the child accordingly. These needs can be met by a personnel card for each child, which may be made out in part from census information on the family card and in part from other cumulative schools records.

A transfer card, in the ordinary acceptance of the term, is unnecessary. The attendance teacher should discover promptly a child moving into any locality in the state. The child will be placed in school, the necessary social information recorded on the family card, and school administration facilitated, if the child carries a statement as

from the elementary principal responsible for registration of miners in the district where said pupil lives.

from the elementary principal responsible for registration of miners in the district where said pupil lives.

from the elementary principal responsible for registration of miners in the district where said pupil lives.

from the elementary principal responsible for registration of miners in the district where said pupil lives.

from the elementary principal responsible for registration of miners in the district where said pupil lives.

from the elementary principal responsible for registration of miners in the district where said pupil lives.

from the elementary principal responsible for registration of miners in the district where said pupil lives.

FORM 5

UTOPIA CITY SCHOOLS
IDENTIFICATION CARD FOR PUPILS

Name of pupil.....

Date of leaving.....

Grade placement.....

School.....City

Mail address of school.....

Principal's signature.....

FORM 6

UTOPIA CITY SCHOOLS
REQUEST FOR TRANSCRIPT

Name of pupil.....

was admitted to our school on.....19....

He (claims) last attendance in your school. Will you kindly
She (shows records of)

send the permanent record card?

Principal

School.....City

Mail address.....

of the proposed plan, together with directions for using the record forms are as follows:

1. The census shall be taken at the opening of school and be kept up-to-date thereafter under the immediate direction of the public elementary school principal who shall be responsible for having on file in his office throughout the entire school term the required data for the district definitely assigned to his supervision.

2. The actual work shall be done by an attendance teacher, or teachers, assigned to the elementary school as a regular part of its faculty for full time, part-time, or continuation time, as the needs of the district warrant.

3. The duties of this attendance teacher shall be divided between office work and field work. The office work shall include the keeping of the census file and the making of required statistical reports. The field work shall include home visitation for the taking of the census and for other attendance problems.

4. In any large administrative unit, a central attendance office may be established for general supervision in attendance matters after the manner of the supervisory departments, such as music and drawing. If necessary, duplicate records may be kept at this central office.

5. Each family, or part of a family, living for a period of a week or longer in any public elementary school district and including a minor or minors under eighteen years of age shall be enrolled by the attendance teacher for that district on the form prescribed by the state, and this form shall then be filed permanently in the office of that school.

6. Every school principal in the state shall have on file in his office an individual card, using the form prescribed by the state for every pupil enrolled in his school. This individual card is to be kept in the school office during the time that the child is a member of the school. Each private school principal shall be responsible for this to the public city or county superintendent in whose district said private school is located and the file of individual cards shall at all times be open to the inspection of said superintendent of that district.

7. A pupil who leaves a given school shall take with him an identification transfer card stating the name of the school he has been attending. In the case of an entering pupil who has attended previously another school in California, his individual card shall be requested from and sent by the school last attended. Where the form cannot be secured thus, it may be requested from and shall be filled out and sent by the public elementary school principal in whose district the pupil is living at that time.

The California legislature meets in the spring of 1929, but we are taking no active steps to prepare our plan for consideration at this session. We believe that a law that is not understood and not accepted willingly has little chance of success. Our plan is not generally understood, because it is a radical change from present methods. We hope during the next two years to make its underlying principles understood throughout the state. Then, if the plan becomes a law, it will enlist the intelligent support of school administrators, to the end that an accurate, complete, continuous school census in California may become a reality.¹

¹ In connection with this topic attention is called to "School Records and Reports," *Research Bulletin*, Vol. 5, No. 5, National Education Association, pp. 262-66.—Editor.

CHAPTER XX

CLERICAL SERVICE IN CITY SCHOOL SYSTEMS

LOUISE H. HENDERSON

President, Clerical Assistants' Association, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

SOMEONE has said: "Education today involves statistics more and more, and those serried columns of figures that characterize the papers of educational experts are based on the humble labors of school clerks."

Each group in the school system is directly dependent on every other group. It is hardly possible to compare the groups as to their relative value in the system. Each plays an important part and must be specially trained for its type of work. The salary must be sufficient to attract persons with the necessary training and best personal qualifications. We must bear in mind that the persons in school work are a constant example to the children with whom they come in contact.

This article reports the qualifications and remunerations of school clerks in certain large cities of the United States. The author collected part of these data in 1928 by means of a questionnaire sent to the superintendent of schools in 82 cities. Answers were received from 38 cities. This information was supplemented by a compilation done under the direction of the Minneapolis Public Schools dealing with elementary school clerks in various cities.¹ Altogether the writer is able to report on conditions in 59 cities in 29 states.

Are clerks provided?—From the combined Philadelphia and Minneapolis returns it is obvious that many schools do not have clerical assistants. The types of schools in which clerks are placed are shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1.—ARE SCHOOLS PROVIDED WITH CLERICAL ASSISTANTS?

Type of school	Number of cities answering "yes"
Elementary schools	38
Junior high schools.....	33
Senior high schools.....	36

¹ Goodrich, Genevieve W. *Summary of Questionnaires Regarding Elementary School Clerks*. (Mimeographed.) January 10, 1929. Minneapolis Public Schools.

Albany has no organization of clerical assistants. Assistants there are employed on the basis of substitute work at a per diem rate. Buffalo has no clerical assistants. Classroom teachers in high schools and grade teachers in elementary schools when assigned as office assistants receive the same salary as when in charge of a class.

TABLE 2.—WHAT QUALIFICATIONS ARE REQUIRED FOR CLERICAL POSITIONS?

Training	Cities	Percent
High-school training	19	42.2
High-school training plus outside experience.....	1	2.2
High-school training plus examination.....	12	26.7
High-school training plus examination plus outside experience...	3	6.7
High-school training plus college training for some positions....	1	2.2
Examination—civil service or prescribed by school board.....	2	4.4
Teaching experience	2	4.4
Teaching experience plus examination.....	1	2.2
Some normal—some high-school training.....	2	4.4
No standard requirement.....	2	4.4
	45	99.8

Table 2 shows the training required of school clerks. When we compare the percents in Table 2 we are impressed by the fact that 17 cities or 37.7 percent are realizing the advisability of having persons specially trained for secretarial work. Of this number 26.7 percent are required to pass an examination covering the scope of secretarial requirements. It is self-evident that more efficient work can be done by the individual with a natural adaptability and training for that work.

One city stated that since they had more eligible teachers than were required to fill vacancies, the board had adopted the policy of appointing graduates near the bottom of the list, who would have little chance of appointment to a teaching position, to positions as secretaries. While I have no knowledge of how this plan works, it seems unlikely that persons receiving a low rating as desirable teachers could step into a secretarial position and be of real value to the system.

The qualifications for school clerks in Philadelphia are worth stating at this point. The following list of elements and their values was prepared for use in estimating the efficiency of clerical service. It will give some idea of what is expected of a school clerk in Philadelphia.

OUTLINE OF RATING PLAN FOR CLERICAL ASSISTANTS IN PHILADELPHIA

- A. Office practice (50 percent)
 - 1. Use of telephone
 - 2. Penmanship
 - 3. Stenography
 - 4. Typewriting
 - 5. Use of duplicating devices
 - 6. Indexing and filing
 - 7. Reports and records
 - a. Routine reports and records
 - 1. Book and stock records
 - 2. Inventories
 - 3. Pupil records
 - 4. Teacher records
 - 5. Daily and monthly reports
 - b. Special reports and records
 - 1. Within school
 - 2. For district and central office
 - 8. Care of office supplies and equipment
 - 9. Care of mail
- B. Secretarial capacity (30 percent)
 - 1. Dealing with children and adults
 - a. Tact
 - b. Courtesy
 - c. Judgment and discretion
 - 2. Dependability
 - a. Readiness for service
 - b. Promptness
 - c. Accuracy
 - d. Following directions
 - 3. Knowledge of school system
 - 4. Command of English
- C. Coöperation (20 percent)
 - 1. With principal
 - 2. With teachers
 - 3. With visiting or supervisory officials
- D. Personality
 - This factor is to be considered in giving the ratings under the headings listed above, but not to be given separate weight.
 - 1. General bearing
 - 2. Voice
 - 3. Personal qualities
 - a. Sympathy
 - b. Enthusiasm
 - c. Culture
 - d. Reliability
 - e. Intelligence
 - 4. Health

Unfortunately many cities set their qualifications high but are unable to realize them because the salaries are insufficient (see Figures 1 and 2) to attract capable individuals from the business world. In New York City high salaries prove attractive. Here, the

examinations given about every three years add more applicants to a list which is never previously exhausted.

In New York there are the following conditions of eligibility:

License as teacher clerk in elementary schools (salary \$1400-\$2300; annual increment \$100)

- a. Graduation from high school and either
 1. Two years' experience in office work or
 2. Two years' experience in teaching, together with satisfactory training in office work or
- b. Graduation from a recognized college

License as clerical assistant in high schools (salary \$1500-\$3000; annual increment \$150)

- a. Graduation from high school and either
 1. Two years' additional satisfactory training in academic or secretarial work and two years' office experience or
 2. Four years' office experience or
- b. Graduation from a recognized college

FIGURE 1.—RANGE OF MINIMUM SALARIES OF SCHOOL CLERKS

Salary	Number of cities
\$400- 499	X X X
500- 599	X X X
600- 699	X X X
700- 799	X X X X X
800- 899	X X X X
900- 999	X X X X X X X X X
1000-1099	X X X
1100-1199	X
1200-1299	X X
1300-1399	X
1400-1499	X X X
1500-1599	X X

Read table thus: Three cities had minimum salaries between \$400 and \$499. Each X represents a city.

FIGURE 2.—RANGE OF MAXIMUM SALARIES OF SCHOOL CLERKS¹

Salary	Number of cities
\$1200-1499	X X X
1500-1799	X X X X
1800-2099	X X X X X
2100-2399	X X X X X X
2400-2699	X X X X X
2700-2999	X X
3000-3299	X
3300-3599	X
3600-3899	
3900-4199	
4200-4499	
4500-4799	
4800-5099	X

Read table thus: Three cities had maximum salaries between \$1200 and \$1499. Each X represents a city.

¹ Recent and reliable tabulations of 1928-29 salaries of school clerks will be found in the *Research Bulletin*, National Education Association, May, 1929.—Editor.

Apportionment of clerical help—The basis of apportioning help to individual schools is a problem upon which there is not much agreement.¹ The replies of 41 cities on this point are given in Table 3.

TABLE 3.—HOW IS CLERICAL HELP APPORTIONED?

Basis	Number of cities replying
Number of classes.....	6
Number of teachers.....	4
Number of pupils.....	17
Type of school.....	14
	—
	41

TABLE 4.—IS THERE A LOSS OF SALARY FOR ABSENCE?

Answer	Number of cities replying
No deduction.....	10
40 days allowed without salary loss.....	1
One month allowed without salary loss.....	5
Two weeks to a month, without salary loss.....	4
One week to two weeks, without salary loss.....	1
Five or six days, without salary loss.....	4
Partial deduction.....	5
Complete deduction.....	1
Subject to civil service rules.....	1
	—
	32

Salary losses for absence—Table 4 shows a tendency to be liberal in regard to salary losses after illnesses. Twenty-five cities allow some absence due to personal illness without loss of salary. Ten of that number or 31 percent of the cities make no deduction for absence due to personal illness. The Rochester regulations governing the loss of salary of employees engaged in clerical and secretarial service seem very fair. The rules are as follows:

1. No salary shall be allowed for absence in excess of one week except upon the certificate of a duly qualified physician, in which the physician shall certify not only as to the necessity of absence, but also as to the exact nature of the illness requiring such absence.
2. This certificate shall be subject to approval by a physician selected by the board.
3. Amount of absence permitted:
 - a. For the first year of service or any part thereof, four weeks.
 - b. An additional week shall be allowed for each additional year of service, provided the allowance shall in no case exceed thirteen except by special action of the Board of Education.

What are the duties of the clerical assistants?—It is difficult to put the answers to this question in tabular form, but the general

¹ See page 262 of the *Seventh Yearbook* of the Department of Elementary School Principals.—Editor.

reply is that the clerical assistant must perform all the duties of a secretary, exercising initiative, tact, and judgment at all times, besides being able to perform all the statistical work, filing, and correspondence with accuracy.¹

Supervision of the clerks—Twenty-eight cities reported that the clerical service was under general supervision of some school authority. One city reported no such direction. In 20 cities the supervision was given by the school principal and the heads of departments, in six cities by a head clerk, and in two cities by department heads in cooperation with the business manager.

What are the hours of service?—It was very difficult to compile the answers to this question. Many did not specify whether the hours applied to administrative offices or schools. However, the general conclusion is that the clerk in the school observes the same hours as the teachers. Clerks in the administrative offices begin work later and finish later. Most administrative offices are opened on Saturdays from nine in the morning until noon.

Advancement and title—Clerks are advanced automatically in 25 cities and only after examination in five cities. In regard to the official title given school helpers, 30 cities gave the answers shown in Table 5.

TABLE 5.—WHAT IS THE OFFICIAL TITLE GIVEN THE CLERICAL ASSISTANT?

Answer	Number of cities replying
Secretary	15
Stenographer	2
Clerk or clerical assistant.....	13
	—
	30

SUMMARY

This paper has presented an analysis of qualifications and remunerations of school clerks in 59 cities of the United States. The data on 38 of these were obtained from replies to a questionnaire sent out by the author June 5, 1928. The rest of the data has come from a compilation in 1928 by the Minneapolis Public Schools. All the information thus obtained has been, so far as possible, put into tabular form in Table 6.

Forty-five cities have clerical service in one or more of the following classes of schools—elementary, junior high, and senior high. Thirty-seven percent or 45 cities require in addition to graduation from a high school, specific training for secretarial work. The com-

¹ See the *Seventh Yearbook*, p. 260.—Editor.

plexity of the service required is illustrated by the "Outline of Rating Plan for Clerical Assistants" in force in Philadelphia.

Twenty-four cities allow some absence due to personal illness without loss of salary. The Rochester, N. Y., plan seems particularly satisfactory.

TABLE 6—SUMMARY OF DATA ON CLERICAL SERVICE ¹

City	State	1920 Popu- lation	Required Training	Data on Salaries			Time Allowed for Personal Illness
				Amount		Increment	
				Mini- mum	Maxi- mum		
Atlanta	Ga.	200,616	High school	750	2100	100 and 150 per year	1 month
*Baltimore	Md.	733,826	High school	900	999		
*Birmingham	Ala.	178,806	High school	400			
Bridgeton	N. J.		High school	600	1200	50 per year	No deduction
*Chicago	Ill.	2,701,705	Normal school	1500	1599		
Cleveland	Ohio	796,841	Examination	960	2280	60-100-150 per year	15 days
*Dallas	Texas	158,976	High school	450			
Dayton *	Ohio	152,559	High school and examination	1020	2200	60-120 per year	Subject to civil service rules
Denver *	Colo.	256,491	High school, some college	550	2000		5 days
Detroit	Mich.	993,678	High school	900	Over 1800		1/30 deduction
Duluth	Minn.	98,917	High school and examination	No	schedule	5.00 per month	40 days
Erie	Pa.	93,372	High school	650	1380	5.00 per month	50% deduction
*Fort Worth	Texas	110,820	High school	Less than 600	999		
Grand Rapids	Mich.	137,634	No standard	No	schedule	\$1-3 per week	
Indianapolis	Ind.	314,194	High school	1000	2100	100 per year	3 weeks
Jersey City	N. J.	298,103	Normal school and examination	1400	3200	100 per year	
Kansas City	Mo.	324,410	High school examination and experience	850	1500		5 days
*Louisville	Ky.	242,068	High school	Less than 600	799		
Lynn	Mass.	99,148	High school and examination	504	1664	1.50-2.00 per week	2 weeks
Milwaukee *	Wis.	457,147	High school and examination	460	2020	120 per year	No deduction
Minneapolis	Minn.	380,582	High school and examination	600	1300	5 per month	12 days
*Newark	N. J.	414,524	Normal school	1400	1800		

¹ Cities marked with an asterisk (*) are taken from the Minneapolis study which included only elementary school clerks.

² Monthly salaries reported on questionnaire have been multiplied by twelve.

³ In Denver high schools annual increases of \$120 a year to \$1200 than \$100 a year to \$1700 or to \$2000 are given.

⁴ Clerical assistants in elementary schools are paid at the rate of 50c an hour for actual service.

TABLE 6—SUMMARY OF DATA ON CLERICAL SERVICE—Continued

City	State	1920 Popu- lation	Required Training	Data on Salaries			Time Allowed for Personal Illness
				Amount		Increment	
				Mini- mum]	Maxi- mum		
New Haven ¹	Conn.	162,537	High school	504	1600	100 per year	Complete deduction
New Orleans ²	La.	387,219	High school	840	3400	No schedule	No deduction
New York ³	N. Y.	5,620,048	High school, examination and experience	1400	5000	100-150 per year	1/25 deduction
*Norfolk	Va.	115,777	High school	700	799		
Oakland	Calif.	216,261	High school and examination	1020	2220	60-120 per year	No deduction
Oklahoma City	Okla.	91,295	High school and examination	1200	2700		5 days
Paterson	N. J.	135,575	High school and examination	1100	2400	100 per year	No deduction
Philadelphia	Pa.	1,823,779	High school and examination	800	2100	60 per year	1/40 deduction
Pittsburgh	Pa.	588,343	High school	850	1440	50 per year	1/50 deduction
Providence ⁴	R. I.	237,595	High school		2500	100 per year	No deduction
Reading ⁵	Pa.	107,784	High school	720		120 per year	1 month
*Richmond	Va.	171,717	Some normal Some high school	Less than 600	1299		
Rochester	N. Y.	295,750	High school and examination	900	2400	0-150 per year	1 month
Saint Louis	Mo.	772,897	High school and examination				30 days
Salt Lake City	Utah	118 110	High school	700	2640		No deduction
San Francisco	Calif.	506,676	Normal school or examination	1560	2280		6 days
Scranton	Pa.	137,783		900	2100	100 per year	No deduction
*Seattle	Wash.	315,312	High school	700	799		
*Springfield	Mass.	129,614	High school	1200	1699		
Syracuse	N. Y.	171,717	High school and examination	1000			No deduction
Toledo	Ohio	243,164		960	1800	80-100 per year	2 weeks
Trenton ⁶	N. J.	119,289	High school and outside experience	960	2700	120 per year	No deduction
Washington	D. C.	437,571	High school and examination	1320	2400	60-200 per year	30 days
Wilmington	Del.	110,168	No standard	Less than 600	1700		
Worcester	Mass.	179,754	High school examination and experience	900	2200	75 per year	

¹ Clerical help in elementary schools are paid 25 cents per hour.² Annual salary of \$1000 is given in the elementary schools.³ The minimum salary of minor positions in the administrative offices is \$702. Salaries above \$3528 are fixed by special action of Board of Education.⁴ No set minimum salary.⁵ No maximum salary stated.⁶ Where considered necessary to assign a teacher clerk \$200 additional is paid to the teacher clerk

CONCLUSION

Clerical assistants have proved themselves a valuable and important part of the public school system of the large cities of this country. The duties are most varied, requiring tact, intelligence, and dependability for satisfactory performance. To qualify calls for the completion of a high-school course and specific training for secretarial work. An adequate supply of desirable applicants can be secured if salaries (see Figures 1 and 2) approximately equal those given for equivalent work in the business world. The initial salary is not as important as the possibility of advancement for efficiency and faithfulness.

The question of the apportionment of clerical help seems to deserve further study. Although the number of pupils would appear to be the most important single factor, the other factors which appear in the replies to the questionnaire are of sufficient importance to warrant consideration in all cases.

SUPERINTENDENTS often find it convenient to adopt arbitrary schedules in assigning clerks to schools. This may not always prove to be a wise procedure. A clerk should not be assigned to a school because of the enrolment so much as the promise that the assistance will improve the principal's work. The important steps in the development of a program of clerical assistance are: the principal must show a need for help, the superintendent must assist the principal in capitalizing upon the new arrangement, and the principal should be able to show the superintendent tangible evidence of improved work.—*The Seventh Yearbook*, 1928, pp. 265-266.

CHAPTER XXI

UNIFORM FILES FOR ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS AND TEACHERS

HERMAN F. SMITH (Chairman)
Principal, Adams School, Seattle, Washington

THIS REPORT has been prepared by the committee on office routine of the Principals' Research Club of Seattle, Washington. The committee consisted of the following persons: K. J. Knutson, M. E. Durham, J. U. Cassel, and Herman F. Smith, Chairman.

It is our purpose here (1) to outline briefly the need of filing systems in schoolrooms and offices of elementary schools; (2) to present the importance of having these files uniform throughout the school system; and (3) to set forth outlines of the uniform filing systems now in use in the Seattle public schools.

We would call attention to the fact that this committee has no thought that filing systems have been developed to the "Nth" degree, or that "Utopia" in this field of educational supervision has been reached. So far as we have been able to determine, little attention has been paid by educational writers or by instructors in school supervision to this important item of office routine. In fact so little attention has been paid to it that it is the exceptional school administrator who has given it a moment's thought or study before entering a school which demands some skill in this phase of office organization. Therefore, he soon finds himself confronted with the necessity of systematic organization to avoid shipwreck amid a mass of important but unorganized records.

Inadequate and poorly-kept records are very often found in village and rural school systems. The reason for this condition is that principals have not realized the importance of school data. Employers are coming to insist on having the whole school record of a boy before giving him a position. In passing to higher schools the facts pertaining to earlier school life are desirable. A scientific guidance plan—educational and vocational—is impossible without them. The forms used, the type of data collected, and the way in which the data are kept are also a good index to the business ability of the head of the school. It is plainly evident that recording practices and lack of practices now go on in schools which would not be tolerated for an instant in any up-to-date business establishment.¹

¹ Almack, John C., and Bursch, James F. *The Administration of Consolidated and Village Schools*. Houghton Mifflin Co., 1925, p. 67.

Cubberley says in *The Principal and His School* that:

In the great majority of schools and school systems the principal must work without the assistance of an office clerk. If he then is to secure adequate time for the real purpose of his presence—that of high-grade professional supervision and school leadership—he must find ways of cutting through the administrative routine and getting done the many little time-consuming but after all mediocre tasks that come up for handling in every school. The introduction of system will do much to help find time for the more important duties.¹

Cubberley points out that much will depend upon the principal himself, his habits of work, his ability as an organizer and systematizer, his mastery of the details of his work, and, let us add, his determination to follow a well-organized system when it has been made available to him.

Much that has been said regarding the school principal may be said to apply to the teacher in these days of many added requirements, such as variety in method, the use of tests and measurements, and the recognition and proper treatment of individual differences. All of these entail the reception, organization, and use of much printed and mimeographed material sent out by the superintendent's office, by department heads, and by the principal of the building.

Superintendents, supervisors, and principals alike will recognize the importance and value of uniformity in equipment and filing methods. In event of transfer of principal or teacher from one school to another the importance of finding essential materials in the new school situation is extremely vital, particularly when these records are organized in the same manner as they were in the first school. A well-planned and uniform system of files should be of much value to supervisors as they move from room to room within a building or within a school system. The principal saves much time and energy when his office files and those of the teachers in the building are so organized that they automatically eliminate obsolete materials or items which have served their usefulness. Any system of filing should reduce to a minimum the time required for proper organization of printed matter in order that all such materials may be located at once when needed by the principal, a supervisor, a substitute, the teacher in his room, or any other school official. We can expect the elimination of waste in time and materials to increase teaching efficiency.

A uniform filing system can be so elaborate that it will become a cumbersome burden rather than an assistance to the one for whom it is designed as a help. We, therefore, offer this word of caution against unnecessary uniformity in non-essentials. Cubberley tells us that:

¹ Cubberley, E. P. *The Principal and His School*. Houghton Mifflin Co., 1923, p. 186.

Uniformity in means and ends makes administration more machine-like and hence, to the ordinary executive easier to handle. Uniformity, too, appeals strongly to certain types of minds, and is often pushed into non-essentials and to a degree that is both irritating and unnecessary. It should be remembered that too great a uniformity is always most cramping and deadening on the school system most capable of making substantial educational progress.

TEACHER'S BULLETIN FILE

We offer an outline of the Seattle filing system in the hope that it may be of assistance to the profession at large. In presenting this outline, we include Superintendent Cole's letter of introduction, which accompanies each file.

To Principals and Teachers:

The teacher's bulletin file has been prepared in response to a need expressed by the Teachers' Advisory Committee for a means of filing bulletins and other materials which the teacher needs to have constantly at hand.

Its production has been a cooperative effort involving principals, teachers, and pupils. The plan of the file is the result of considerable study and experimentation by a group of principals and teachers, and the file itself has been made in the manual arts classes of the elementary schools. It is believed that its use in accordance with the instructions prepared by the committee will greatly facilitate our teaching.

The file itself is not original with the committee except in the method of construction, selection, and use of durable materials, special hinge, and the adaptation of the file to our use. It is an ordinary work-organizer which may be purchased at any office supply house. It was found that files costing about three or four dollars on the open market could be made up as a school project by art and industrial classes at a cost not to exceed fifty cents.

Clara P. Reynolds and Elizabeth Poor of the art department of the Seattle school system are responsible for the following outlines for the construction which brought to a successful completion the production of about 1275 files. These files were constructed in the sixth, seventh, and eighth grades of twelve or fifteen of the Seattle Schools.

CONSTRUCTION OF TEACHER'S WORK ORGANIZER

MATERIALS USED IN FILES

Quantity	Materials	Size in Inches	Purpose
10	book cloth	3 x 10½	sewed hinge
9	book cloth	2 x 10½	binding edges
1	book cloth	4½ x 12	back
1	book cloth	3½ x 10	reinforcing inside
1	cover paper	12½ x 19½	back cover
1	cover paper	12½ x 13½	front cover
1	chipboard	10½ x 18½	back
1	red press board (heavy)	10½ x 12½	front
9	red press board	10½ x 12½	
2	gray drawing paper	10½ x 12½	

CONSTRUCTION OF FILE

1. Making covers:

Place chipboard on cover paper with top edges even and one-inch margin on the remaining three sides. Crease paper over chipboard and mitre corners. Paste, using a cooked flour paste. Press.

2. On book cloth strip, $4\frac{1}{2}$ x 12 inches, lay off one inch upper long edge, leaving an inch and a half in center with two inches on opposite edge. Paste back and front covers to bookbinding cloth with two inches extending over back cover and one inch over front cover.

3. Paste book cloth strip $3\frac{1}{2}$ x 10 inches inside to strengthen hinge.

4. Place points on inside of covers as guides in placing hinges.

5. Paste in lining papers.

6. Measure and place points for sewing hinge.

7. Paste hinge in place.

8. Paste binding cloth on bottom of leaves. (This work may be done at any time.)

9. Paste leaves in place, last one first—truing it by cover—and true the remaining leaves by the first one pasted in.

HOW ONE BUILDING HANDLED THE PROBLEM

We worked mostly with a 6B class and feel that the best results will be obtained from older pupils. The better workers were selected and grouped according to ability. Each group was assigned a certain type of work which it carried on from day to day until that particular part was finished.

Flour paste was used for the large surfaces. Library paste, with glue added, was used in pasting the binding cloth.

Boxes of rocks, molding boards (from the cooking room), and chipboards were used in pressing. It is quite necessary to have a great deal of table space for working, pressing, stacking material, and a supply of clean newspapers.

DIRECTIONS FOR MAKING SEWED HINGE

1. Cut nine strips of bookbinding cloth, $3 \times 10\frac{1}{2}$ inches. Lay off line three-fourths inch from each long edge. Divide remaining space into half inches.

2. Fold over ruler on ruled lines.

3. Stitch pieces together being careful to keep sides even.

A sewing project among a group of the more capable girls will probably produce better hinges than a general class problem.

The committee, after consideration of the requirements of the Seattle teachers, decided that a file containing ten compartments would meet their needs. The compartments bear the following labels together with the accompanying Roman numeral:

- I. Classroom organization
- II. Method and activities
- III. Social subjects
- IV. Elementary science and visual education
- V. Reading and literature
- VI. Arithmetic, language, spelling
- VII. Fine and industrial arts
- VIII. Physical education
- IX. Handwriting and music
- X. Miscellaneous

The completed files were sent to the schools with a set of the following instructions which the art teacher in each building pasted on the inside of the front covers.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE TEACHER'S BULLETIN FILE

1. Paste these instructions inside of front cover of bulletin file.
2. Each compartment is labeled with a Roman numeral and a heading indicating what bulletins are to be placed in it; as, "III Social Subjects."
3. In sending out bulletins the superintendent's office will indicate by Roman numeral in the lower righthand corner of the first page the compartment in which each bulletin should be filed; as, "File in No. II."
4. Miscellaneous bulletins may be organized in such a manner as is most convenient for the teacher.
5. Bulletins should be properly filed as received, and kept until the teacher is otherwise instructed.
6. Toward the close of each school year, the superintendent's office will send out a circular indicating which of the bulletins shall remain in the files and which shall be removed. Bulletins removed become the property of the teacher, and may be preserved or destroyed as she desires.
7. In platoon schools, teachers may use the compartments not essential to their respective departments in such manner as the principal may direct.
8. Compartment I—Classroom Organization, should be reserved for the daily program, seating plan, instructions to substitutes, principal's bulletins, and other materials as directed by the principal.

Five or six schools have been supplied with these files for nearly three years. The teachers in these buildings have found the file a source of help and satisfaction. The success of the system is contingent upon the strict coöperation of teachers, principals, and the Superintendent's office force.¹

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL OFFICE FILE

In the organization of the Seattle Principal's Self-Keyed Office File, the committee gave much time to the listing of all items which should be recorded in the Seattle elementary school office, and to the organization of these records in such manner that important data could be properly preserved and readily available. The system makes provision for the automatic elimination of various items when they have served their usefulness.²

It will be noticed that the system (given at the end of this chapter) is alphabetically organized, that all bulletins sent from the superintendent's office are placed in one major section, that correspondence

¹ Credit for the above filing system is due to: Worth McClure, Bertha F. Bartel, Chas. Fagan, O. M. Hanson, L. Nettleton, Annie L. Gifford, J. U. Cassel, and Herman F. Smith.

² The system is revised and improved each year by a standing committee consisting of five principals and two representatives of the central office.

occupies a major section, and that records are given two major sections. Notice that the first of these two sections is devoted to administrative records, or such as bear a direct relation to the system as a whole, while the second section is devoted to local records, or those that relate to the local building affairs only. The fifth major section is devoted to that mass of miscellaneous printed matter which every principal wishes to preserve but has seldom filed in an organized manner. The file has not made provision for an organization of this fifth major section, but we will offer an unofficial suggestion for its organization.

Attention should be called to the usefulness of the section marked "Principal's Desk Organizer Section" in which we find three folders labeled as follows: Unfinished Work I (Immediate), Unfinished Work II (Deferred), and Finished Work III (To be filed). If properly used this section of the file will give the principal much relief from unorganized material on his desk.

The use of such a system as this requires, first, the presence in the office of a modern three or four drawer vertical filing case which may be made in an adequately equipped school shop. Second, a determination on the part of the principal to follow the plan rigidly.

Superintendent Cole sent the following letter to each principal. This statement was accompanied by a set of instructions for setting up the file and three sets of the filing list, one of which was double-spaced for use as labels.

To the Principal:

We are furnishing you herewith the report of the committee on a standardized filing plan. The necessary guides and other materials will be provided within the near future.

Temporary Organization—As suggested at the principals' meeting on Monday, April 16, however, bogus paper and the folders which you already have will enable you to organize your files at once without awaiting the special materials.

Special Filing Problems—In the interests of further uniformity and also in order to assist you with any special problems which may arise in organizing your files or in applying the instructions to your individual situation, your school has been assigned by the committee to one of its members. If you will telephone, he will be glad to confer with you regarding any questions that may arise. You will find that one of the attached sheets gives these assignments.

It is hoped that the contribution of this committee to the simplification of routine in your office will be of material assistance to you in the professional leadership of your building.

A copy of the instruction sheet is here printed, followed by a copy of the file outline and a copy of the unofficial organization of the fifth major section of the file.

SEATTLE PRINCIPALS' SELF-KEYED OFFICE FILE

INSTRUCTIONS FOR SETTING UP

The materials for setting up will be supplied by the district. They consist of sixteen (16) metal tab guides and about one hundred (100) individual folders. You will use the folders you now have as far as possible. Also, we are supplying, herewith, three copies of the filing list, one of which is double-spaced and capitalized.

In setting up the file you will use the five metal tab guides having the tabs to the left for the major divisions. Index them with the blue as follows:

BULLETINS (Official)
CORRESPONDENCE (General)
RECORDS (Administrative)
RECORDS (Local)
CATALOGS AND MISCELLANEOUS PAMPHLETS

Use the remaining eleven (11) metal tab guides for the minor divisions. Use capital letters on all index work. Index them with the pink as follows:

Reports (duplicates)	Professional
Invoices	Programs and schedules
Requisitions (duplicates)	Pupil records (individual)
Annual inventories and requisitions	School activities
Warehouse sheets	Principal's personal file
Community affairs	

Place these guides in their proper order according to the filing list accompanying this letter. Following each, place the number of folders necessary to give each item on the list an individual folder. Provide a folder for each item regardless of whether you have material for it or not. Now from the double-space filing list cut the individual folder titles as under BULLETINS (Official); you will cut ARITHMETIC, ACTIVITIES, ARTS (Fine and industrial) and all of the others into individual labels; cut all index slips exactly the same size, pasting them on the folder indicators, in their proper order as alphabetically arranged. Follow this procedure until all folders have been properly indexed.

Now, from one of the inclosed single-spaced filing lists you will cut each major section complete, pasting each on its respective major guide. From the other inclosed single-spaced list cut minor sections pasting each of these upon its respective minor guide.

In order that the principal's desk may be kept free from unorganized and unfinished work the committee has provided three individual folders, marked as follows:

- (1) Unfinished Work I (Immediate)
- (2) Unfinished Work II (Deferred)
- (3) Finished Work III (To be filed)

These folders are to be kept at the front of the first major guide except when in use by the principal.

THE FILING LIST

At the righthand side of this list has been indicated the period of time which the committee has decided the various items should be kept on file.

PRINCIPAL'S DESK ORGANIZER SECTION (THREE FOLDERS)

Unfinished Work I (Immediate)
Unfinished Work II (Deferred)
Finished Work III (To be filed)

BULLETINS (Official)

Activities
 Arithmetic
 Arts (fine and industrial)
 Athletics
 Attendance
 Budget account
 Cadet
 Census
 Clerk
 Filing
 Geography
 Handwriting
 Health
 High-school material
 History and civics
 Intermediate schools
 Language
 Library
 Lunchroom

File as directed by central office

Medical (nurse)
 Method
 Miscellaneous
 Music
 Physical education
 Programs and schedules
 Reading and literature
 Retirement fund
 Safety
 Salary
 Science and visual education
 Special schools (all types)
 Spelling
 Superintendent
 Tests (standardized)
 Tests (informal)
 Visual education

CORRESPONDENCE (General)

Alphabetized—Use four folders as follows:

(A-B-C-D-E-F)
 (G-H-I-J-K-L-Mc-M)
 (N-O-P-Q-R-S)
 (T-U-V-W-X-Y-Z)

File correspondence pertaining to individuals under pupil record.

File for current year only, unless item is still pending.

RECORDS (Administrative)

Reports (duplicates of all)

Annual
 Age—grade
 Classification
 High school and 8A or 6A
 Lunchroom
 Monthly
 Payroll
 Nurse and medical
 Programs (classroom)
 Promotion summary
 Pupils attending other schools
 Special (as called for)
 Teacher ratings
 Tests (city-wide)
 Tuition

Keep records for 1927-28 and last year, from then on for current year and preceding year.

Principals wishing to keep these records longer will file them in the principal's personal section.

Invoices

Custodian's supplies
 Domestic arts and science
 General supplies
 Lunchroom
 Manual arts
 Miscellaneous

File for current fiscal year and until September 1st and following invoice has been entered in stock record of succeeding school year.

Requisition duplicates
Incomplete (current)

Hold until checked with warehouse
sheets or canceled by office.

Annual inventories and requisitions

Arts (fine and industrial)
Books
Building repairs
General
Home economics
Lunchroom
Manual training

Warehouse sheets

Arts (fine and industrial)
Athletics
Books
Home economics
Janitor
Lunchroom
Manual training
Supplies (general)

File to agree as to date included in
annual inventory.

RECORDS (Local)

Community affairs

Boy Scouts
Camp Fire and Girl Scouts
Community fund
Father—Son and Mother—Daughter
Public library
Red Cross
Service clubs

According to judgment of local principal.

Professional

Committee work and assignments
Department of Elementary School
Principals
National Education Association
Parent-Teachers' Association
Principals' Association
Retirement fund
Seattle Teachers' Association
Study clubs
Supervision
Teachers' Meetings
Washington Education Association

According to judgment of local principal.

Programs and schedules

Auditorium
Building
Closing
Library
Opening
Parent-Teachers' Association
Special

According to judgment of local principal.

Pupil record (individual)

Attendance department reports
 Child-study laboratory reports
 Extension services
 Home correspondence
 Individual test records
 Problem children

Retain until pupil is known to have definitely removed from district or is beyond school age. Extension services meaning: part-time, opportunity, sight-saving.

Speech and all other special schools.

School activities

Athletics
 Banking
 Boys' and girls' clubs
 Extracurriculum activities
 Glee clubs
 Rules and regulations

As desired by principal.

Principal's personal file

This section is to include any matter which the principal wishes to retain that is not included or that has been eliminated from the regular file.

As desired by principal.

CATALOGS AND MISCELLANEOUS PAMPHLETS

This includes all printed matter not listed above and may be filed as individual principal desires.

REFERENCE MATERIAL (Unofficial)

Annuals
 Arithmetic
 Athletics
 Books
 Bulletins
 Citizenship
 Community fund
 Covers (leather)
 English
 Father and Son League
 Gardening
 Geography and civics
 Health education
 Information on telephone, typing, and mimeographing

Investments
 Junior Red Cross
 Miscellaneous
 Motion pictures
 Music
 News
 Organizations
 Pictures
 Reports
 Seattle Audubon Society
 Seattle Grade Club
 Seattle Principals' Association
 Seattle School District No. 1
 Science projects

CHAPTER XXII

PROVISIONS IN LARGE CITIES FOR THE ACCELERATION OF PUPILS

ARTHUR W. KALLOM

*First Assistant Director, Department of Educational Investigation and
Measurement, Boston Public Schools*

ONE OF THE IMPORTANT QUESTIONS facing the public is the support of its schools. Not only is the great expenditure larger than formerly, but we are told by school administrators that it is to be still larger. Meanwhile, the problem of children repeating grades is disturbing our school administrators. This non-promotion amounts to approximately 16 percent in the first year and dwindles to approximately four percent in the eighth year, rising to about 12 percent in the ninth year in schools having annual promotions.¹ In schools having semi-annual promotions the percent of non-promotion is much higher, although the ratio between the accelerated pupils and non-promoted pupils is much lower than that under annual promotions. The implication of these data, however, is to be interpreted only as an evidence of the superior "flexibility" of the semester promotion plan.²

The causes of this retardation are numerous, but probably the greatest cause is the mental inability of the individual to grasp the work as laid out in our courses of study. Another cause which is not so easy to prove, but which nevertheless exists, is the failure of the teacher to adapt his teaching to the individual pupil thus causing certain antagonisms between the teacher and the pupil. Many schemes have been put forth to remedy these situations. A study of age-grade tables of any school or city, however, will show conclusively that unless a personal interest is taken by the administrator, little or no change is made in the ratio between the retarded and accelerated group. The large percent of retarded pupils in this country should be a challenge to our elementary principals, for if the problem is to be solved it is this body of men and women who are to solve it.³

¹ Boston Public Schools. *Report on Age and Progress of Pupils in Public Schools*. School Document No. 12, 1925.

² Greene, Harry A. "The Effect of Annual and Semi-Annual Promotion as Revealed by Pupil Progress." Paper read before American Educational Research Association, Cleveland, February, 1929. (Unpublished.)

³ Cubberley, E. P. *The Principal and His School*. Houghton Mifflin Co., 1923, p. 344 ff.

Furthermore, it is interesting to note that the retarded pupils are not all of low mental ability. In fact, in the Boston schools we find pupils of all mental levels included in this group. It is also interesting to note that these pupils of relatively high mental ability are generally in this group for one of two reasons—either they are repeaters because the general class method used by the teacher has not recognized their brightness or, having recognized their brightness, has not been able to bring the pupils out of their lethargy. The pupil takes the attitude that “I need only get a passing mark. Why get more?”

One method of dealing with this situation is the acceleration of the bright pupils, thus compensating somewhat for the loss brought about by the retardation. In discovering the general practices of large school systems a questionnaire was sent to 58 superintendents. The returns were then analyzed and interpreted as the basis of this report. The questions asked are given at the end of this article.

TABLE 1.—CITIES RECEIVING QUESTIONNAIRE

Akron, Ohio	Nashville, Tennessee
Atlanta, Georgia	Newark, New Jersey
Baltimore, Maryland	New Haven, Connecticut
Birmingham, Alabama	New Orleans, Louisiana
Boston, Massachusetts	New York City, New York
Buffalo, New York	Norfolk, Virginia
Bridgeport, Connecticut	Oakland, California
Camden, New Jersey	Omaha, Nebraska
Chicago, Illinois	Philadelphia, Pennsylvania
Cincinnati, Ohio	Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania
Cleveland, Ohio	Portland, Oregon
Columbus, Ohio	Providence, Rhode Island
Dallas, Texas	Reading, Pennsylvania
Dayton, Ohio	Richmond, Virginia
Denver, Colorado	Rochester, New York
Des Moines, Iowa	Salt Lake City, Utah
Detroit, Michigan	San Francisco, California
Fall River, Massachusetts	Scranton, Pennsylvania
Fort Worth, Texas	Seattle, Washington
Grand Rapids, Michigan	Springfield, Massachusetts
Houston, Texas	St. Louis, Missouri
Indianapolis, Indiana	St. Paul, Minnesota
Jersey City, New Jersey	Syracuse, New York
Kansas City, Missouri	Toledo, Ohio
Los Angeles, California	Trenton, New Jersey
Louisville, Kentucky	Washington, D. C.
Lowell, Massachusetts	Wilmington, Delaware
Milwaukee, Wisconsin	Worcester, Massachusetts
Minneapolis, Minnesota	Yonkers, New York

The cities included in the original broadcast of questionnaires are given in Table 1. Of this group, 39 returned sufficient data for inclusion in the final tabulations. These 39 cities constitute 69 per cent of the original broadcast, and over 58 percent of the cities over 100,000 in population.

GENERAL PRACTICES IN THE RAPID ADVANCEMENT OF PUPILS

Table 2 shows the practices in the 39 cities replying to the questionnaire. Obviously, these cities believe to a greater or less extent in the principle of acceleration. Various comments were made which do not appear in the table. For example, one superintendent says that acceleration in his city is one percent but this, he believes, is not large enough. Another says that the percent of acceleration varies greatly in different schools.

The data in Table 2 are not complete in many cases, particularly with reference to the percent of acceleration. Apparently this important information is unknown. Another general comment was that there does not exist a standard system of procedure. One city reported that attention to acceleration was largely sporadic.

Some detailed comments on Table 2 are as follows:

1. With the exception of two cities the practice is to encourage the rapid advancement of elementary school pupils.

2. In 25 cities acceleration occurs in all grades. The remaining 11 cities vary in the grades where it is encouraged.

3. In making a choice of grades where acceleration may be carried out there is a great divergence of opinion. In general the returns show that more acceleration is found in the primary and intermediate grades. There are 20 systems which encourage acceleration in grades I to III, 15 encourage it in grades IV to VI, and 11 encourage it in grades VII to IX. Three cities encourage it in grades VII to IX only.

4. It is rather interesting to note that most cities having so-called XYZ classes still allow chances of acceleration.

5. The percents of acceleration reported in Column 5 of Table 2 are very small. Only in a few cities does it go above two percent. This is probably due to two causes: (1) the existence of classes too large already to admit accelerated pupils, and (2) a lack of well-thought-out and definite procedures for caring for the bright child.

6. The means of making the promotion is shown in Column 6 of Table 2. Skipping a part of the work is far the most common and

TABLE 2.—PROVISIONS FOR THE RAPID ADVANCEMENT OF PUPILS

City (1)	In what grades permitted? (2)	In what grades most advantageous? (3)	Used with XYZ groups? (4)	Percent skipped in 1927-28? (5)	Method of rapid advance- ment? (6)	How many years have you used rapid advancement? (7)
1	All	Primary	Yes	...	...	8
2	All	Grammar	Yes	3	Skip	...
3	1-5	2-4	...	-1	Skip	...
4	All	1, 2, 6, 7, 8	Yes	1+	Skip and 1½ years in 1 year	8
5	All	Above 3d	...	-1	Skip and 2 years in 1	Sporad- ically
6	3-8	3, 4, 5	Yes	...	Skip	12
7	1-5	2-4	...	Very small	2 years in 1	20
8	4-8	4-8	...	...	Skip	...
9	All	2B, 4B, 5B, 6B	...	...	Skip. 2 years in 1. Op- portunity rooms	Many
10	1-7	...	...	9	Skip. 2 terms in 1	2
11	All	Primary	Yes	15	Skip	5
12	Not general	...	...	...	Skip and 2 years in 1	...
13	All	1-6	...	...	2 years in 1	15
14	All	Primary	Yes	5	Skip. 2 years in 1. Op- portunity classes	20
15	All	...	...	...	2 years in 1	...
16	All	1-5	...	3	Skip. Summer school	5
17	5-9	5-9	...	...	...	10
18	All	1-3	Yes	14	Skip. Ability grouping	...
19	All	2-8	Yes	...	3 terms in 2 terms. 2 in 1. Skip	25
20	All	Below 5	...	1	Skip. 2 years in 1. Sum- mer school	...

TABLE 2.—PROVISIONS FOR THE RAPID ADVANCEMENT OF PUPILS—*Continued*

City (1)	In what grades permitted? (2)	In what grades most advantageous? (3)	Used with XYZ groups? (4)	Percent skipped in 1927-28? (5)	Method of rapid advance- ment? (6)	How many years have you used rapid advancement? (7)
21	All	1-4	Yes	5	Skip	Many
22	1-6	1-6	...	1	Skip. 3	13
				Not enough	years in 2	
23	All	...	...	...	Skip. Summer school. 2 half years in 1	Many
24	All	Upper grades	Yes	—1	3 terms in 2. Sum- mer school	Many
25	All	Primary	Yes	...	Skip. 3 years in 2.	Many
26	2-5	2 and 3	Yes	2.7	Skip. 3 terms in 2	6
27	All	5 and 6	Yes	—1	Skip	3
28	All	Elementary	Yes	...	Skip. 2 years in 1	8
29	All	...	...	2	Skip. 2 terms in 1	...
30	All	All	...	2	...	10
31	2-4	Lower	...	2	Skip	5
32	All	...	Yes	...	Skip	Many
33	1-6	1-5	Yes	18, in certain schools	4 years in 3	9
34	All	7-9	Yes	15	3 years in 2	3
35	All	2-8	Yes	...	Skip. 2 years in 1. Op- portunity classes	...
36	All	...	Yes	...	Skip. 2 terms in 1	5-10
37	All	Lower primary. Upper grammar	...	...	Skip. 2 terms in 1	...
38	1-7	4-6	Yes	1	Skip	...
39	1-8	3-5	...	1.5	Skip. 3 years in 2	2

has been the common method of acceleration for years. During the past few years tentative plans have been made to take care of the loss through summer school, opportunity classes, four-term schools,

TABLE 3.—FACTORS CONSIDERED IN THE RAPID ADVANCEMENT OF PUPILS¹

City (1)	Intelligence tests, Individual (2) Group (3)		Achievement tests (4)	Teacher's judgment (5)	Previous school record (6)	Physical examination (7)	Chronological age (8)	Other factors (9)
1	X	X	..	X	X	..	X	..
2	..	X	X	X	X	..	..	..
3	X	X	Reading Language Arithmetic	X	X	X	X	..
4	X	X	..	X	X	..	X	..
5	X	X	Reading Arithmetic Spelling	X	X	X	X	Social adjustment
6	X	X	..	X	..	X	X	..
7	X	X	X	X	..	..	..	..
8	X	..	X	X	X	X	X	Social attitude
9	X	X	Reading Language Arithmetic	X	X	X	X	..
10	..	..	Stanford	X	X	X	X	Principal's judgment
11	X	X	Reading Arithmetic English History Geography	X	..	..	X	..
12	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
13	..	X	..	X	X	..	..	..
14	X	..	Varies	X	..	..	X	..
15	X	X	Reading Arithmetic	X	X	X	X	..
16	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	..
17	..	X	X	X	X	..	X	..
18	X	X	Reading Language Arithmetic Geography History	X	X	X	X	..
19	X	X	..	X	X	X	X	Summer school
20	X	X	..	X	X	X	X	..
21	X	X	Reading Arithmetic Language Geography History	X	X	X	X	..

¹ An "X" in the table means an affirmative reply with no details as to practices.

TABLE 3.—FACTORS CONSIDERED IN THE RAPID ADVANCEMENT OF PUPILS¹—Cont'd

City (1)	Intelligence tests, Individual Group (2) (3)		Achievement tests (4)	Teacher's judgment (5)	Previous school (6)	Physical examination (7)	Chronological age (8)	Other factors (9)
22	..	X	..	X	X	..	X	..
23	..	X	Stanford	X	X	X	X	Social development and attitude of parents
24	X	X	Reading Arithmetic History Geography	X	X	X	X	..
25	X	X	..	X	X	X	X	Home environment
26	X	X	Reading Arithmetic	X	X	X	X	Social development
27	X	X	Reading Arithmetic	X	X	..	..	..
28	X	X	Reading Arithmetic	X	X	X	X	..
29	X	..	Regular city tests	X	X	X	X	Social maturity
30	X	..	Reading Arithmetic History Geography	X	X	X	X	..
31	X	..	..	X	X	X	..	..
32	X	X	Reading Arithmetic English	X	X	X	X	Social maturity
33	X	X	..	X	X	X	..	..
34	X	X	X	X	..	..	..	..
35	X	X	English Arithmetic	X	X	X	..	..
36	X	..	English Arithmetic	X	X	X	X	Social maturity
37	X	..	Reading History Arithmetic Geography English	X	X	..	..	..
38	..	X	..	X	X	..	..	..
39	X	X	Arithmetic Reading	X	X	X	X	..

¹ An "X" in the table means an affirmative reply with no details as to practices.

and similar arrangements. In most cases it depends on the willingness of the teacher to keep a check on the work.

In other instances there is a definite plan of doing two years' (or semesters') work in one year (or semester). In rare cases three

years' (or semesters') work in two years (or semesters) is permitted.¹ Under such an arrangement the time is saved by giving much less drill. This undoubtedly accounts for the acceleration taking place for the most part in the primary and intermediate grades.

7. Most cities have always made it possible for a bright pupil to skip grades. There are indications that during the last few years the cities which believe in acceleration have undertaken to organize the work so that it might be less "hit and miss" and more definite.

FACTORS CONSIDERED IN THE RAPID ADVANCEMENT OF PUPILS

Table 3 shows the tabulation of the answers to the question: "What factors are considered in your plan of rapid advancement?" The table indicates that the old method of selecting children for acceleration by "trial and error" is passing away. In nearly every city the problem is being handled on a much more scientific basis. No longer is the teacher's judgment the sole criterion for deciding whether a child shall or shall not be promoted. Tests, intelligence and achievement, as well as other factors are being taken into consideration. It is a very hopeful sign.

ADVANTAGES AND LIMITATIONS OF RAPID ADVANCEMENT

Question 8 asked the superintendents to give the advantages and limitations of rapid advancement. Below is given a digest of the replies in each case. Twenty-nine cities responded to this question. The most important items are followed by a number which shows how many replies gave this particular advantage or limitation.

ADVANTAGES

1. Provide for individual differences (18)
2. Economy of time and effort (14)
3. Lessens laziness (4)
4. Economy of administration (2)
5. Better classification (2)
6. Makes school more interesting (2)
7. Homogeneous groupings (2)
8. Ninety percent successful
9. Enrich child's life by outside work
10. Encourages good work in both pupils and teachers
11. Task of instruction simplified
12. Advanced pupil feels that he is advancing
13. Meets general approval
14. Prevents delinquency

¹Kallom, A. W. "Why Acceleration in our Schools?" *University of Pittsburgh School of Education Journal*, Vol. IV, No. 2, 1928.

Rapid advancement has certain very important advantages as shown in these data:

1. It is an attempt to make provision for individual differences and to make it possible to give the brighter pupil enough to do to keep him busy.

2. Time is saved not only for the pupil but for the principal and teacher. Better work is accomplished because the work is more interesting, satisfaction accompanies the effort, and it meets the general approval of parents.

3. Where groups may be advanced homogeneous groupings may be formed and better classifications can be made.

4. It tends to prevent the forming of habits of laziness.

LIMITATIONS

1. Social maladjustment (8)
2. Reach advanced work at immature age (5)
3. Lack of physical development (3)
4. Advanced to satisfy desire of over-ambitious parents (2)
5. Need for adjustment teachers
6. Teacher coöperation
7. Drill work curtailed
8. Administrative problem
9. Omits enrichment features
10. Overburdens pupils with work
11. Finish high school too early
12. Invidious comparisons
13. Temptation to push up to relieve crowded conditions
14. Adaptation of curriculum
15. Tends to load down teacher of Z group

There are some very important limitations given although many of those mentioned can be guarded against before the pupil is advanced.

1. Care should be taken so that the pupil is not advanced solely through the efforts of over-ambitious parents.

2. Interest and enthusiasm may cause a pupil to undertake more work than is wise.

3. The possibility of invidious comparisons being made between the advanced pupil and others may produce personality complications which will be far worse than losing a double promotion.

4. Social maladjustment, teacher coöperation, physical condition, adaptation of curriculum, and other important factors should be considered before the acceleration takes place.

It is evident that the advantages as reported in these data far outweigh the limitations. There are indications also that it is felt that

there should be some limit on the number of "skips" which an individual pupil should make. The author happens to know that in some cities not more than two years may be gained in the eight years, while in other cases not more than one year may be gained. If care in this respect is taken, many of the limitations given above will not apply.

SELECTION OF TEACHERS FOR ACCELERATED GROUPS

The question was asked: "How do you select teachers for rapid advancement groups?" It was intended that this question should apply to such cities as had classes designed to save time for pupils in their school life. It was not realized that comparatively few places would have such classes.

The replies indicate that the different superintendents considered the question in two ways: (1) by whom was the selection made, and (2) the characteristics of a teacher for accelerated children. In the first case (the appointment) there is the widest possible range. In the second case there is entire agreement.

The question was answered by only 23 cities. It is clear from these answers that the teacher of accelerated groups is one chosen for superior ability in his teaching, sympathy, interest in this type of work, and adaptability.

THE PURPOSE OF RAPID ADVANCEMENT OF PUPILS

Superintendents were asked to state the purposes of rapid advancement. Many omitted to answer this question because they interpreted it as identical with the advantages of rapid advancement. Those who did reply gave an answer similar to that given under advantages. Thus the replies added very little to the rest of the report, but some of the purposes given are as follows:

1. Avoids waste of time
2. Individual differences
3. Lessens laziness
4. Economy of time
5. Class adjustments
6. Make up loss of time
7. Lessen school costs
8. Homogeneous groups
9. Save one year only
10. Economy of money
11. Economy of administration
12. Adjustment of problem cases

SUMMARY

The extent of the broadcast and other factors make it unwise to draw too extensive conclusions from this present study. However, an analysis of the replies of city superintendents in many of our large American cities leads to certain comments:

1. Superintendents have given little attention to the development of *systematic schemes* for accelerating the bright child.

2. The rapid advancement of pupils is a problem left largely to the principals in the individual schools.

3. The percent of pupils accelerated is so small in many cities that special classes are not provided.

4. There is rarely a specific plan of acceleration and, therefore, extra promotions are rare and may occur at any place in the child's educational life. In general, however, the choice comes in grades II to VI.

5. In most cities skipping is still the most common form of acceleration. There are indications, however, that more systematic plans are being sought. The most common are (1) to do two years' work in one, (2) to do three years' work in two, (3) opportunity classes, (4) four-term schools, and (5) summer schools.

6. There is every indication that standard tests, intelligence and achievement, are contributing their share in determining what children shall be granted permission to be advanced a grade.

7. The advantages of acceleration far outweigh the disadvantages.

8. The choice of a teacher for an accelerated class is most important. He should be a superior teacher, interested, sympathetic, and very adaptable.

THE QUESTIONNAIRE

The questions sent to the superintendents were the following:

1. In which grades do you permit rapid advancement of pupils?
2. In which grades can the rapid advancement of pupils be used most advantageously?
3. If you use the XYZ plan, do you permit rapid advancement of pupils?
4. What percent of your elementary school pupils received extra promotion during the year 1927-28?
5. What method do you use to accelerate pupils?
6. How many years have you used your system of rapid advancement?
7. Check the factors which are considered in your plan of rapid advancement.
8. Results of your experiment in the rapid advancement of pupils.
9. How do you select teachers for rapid advancement groups?
10. State briefly the purpose of rapid advancement of pupils in your system.