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BULLETIN

OF THE

Department of Elementary School Principals

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of the
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CASSIE F. ROYS, Editor, 2609 Bristol Street, Omaha, Nebraska

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A SYMPOSIUM ON CHARACTER EDUCATION

CHARACTER education vitally concerns every elementary school principal. The public expects the schools to bear their share in improving the moral fiber of our youth. Our Department has been fortunate in obtaining the following articles on character education which have been prepared by persons who have devoted much study to this theme. No more stirring words could be used in introducing this symposium (pp. 67-77) than these lines by Oliver Wendell Holmes:

> Build thee more stately mansions, O my soul,
> As the swift seasons roll!
> Leave thy low-vaulted past!
> Let each new temple, nobler than the last,
> Shut thee from heaven with a dome more vast,
> Till thou at length art free,
> Leaving thine outgrown shell by life's unresting sea!

THE PRINCIPAL VIEWS CHARACTER EDUCATION

MARGARET KNOX
Principal of Public School 15, Manhattan, New York

AT A recent convention of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association, held in Boston in 1928, the keynote at all conferences was "Character." How shall we build fine character in the children of America? What methods of ethical or moral training are being used in the schools of the east and of the west? These were the questions on the lips of the leaders of educational thought as each for his own community strove to find some rock upon which he could build a moral educational scheme for his own school, city, or state.

At the close of this convention in Boston, another was held in New York under the auspices of the National Child Welfare Association and Teachers College, Columbia University. It was a national conference, and the theme that occupied the minds of the educators who attended it was "Character Education in Schools."

Those who had arranged this conference were representative of the leading educational thinkers, not only of New York City but of the country; and it was significant of the deep interest that is being taken by educators all over the United States, that where there were expected not more than one hundred interested searchers for light upon this vital subject, there were at least one thousand who attended the opening meeting in the hall in Columbia University. The meetings throughout the days of the conference were well attended by eager searchers to find means for real help in character training of our children.

The subject was discussed from the physical, biological, psychological, and religious standpoints, and by those who deplored any possibility of training character by definite rules, as well as those who advocated a definite course of study with an allotted place in time schedule.

The men and women who attended this conference were evidently eager and sincere in their quest for a practical plan of character training for children that would be workable, and that would bring forth visible results in America. In the minds of many of our most advanced teachers, character training is included in our lessons in civics, history, biography, and literature, in fact in everything that is taught, and needs no further emphasis, but how many of us who are principals in these public schools of our own great City of New York are satisfied with the results of the civic and ethical training that our children are getting under these conditions?

How many of us are satisfied with the manners of our young people who ride with us day by day in public conveyances? Have you ever seen breaches of common politeness among the youth, such as:

Young boys, keeping seats, apparently studying algebra, or Latin, or feigning sleep, while elderly women hang on to the straps?

Young boys and girls rushing to take seats in a trolley car, while older women have to stand aside until the rush is over and find no seats after they enter the car?

Have you ever listened, without straining your ears in the least, to a conversation among girls, in which were discussed in no doubtful terms the merits or demerits of their teachers, or of their boy friends; to a conversation among boys where the prevailing tone was that of vulgarity and profanity?

Have you ever seen intelligent, evidently cultured, educated folks dropping newspapers, candy wrappers, cigarette and cigar butts upon the floors of cars, elevators, platforms, and even down into the road bed of our subways where the life of the cleaner is in danger every moment as he wends his way in and out over electrified tracks?

Have you walked through any of our city parks and seen the lawns, walks, and flowerbeds disfigured with all sorts of litter, and have you watched our people, young and old, as they thoughtlessly drop the disfiguring litter?

Have you ever attempted to stem this tide of ill manners that confronts us every day, by a word of remonstrance or of advice and been met with this, " Aw, what's it your business? "

Again I come to you with that same question that I have asked our principals over and over again. Is it not our business as teachers to devise ways and means by which good manners become habitual; by which children brought up in homes of culture and refinement are not ashamed to speak the English of their homes, or to practise the ordinary courtesies of a refined home lest " the fellows " laugh at them; and by which children not fortunate enough to have homes of refinement and culture can be trained to know what is right and what is wrong?

Is it not our business to train our children in the public schools in the way they should go and to lead them to think and to do " whatsoever things are true, whatsoever things are honest, whatsoever things are just, whatsoever things are pure, whatsoever things are lovely? "

I think your answer to my question is " Yes, it is our business." I think you will follow it by saying, " But how can we do it? How can we accomplish better results than up to this time are evidenced in the manners and mode of life of the children we have been training? "

Speaking from your own experience will you tell me which subject of the curriculum is most successfully taught in your own school? Is it penmanship, or reading, or arithmetic? Is nature study a real live subject in your school? Are the children really interested in the birds and flowers, and trees; are they successful little gardeners? If we were to hold a round table conference upon this question, I know what the result would be. We would acknowledge that the subject receiving impetus from the principal, a hearty interest directing the teachers and stirring them to find the very best methods of presenting the daily lessons is always the successful, well-taught subject.

The old pedagogical maxims, "We learn to do by doing," and "No impression without expression," are still true even in this modern world of new thought and new experiments in child training. The teacher does not know that the child has learned his lesson in geography or arithmetic or nature study until he tells her in his own words all that she has taught him, until the knowledge that he has acquired shows itself in habitual action in his everyday life.

Are those of us who hold that the character training incidental to the subjects taught throughout our whole course of study is enough, satisfied with the results? The attendance at national conventions indicates the thought of today, the thought not only of educators but of the thinking public at large. All are in quest of a method for making children firm in their understanding of good manners and right conduct. All are agreed that desultory, indefinite application of fine traits in the characters of our great heroes—Washington, Lincoln, Roosevelt, and Lindbergh—does not, cannot, result in inculcating the same fine characteristics in the children themselves, who stand afar off and follow the teacher's command to admire and do likewise.

Character training in school must therefore become a definite part of the curriculum, must have definite time assigned to it, must call for definite results.

May I quote from an address made by F. G. Bonser, Professor of Education, Teachers College:

> As a curriculum problem character education is not primarily a matter of providing words to be learned or providing for the enjoyment of thrills evoked by accounts of the rare and remote heroes who here and there illuminate the pages of history and literature. These have their place but relatively it is not the major place. The primary problem is in providing for experiences through which character traits may grow. Character is a development, not a reward or an adornment. It is an integration of habits, attitudes, ideals, and knowledge, operating together in determining the conduct of daily life. If one's conduct is wholesome, if his character is good, this means that hundreds of activities of his daily life are the expression of good habits, good attitudes, and fine ideals, together with good thinking where selections among optional courses of action have to be made.
>
> Only as the curriculum provides rich and varied experiences, real and personal to the learners, in activities that force questions of personal relationships and responsibilities upon the learner as elements contributing to their success or failure, does the school provide much opportunity for helps in developing right habits, attitudes, and ideals.

There must also be "provision for cultivating the habit of thinking through to a satisfactory conclusion any question offering optional courses of conduct."

The committee appointed by the Board of Superintendents to prepare a course of study in character training has presented a course arranged in accordance with Dr. Bonser's suggestions. It provides for daily lessons in good manners and right conduct, providing for the teachers definite moral topics upon which to base their lesson plans and suggestions for engaging the children in activities which will give them the personal experiences necessary for impressing the lessons to be learned, and also the opportunities for proving to their teachers that they understand what is right conduct under given conditions.

THE NINTH YEARBOOK

THE title for the 1930 Yearbook is "Good Administration Precedes Supervision." The choice of this title was suggested because of its fitness not only for this yearbook but because it suggests that supervision is to follow good administration. This sequence of duty of the principal will be treated in the two yearbooks which are now being planned. The yearbook for 1931 will be entirely devoted to the problems of supervision. (See announcement on pages 124-5.)

The Editorial Committee has plans under way for the next three years. It is hoped by careful planning several years in advance, the yearbook will grow in value and become more and more a handbook for the principal's constant reference.

Hundreds of letters have been mailed to superintendents, supervisors, and principals. We find that there are a great many successful principals who are developing a progressive attitude and are more than willing to volunteer their help and contributions. The committee trusts that all who read this article will feel that they are not only given a cordial invitation to correspond with members of the committee but will be glad to know of an avenue through which their ideals will benefit some co-worker. The elementary school principalship is a worthy work and deserves the highest type of cooperation and team work.

THE SUPERINTENDENT VIEWS CHARACTER EDUCATION

FRANK CODY
Superintendent of Schools, Detroit, Michigan

CHARACTER education is the most important task of the school. It is fundamental to any adequate system of schooling. No amount of emphasis on spelling, writing, chemistry, and French, as such, will necessarily produce boys and girls and men and women of honor and integrity. The school must provide definitely for training in habits of right living.

The classic example in this field is the situation in writing. We may teach a child to write legibly and quickly. But teaching of writing alone will not insure that that child, as he grows older, will use his ability in such ways as writing a birthday letter of appreciation to his mother rather than as forging his employer's signature on a check. The socalled fundamental tools of the three R's are indeed necessary. Yet, something else is needed, something which will develop in boys and girls the ability to choose well the purposes for which these skills are to be used.

The importance of character education has never been questioned. It has been recognized especially during the recent years after the World War. President Hoover's Commission on Law Observance and Enforcement is one of the signs of the times. Another sign is the action of Premier MacDonald in the direction of furthering international peace and understanding. Another is the current emphasis upon the training of children in the preschool years because of the belief that those years are peculiarly significant in determining the character qualities of later life. Finally, the fact that the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association has selected character education as the subject of the 1932 Yearbook is an indication of the place which character education has in the minds of school people.

What does character education include?—Like all terms that are much used by speakers and writers, character education has a wide variety of meanings, depending upon the user. For myself, I should like to consider under character education all sorts of changes in attitudes and purposes and ideals in the direction of increased wellbeing of the individual and of society.

Character education has itself changed along with the other changes which have occurred in economic and social life. The test of a good character—that the person shall contribute the most that is possible to the wellbeing of everyone—is the same today as it was centuries ago. However, the elements of such a character have changed materially. The virtues that sufficed in the small homogeneous group no longer suffice. Tolerance, while always a virtue, takes a much larger place in character today than a century ago. There is scarcely a community in the land today where there is not a mixture of races and religions and national origins. If such diverse groups of people are to live together happily and effectively, they need to

have mutual respect and friendliness. Tolerance is an example of an element which is much more important now than formerly, not only in character but also in character education.

The modern social structure, with its mixed groups and with its varied relationships between groups, requires a whole new series of virtues. When people can sit in their homes on Christmas day in Memphis, or Tucson, or Port Huron, and hear Christmas carols from Canada, Germany, England, France, and Belgium, it is hard to say that any man can live unto himself alone or that any group can live unto itself alone. There are so many bonds, economic, esthetic, and scientific, between even the largest groups that we dare not stress the narrow tribal virtues alone. An adequate character education for the conditions of modern life will include not only the development of friendliness, honesty, and sincerity among those who are in the same group but also the development of these same virtues between members of widely different groups.

What is to be included under character education may be considered also from another point of view. The schools are concerned with two main types of such education. One is the corrective work with those individuals in whom faulty attitudes, wrong purposes, and bad habits have appeared. This training is essentially reconstructive and, in a sense, negative. The other, and the one to which the school should address most energy, is the preventive work. This is the original teaching of boys and girls to the end that they will develop right attitudes, worthy purposes, and good habits. Such teaching is essentially constructive and positive in its nature. It is far more important as an objective of the school than is the other, although neither may be neglected. Probably for every dollar spent in the treatment of problem boys and girls there should be ten dollars spent in the effort to ward off such problems before they ever arise.

What methods and what materials?—How is this job to be done? Exactly what specific objectives shall we adopt? In what grade shall we introduce the training for each desired trait? What materials will we find helpful in our work? What methods shall we use in our teaching? To what extent shall we use the socalled direct method? So far as I know, there are no generally accepted answers to these questions. Every schoolman and every man on the street has his own answer. The trouble is that the answers differ radically and, further, that there is as yet no conclusive evidence as to which answer is the best.

For the present, we must recognize that the current period is one of experimentation. As superintendents and principals we must encourage the careful study of the problems which are involved in character education in this modern age. We dare not refuse consideration to any proposal but we must be chary of approving and adopting any specific plan until its value has been clearly proven.

Cooperation—As I view the problem of character education, I am convinced more and more that the solution will come only through cooperative enterprise. The schools of a community are fortunate in having the back-

ing of the community on every worthy activity which is attempted. The willingness of the community to cooperate with the school is nowhere more evident than in the case of character education. Literally dozens of agencies are concerned with the development of right character in youth. All of these agencies are ready to ally themselves with the school authorities who are attacking the problem. There are the governmental agencies, including the law-making bodies of city, state, and nation; the courts, and many executive departments. There are the churches, which have always stood for the highest and finest in life. There are the many social agencies which have sprung up in all communities in the effort to aid in the adjustment of problems of all types. The Boy Scouts and the Young Women's Christian Association are illustrations of such agencies. Finally, there are the voluntary clubs and organizations of all types, such as the Rotary, Kiwanis, Parent Teacher Associations, and the various lodges.

Practically every one of all these different agencies is interested in the development of character. The wise schoolman will not attempt to solve the problem alone. He will inform himself as to the program of these various agencies and, after consultation with them, will set up the program for the schools.

I am confident that the schools of America are offering each year a better and fuller program of character education. I have faith that it will continue to improve as long as the men and women who direct the schools continue to devote themselves to this task and utilize to the utmost the available contributions of all cooperating agencies.

TO MEET the rapidly changing conditions that affect social welfare, the public, and educators, themselves, are looking to the school to do more than they have done in the past to help young people make the moral adjustments that are needed by present-day living. Definite plans have been initiated in nineteen states of the U. S. to promote the development of personal character. The future will probably find more states taking such action.—E. H. Fishback.

See President Hansen's announcement of the Atlantic City Program on page 126. Are you going?

THE COLLEGE TEACHER VIEWS CHARACTER EDUCATION

C. E. Rugh

Professor of Education, University of California, Berkeley, California

THE wisest and the best parents, the wisest and the best teachers, and the wisest and the best communities would not deprive any child of anything necessary to bring to full fruition the best and all of the best possible. Stated positively, the wisest and best parents, teachers, and communities exhibit their wisdom and their goodness by endeavoring to provide the means for realizing the best and all of the best in all of the children. *Character education* is the best term to stand for education at its best.

There are some who would characterize "best" education as "moral" or "religious," but you will have to go back a decade to find these terms in the index to the *Proceedings* of the National Education Association. The term "character" is now used to cover this aspect of public education.

What Is Character Education?

An examination of even the recent literature or the recent proposals exhibits an almost hopeless confusion. Those interested in human welfare are more or less respectful to any serious and sustained effort to improve education. The wisest, the best, and, it may be said, the most successful attempts at improvement have been along the lines designated character education. In a thousand-word paper there is no space for reviewing these attempts. Such a review would yield no conclusions, anyway. The present pressing problem is to clear up some of the confusions in the interests of some concrete actions in research and service.

The confusion is most concretely exhibited in the different and conflicting meanings and uses of the terms, character and education. It would be a worthy research and service to collect and classify these differences, particularly as such a procedure would suggest causes of different uses and meanings. The root causes, however, are known without such a research. These root causes are the complexity of human nature and of human society, along with the focal nature of attention and effort. Practically all advocates and all practitioners focalize upon one or a few of the possible ways and means and tend to stress these specialized efforts out of all proportion to their real value, for example, the use of "codes," "the thirty-three virtues," the use of "literature." These special attempts through focalized efforts, many of them good in themselves, keep up the controversy between the advocates of the direct as over against the indirect approach. This arises from two further fallacies: (1) the belief that some persons *have* and that other persons *do not have* character; (2) that character can be analyzed into certain fixed "traits" that can be singled out and trained piece-meal.

1. Every person, by virtue of being a person, both *is* and *has* a character. This seeming paradox is another source of confusion. Character is the

algebraic sum of the abilities and dispositions of a person in relation to a particular situation; " algebraic sum " because in each person in relation to any particular situation there may be both positive and negative factors; and in relation to each particular " situation " because the functions and values of these factors may change, do change, with change of situations. Perhaps this is why " trait analysis " uptodate has failed.

2. Every person *has* a character because as persons each one has control or management over some means for producing consequences for which they are personally responsible.

3. Every educational event whether intended or not, has character consequences. Therefore, all education is character education. The alternatives are not character education or no character education; they are, education better or worse. That is why some careless thinkers insist that character education means good character. There would be no serious objection to this meaning if general agreement could be secured.

The worse confusion concerning the term education comes from failure to distinguish between education and schooling. This failure does not take account of heredity, home, community, personal effort. Schooling now consists of curriculum and extracurriculum activities, but these two are not all. *School morale* is another or at least a different aspect of the problem of character education. Another confusion, and a very serious one, too, comes from failing to distinguish between the habit, knowledge, and attitude aspect of every curriculum and extracurriculum activity. Another kind but different source of confusion comes from isolating these three aspects until they become abstractions, instead of principles of action. Perhaps the most important single principle in education is that in every activity the whole child acts whole-heartedly. There is both a knowledge and an attitude aspect in habit. There is a habit and an attitude aspect in knowledge. There is a habit and knowledge aspect in attitudes. With these principles in mind, note the three aspects of character education with spelling as an example, and spelling is used because it is so simple.

(1) *Habit aspect*—Each child must learn to spell a few thousand words by skilful presentation and drill. (2) *Knowledge aspect*—To be able and willing to meet the new situations when a new word needs to be spelled, the child must know how to use the dictionary. (3) *Attitude aspect*—A child might know how to use the dictionary but not have the disposition (spelling conscience) to do so. A child is not educated in spelling, that is, does not have the character of a good speller, until he has this spelling conscience—not only knows how to spell and to find how to spell, but *intends* to spell right, along with the disposition to have remorse if spelling is wrong. The same may be said for every other form of worthy school activity.

In the last analysis character education means the development of the ability and disposition to courageously and intelligently attack all the life problems that arise, both in relation to oneself as a person and as a member of the institutions of which that person is a cooperating member. Such a program of character education implies the cooperation and coordination of all the agencies concerned in human welfare.

THE PHILOSOPHER VIEWS CHARACTER EDUCATION

HENRY NEUMANN
New York City

WHEN Sir Launfal, eager to escape seeing the leper, tossed him a coin in scorn, the beggar refused it. The gift without the giver was bare, the young knight was reminded, even though it was better than nothing at all. The spirit of one's conduct is of first importance. Moral education is intent upon getting specific acts of behavior; but although it is better to speak truth, let us say, than to lie, some of the motives to truth-telling are more admirable than others; a philosophy of life in which our pledged word is sacred is better than one in which integrity is expected to bring us more income.

This is why a sound program of education, much as it wants specific acts, also wants something more. What manner of person we are is closely connected, both as cause and effect, with the basic spirit of our deeds, or our fundamental philosophies of life.

Are all of us then to be philosophers? Or, still more terrifying, are we expected to graduate miniature Platos and Kants? We may calm our fears. Not all of us are philosophers, or are expected to be, in the sense of being special students in this field as others are experts in chemistry. Nor are all philosophers, in having a dominantly reflective cast of mind, much given to examining first principles of conduct. Most of us are entirely too busy earning a living, or else we have little aptitude or liking for any such abstract business.

And yet people of even quite average intelligence, and young as well as old, do philosophize at times. For instance, "Finding is keeping" is a general principle which not a few boys will plead on hearing it suggested that they restore found money or pocket knives. It is very crude philosophizing of course, little more than an attempt to make an agreeable piece of conduct seem entirely reasonable. But it illustrates the fact that people do reflect occasionally, at least, upon the significance of conduct, that they appeal to certain large general considerations, and that the soundness or the unsoundness of whatever reasoning they do has its bearings upon their future choices. Yes, philosophizing of a sort is a common practise even in child life. One object of character education is to induce reflections increasingly wiser and better.

Consider a few common general attitudes. A democratic life requires respect for the unlike. But everywhere in our country a deplorable intolerance exists, the attitude which says, "These outsiders are inferior to us and hopelessly so." Here is one philosophy which is badly in need of examination. Here is another. A group of lads were discussing their teachers. One of them remarked, "I can bluff the whole lot of 'em to a standstill—and then they want to teach *me* how to succeed!" Here was a certain underlying assumption, and a very frequent and dangerous one about the nature of success. Surely it is the business of the school, the home, and

the church to hold a principle like this up to the light, to compare it with better ones, and to help our pupils see more clearly than otherwise what such beliefs mean.

"Mind your own business and don't hurt anybody else." Here is another principle on which young and old act, sometimes unconsciously and sometimes with more or less awareness that this is a good general rule of life. It is much better than another common philosophy: "Everybody for himself regardless of who is hurt." But sooner or later we want our young people to understand still better attitudes, such as "Lend a hand," or the principle which Sir Launfal did not honor until his eyes were opened.

Life, in short, offers our boys and girls a bewildering array of choices. Which kinds of conduct are they to make their own? Are we to leave this important matter to mere chance? Children pick up ideas from one another, from the comic strips, from the movies, from newspaper stories, from the gossip of home and street, from the examples of all sorts of behaviors, high, low, or in between. Amid this variety we can assuredly do much to help them choose understandingly. It is by such understanding choices that all of us grow.

We would count the school a failure if in this modern world boys or girls used an electric light without at least some acquaintance with the principles interpreted in the science room. This knowledge we do not leave at the mercy of accident. We give teachers a special training in the aims and methods of this part of school work. The day will come when we shall have far more teachers than at present, specially trained to guide young people on principles even more fundamental than knowing how atoms behave, namely the business of right behavior for human beings.

Knowledge, of course, is not all. In an ancient Greek theatre when an old man looked about him for a seat, a party of Athenian youths made merry over his difficulties. A group of young Spartans, however, rose to offer him a place. The other group applauded; and the old man remarked, "The Athenians know what is right but the Spartans practise it." To this day there is misconduct enough which can hardly be ascribed to ignorance. But this does not make any less important the attempt to build up a sound philosophy of life. The ever present need is for a knowledge which is warm with the living fire of deeply cherished conviction. If this is not easy to cultivate, it means only that every available help we can offer is none too much.

EDUCATION is guided growth, not only the mastery of habits and skills, but the building of helpful attitudes."

A JOINT PROGRAM OF SUPERVISORY STUDY AMONG PRINCIPALS AND SUPERVISORS[1]

MRS. ELIZABETH C. MORRISS
Director, Adult Elementary Education, Court House, Asheville, North Carolina

PRINCIPALS and supervisors working together in sympathetic understanding of their common problems may hope effectively to improve both the quality and the quantity of instruction in the large rural schools. Working alone, either group will find itself seriously handicapped, both in improvement of teachers inservice and in the securing of efficient teaching results.

The idea of supervision as the prime duty of the principal is being advanced by many educational writers today.

In North Carolina, the principals and the rural supervisors are more and more concentrating their efforts on programs for increasing and making more discriminating the supervisory activities of the principals and of the supervisors. This procedure is necessary for the reason that it is becoming increasingly evident that it is neither practical nor possible for counties to put on a sufficient number of general supervisors to meet all of the supervisory needs of the schools.

These programs of study and of experimentation have two major objectives: (1) the taking over by the principal of the major responsibility for the improvement of the instruction of the individual teacher in the classroom; (2) the initiating of an increasing amount of research and experimentation by the general supervisor.

In Buncombe county, a very simple service study has been made. It is hoped that the simplicity of the procedure may make an appeal to the principal and to the supervisor who feel themselves too overloaded to undertake regular research work.

In this county system with 58 schools, 17 of which are accredited, and 485 teachers, the supervisory set-up is perhaps as nearly adequate as can be undertaken by the average county. There are three full-time supervisors—primary, grammar grade, and high school, and a fourth who devotes half time to the supervision of the elementary day schools and half to the program of adult elementary education.

This means that the average teaching load for each supervisor is 138 teachers. In the elementary grades, these teachers are scattered throughout the county in 58 schools. The average index of scholarship of the teachers in the elementary grades is 5.6 years. In other words, the average training of these teachers is four years of high school and one and a half years of college.

With 138 teachers, the average teaching load for each supervisor is still a third more than the 100 teachers suggested by investigators as a practical teaching load for supervisors when the principals share in supervisory

[1] Undertaken in Buncombe County, North Carolina, in the school year 1928-29, as an accredited course of the University Extension Department, Dr. R. W. Tyler, Instructor.

activities, and 88 more than the 50 teachers recommended as an ideal teaching load. Thus the reader can see the necessity for an increasing amount of supervision by principals.

The chief needs of Buncombe county principals, as seen by themselves, in taking over their share of supervision at the beginning of the 1928 fall term were:

1. More study to overcome deficiencies of preparation and more professional reading for keeping in touch with current, progressive developments in education.
2. A plan of research, whereby new technics may be tried out, experiments conducted, and such records made as to be of usable value to the principal himself and to the other members of his group. Or, in the words of a principal, efficient enough to admit his limitations quite frankly: "We need more time for supervision and more knowledge of what to do when we have the time."

A group of five principals, together with the grammar grade and the elementary supervisor, undertook to attack this problem through some sort of study which would not demand more time than was available. The principals decided they could give from an hour and a half to two hours a week to this study during the entire school year without finding it burdensome, and the supervisors thought they could give four or five hours a week to this phase of the work.

They called in, as consultant, Dr. R. W. Tyler, of the University of North Carolina Extension Department. He suggested to the group that since there was available such a limited amount of time and since there was urgent need for use of the results of the different phases of the study as fast as they developed, that they undertake a *service* study rather than a research study. He suggested also that if they become familiar with the methods of attacking service problems, they would have the key to the solution of all their problems, no matter how much they might differ in kind.

In planning the service study,[1] there are three major steps:

1. Define the actual problem in terms of data that can be readily obtained (things to be collected)
2. Determine where the data may be found (reliable sources, close at hand)
3. Write down the data desired, the sources selected, and the methods by which the data can best be obtained from the sources.

The three major steps involve at least five different elements that are present in any service study. A sixth element, "findings or conclusions," is essential in the actual study but may be disregarded in the preliminary plan:

1. The problem
2. The data needed to investigate the problem
3. The assumptions needed to support the plan of attack
4. The sources to be consulted
5. The technics or methods of obtaining the data from the sources.

These essential features of the service study were discussed in detail. The group decided that it seemed a more practical procedure than any with which they were acquainted.

[1] See *Investigations in Teaching* by Douglas Waples.

They set to work to state their problem. This proved to be a more difficult matter than they had expected it to be. The greatest difficulty, perhaps, lay in narrowing the scope of the problem sufficiently to make its solution attainable in the very limited time available.

After several weeks of curtailment, the following major problem emerged with nine sub-problems in its wake:

I. MAJOR PROBLEM

To set up some attainable objectives in the supervision of the elementary grades by individual principals of 11-grade schools with varying numbers of non-teaching periods and study hall periods in Buncombe County, N. C.

Sub-Problems:

1. To collect best standards, based on expert opinion, for six important supervisory activities of elementary grades by principals.
   - (a) Class visitation and observation
   - (b) Individual conferences with teachers
   - (c) Testing and measuring
   - (d) Demonstration teaching
   - (e) Pupil study and adjustment
   - (f) Teachers' meetings.

   } Selected because most frequently mentioned as important in studies for supervision by principals.
2. To collect examples of present supervisory practise in elementary grades of five county principals in these six activities.
3. To determine which of these six activities needs greatest immediate emphasis in each of the five individual schools.
4. To collect specific difficulties to be overcome in improving the quantity and the quality of supervision in the six activities.
5. To collect efficient methods for overcoming the outstanding difficulties.
6. To set up objective checks for each of the problems studied.
7. To record the findings of the study in such shape that they will carry over into actual supervisory practise in the county.
8. To determine which of the present activities of the principals can be delegated to someone else without loss of effectiveness.
9. To revise the present practise time distribution by eliminating the activities which can be delegated, and including those activities which could be carried on in the time thus saved to the greatly increased effectiveness of the principal's work.

The supervisors, having a larger time allotment for the study, undertook to prepare all needed time distribution blanks and check-lists and to summarize and organize the data assembled from these sources. They also kept all necessary reference material immediately available.

Each principal determined upon the one of the six supervisory activities chosen for study which needed greatest immediate emphasis in his school. Two principals, with very little non-teaching time, chose "individual conferences with teachers," while one who had no teaching periods, chose "class visitation and observation," the remaining two chose "teachers' meetings" for their phase of study.

They then set up their problems and sub-problems, data desired, assumptions, sources for securing data, and methods for obtaining data on these very specific problems. In this way, valuable data and findings on three of the

six major supervisory activities are being collected by the principals, coordinated by the supervisors and put to use by all of the members of the group. The effectiveness of this plan of study is due to the fact that each principal can concentrate upon one major type of supervisory activity. It is possible for him to find time to work out practicable methods for making that one type of supervisory duty more successful than it has been. Furthermore the effective procedures which he works out are more stimulating and helpful to the other principals than procedures described in books or observed in schools in other localities. "If this can be done in a neighboring school in the county," say the principals, "we, too, can develop such a successful program."

The working out of the data desired, assumptions, sources of data, and methods for obtaining data for the problem, as a whole, proved to be of increasing value. They are listed here but probably need no further comment, unless it may be of interest to note that the sources of data were selected on the basis of primacy, accessibility, and reliability.

II. DATA DESIRED

1. Desirable standards for supervision of elementary grades by principals as set up by recognized authorities.
2. Best present practise as measured by these standards.
3. Present practise of principals in supervising elementary grades in Buncombe County and in at least one other North Carolina county.
4. Differences between county present practise and best present practise.
5. Difficulties which cause this variation.
6. Which of these difficulties are, at present, unavoidable and which are remediable?
7. Standard conditions of school system.
8. Remedial measures for overcoming avoidable difficulties.
9. Criteria for remedial measures.
10. Expert advice on methods, procedures, criteria, and findings.

III. ASSUMPTIONS

1. That the supervision of the elementary grades is of increasing importance to every principal in the county.
2. That studies and experiments made by educational authorities on this problem are trustworthy.
3. That diagnosing the difficulties involved as unavoidable or remediable under present conditions will clarify the problem.
4. That seeking and recording remedial measures will help the present situation and open up the way for further study and experiment.
5. That the principals are interested in increasing their ability to give definite help on problems concerned with the improvement of instruction.

IV. SOURCES

(Selection based on primacy, reliability, and availability)

1. Five principals with number of free periods varying from none to seven for specific and detailed data.
2. Twelve additional principals for data on present practise.

3. Primary and grammar grade supervisors in daily contact with principals.
4. University extension course.
5. County superintendent of schools.
6. State supervisors of elementary grades.
7. Studies on supervision by principals made by recognized authorities: *Research Bulletin* of the N. E. A., "The Principal Studies His Job"; *The Seventh Yearbook* of Elementary School Principals; *The American Educational Digest*, Sept. 1928; *Bulletin* of the Department of Elementary School Principals, Jan. 1929; U. S. Office of Education, books and magazine articles; Cubberley, *The Principal and His School;* Gist, *Elementary School Supervision;* O'Shea, *The Child: His Nature and His Needs;* Anderson, Barr, and Bush, *Visiting the Teacher at Work;* Barr and Burton, *Supervision of Instruction;* Kilpatrick, *Foundations of Method;* Burton, *Supervision and the Improvement of Teaching.*

V. METHODS FOR OBTAINING DATA

1. For learning desirable standards and best present practise of elementary grades by principals study *Seventh Yearbook* of Elementary Principals; "The Principal Studies His Job." (N. E. A. *Research Bulletin*, 1928.)
2. For present practise as to time allotment of free periods, examine forms filled out by 20 principals for three weeks with this end in view.
3. For present practise as to supervisory activities of principals examine forms filled out by five principals making an intensive study of the problem.
4. Check present practise as recorded in Buncombe County against best present practise for differences here from best present practise.
5. Supervisors and principals work together in the elementary grades and confer together in order to discover difficulties in supervision.
6. Confer with principals, county and state supervisors and university instructors as to which of the difficulties are remediable and which unavoidable. Also consult the studies of educational authorities as to which of these difficulties were present in their problem.
7. Remedial measures for use of principals for difficulties previously discovered:
   a. A time budget.
   b. A major topic for emphasis for certain weeks or months; as
   c. Objective helps, as, for instance:
      (1) The use of the county handbook to acquaint teachers with lesson planning, improvement of English, teaching children how to study, reduction of retardation, and larger unit study.
      (2) Plan book to put in the hands of teachers to help them in reaching and recording desired results.
   d. A guide sheet for supervision of general schoolroom practises and procedures.
   e. A clearer working knowledge of the accomplishments to be expected in each grade.
   f. A more careful diagnosis of the strengths and weaknesses of individual teachers.
   g. Definite means worked out to care for these strengths and weaknesses; as, carefully planned faculty meetings with this end in view.
   h. Observation in classrooms sometimes with supervisor and university consultant, followed by organization of observations, and carefully planned conference with teacher.
   i. Use of two or more professional magazines for reference work.
   j. Use of books on supervision by principals for reference and guidance.
   k. Definite problems stated to supervisor in order that she may begin immediately to work on problems instead of having to find them.

l. A clearer knowledge of giving and scoring standard tests and how to help teachers make use of results.

m. Participation in grade and group meetings held in school.

n. Such records kept of procedures tried as will be of definite help to other principals having the same problem.

o. The education program of the county for the current year and the agencies available for reaching the objectives as outlined as well as the checks to be applied at the end of the year.

In order to make their supervisory efforts effective, the principals felt it to be important to learn the attitude of the teachers toward the various supervisory activities. If the teachers looked with disfavor on a certain type of supervisory work, the success of this type would be hindered. In such cases, two courses would be open, either to reduce the emphasis upon that type of activity or to attempt to change the attitude of the teachers.

Each of the principals engaged in this study, asked his teachers to rate the six general types of supervisory activities with reference to their desirability from the teacher's point of view. To permit of a greater analysis of their reactions, the teachers also rated each of the nineteen more specific types of supervisory duties. The teachers were not asked to sign their ratings since the concealing of identity would probably promote greater frankness in expressing their real attitude. The ratings of all the teachers were then combined and summarized. These summaries, which follow, provide an interesting outlook on supervision from the teacher's point of view.

TABLE 1.—SUPERVISORY ACTIVITIES RANKED IN ORDER OF DESIRABILITY FROM TEACHERS' STANDPOINT

	General Activities	Rating
1.	Individual conferences with teachers	2.12
2.	Pupil study and adjustment (including consultation with parents)	2.84
3.	Teachers' meetings	3.44
4.	Class visitation and observation	3.84
5.	Demonstration teaching	4.08
6.	Testing and measuring	4.44

TABLE 2.—SUPERVISORY ACTIVITIES RANKED IN ORDER OF DESIRABILITY FROM TEACHERS' STANDPOINT

	Specific Duties	Rating
1.	Hold office hours for teachers seeking help	4.36
2.	Plan with new teachers individually	5.95
3.	Give classroom demonstrations when requested	6.95
4.	Help teachers with broad and suggestive recommendations	7.40
5.	Hold instructional group meetings with new teachers	8.00
6.	Hold friendly personal conference with teacher following visit	8.04
7.	Send out mimeographed lesson helps	8.13
8.	Hold frequent instructional conferences with teacher groups	8.50
9.	Organize inspiration meetings with invited speakers	8.63
10.	Send out mimeographed suggestions for reading and self-help	9.31
11.	Advise and assist in the collection of collateral materials, visual aids, etc.	9.81
12.	Direct classification and instruction to meet individual differences	10.5

13. Personally give prearranged model lesson at teachers' meetings..... 10.6
14. Inspect and make recommendations concerning physical equipment of classroom 11.5
15. Train and direct teachers in consistent use of texts..... 11.6
16. Make silent, friendly classroom visits..... 13.1
17. Organize special experimental work in the evaluation of texts and methods 13.2
18. Give spontaneous demonstrations during visit..... 14.1
19. Encourage invitations from teachers for special visits to their classrooms. 14.4

It is apparent that teachers particularly desire individual help from their principals and supervisors upon their problems, for " individual conferences with teachers " is ranked highest in the first table, while in the second table, " hold office hours for teachers needing help " and " plan with new teachers individually " are ranked highest. On the other hand, they would discourage visits and observations even when, in the second list, the statement is " make silent, friendly classroom visits." This emotional reaction against visits represents a basic problem for improving the effectiveness of classroom visitation and conference.

A further study of these tables will reveal other difficulties and other interesting attitudes. Sufficient description has been given to indicate the use that is being made of these ratings. We can no longer plan our supervisory programs without considering the attitudes and wishes of the teachers to be helped any more than children can be taught without consideration of their interests, prejudices, and desires.

After a group discussion of the attitudes and wishes of the teachers, it was agreed by the principals and supervisors that the needs of the teachers furnish the most logical basis for their supervisory activities. They agreed that these needs can be most effectively met if due consideration is given to the attitudes and wishes of the teachers.

As a first step toward discovering the needs, as seen by themselves, the teachers were asked to make a list of their outstanding difficulties. These lists furnished conclusive evidence that teachers, like principals, supervisors, and most other people, have great difficulty in stating their problems in specific terms.

Realizing this, the teachers were quite responsive to the following suggestions which grew out of the publication, in various papers over the state and county, of the basis on which teachers would be elected to positions.

SUGGESTIONS FOR TEACHERS WHO HAVE DIFFICULTY IN STATING THEIR PROBLEMS

Most teachers, and most people of all kinds, have difficulty in making a clear statement of their problems. It is not easy for them to make the statements specific enough for help to be given readily.

For instance, a teacher may say, " My greatest difficulty is teaching reading." Much more effective help could be given her if she stated her specific difficulties in the teaching of reading; as perhaps:

1. **Making the children independent in word recognition**
2. **Teaching the children to make every day use of the new words they learn.**

Many school committeemen and other school officials of the state have decided to select their teachers for the coming year on the basis of the qualifications listed below.

The teachers will find it helpful to check on this list their chief points of difficulty.

These broad topics may then be subdivided into specific problems with the help of the principal or supervisor. The first topic, "Daily Preparation," has been so divided, though still other individual problems under this head will readily suggest themselves.

The teacher may then write down two or more of the remedial measures for these specific difficulties, which she has tried, stating whether or not they have proved successful.

QUALIFICATIONS OF TEACHERS, EXPECTED BY MANY OF THE SCHOOL COMMITTEEMEN OF NORTH CAROLINA

I. Classroom work:

A. Daily preparation
   1. Planning of lessons (can be subdivided half a dozen times at least)
   2. Keeping up one's own interest and enthusiasm in the lessons to be taught
   3. Planning seatwork of value and interest to all of the children
   4. Finding sources from which children can get needed material or preparing to guide children in the making of the material
   5. Making or securing needed material which the children cannot make or get
   6. Planning to meet the needs of individual children—bright, dull and average

B. Type of instruction
C. Ability to interest pupils in work so that they will advance
D. Classroom management
E. Attitude and conduct of pupils toward school work

II. Professional:

A. Training for work
B. Study during year
C. Application of principles of professional study to classroom work
D. Attitude toward teaching

III. Cooperation with:

Principal, other teachers, county superintendent, county supervisor, and community

IV. General attitude towards school work

Then the teachers wrestled again with the statement of their immediate problems, previously submitted to their principals. This effort to make statements of specific problems more and more definite is being continued and will be steadily continued by teachers, principals, and supervisors. They have come to believe that a problem clearly stated is half solved.

For further guidance in planning their program of activities, the principals and supervisors found definite help in the following suggestions from the study of Douglas Waples on *Teachers' Difficulties as a Basis for Supervision:*

1. To anticipate the teaching difficulties of beginning teachers or of experienced teachers undertaking a new teaching assignment.
2. To help individual teachers recognize the difficulties of which they are only vaguely conscious and to make such difficulties explicit in terms of typical classroom situations.

3. To collect the difficulties which the teachers of a given school, department, or grade are able to define, and to organize the difficulties so as to provide a program for systematic supervision of the group of teachers concerned.
4. To evaluate the difficulties with respect to such criteria as frequency, importance, and seriousness—for the group of teachers concerned.
5. To analyze a given type difficulty into the specific difficulties it involves, in order that the specific difficulties may be more conveniently solved.
6. To collect solutions for the difficulties from available sources and to organize the solutions for the teachers' convenient use.

In group discussions and in individual conferences, the principals found many immediate, usable values in the exchanging of experiences as to the difficulties found and the means used in attacking them as well as in checking on results.

The principal who taught four periods and kept study hall three periods reported that his first difficulty was to find some relief from continual interruptions and to salvage some time for supervision. Careful planning and consultation resulted in the following program:

PROGRAM

(Recitation room and the study hall are near the office door)

1. Let one of the best students sit near the door during recitations and answer any telephone calls and leave number or message on the desk for principal at close of class period, also answer door calls.
2. During all study hall periods, get a competent pupil to study in the office and answer telephone calls and door bells and refer only those messages to the principal that she could attend to properly.
3. Place on bulletin board a schedule of office hours—before and after school.
4. Leave a competent pupil in charge of study hall from 11 to 12 : 15 and use this period for an office or class observation hour. This would enable the principal to attend to all calls from different rooms, to visit those teachers who most need help and to see callers who could not be seen before or after school.

The results were as follows:

1. The office girl answered many calls from parents about children, programs, and lunches, as well as I could have done it.
2. Supplies asked for by teachers were provided by office girl.
3. Many little reports that must be looked after at once could be tabulated and called to principal's notice at close of school.
4. Outside callers were met cordially and asked to wait until office hours. Usually they would do this.
5. Another activity which grew out of this program was for the principal to visit the room of any teacher who he thought needed help, and discover her weakness —discuss it in a tactful and proper way and suggest means of overcoming it. This I did.

With this small amount of time available, individual conferences seemed to be the most logical supervisory tool to be used. The difficulty here was how to make these conferences as effective as possible through preliminary preparation. From consultation and daily experiences, these suggestions evolved and proved to be of practical value:

1. The teacher's attitude shows:
   a. Need for solution of problem
   b. Statement of problem

c. Why problem is submitted to this particular teacher at this particular time
d. Value of the outcomes to the teacher, the pupils, and the school.

2. The teacher's background—physical, mental, emotional, social.
3. School facilities:
   a. Needed by the teacher
   b. Provided for the teacher
   c. Which the teacher may secure for herself.
4. Sources of subjectmatter:
   a. Knowledge needed by the teacher for solving the problem
   b. Knowledge possessed by the teacher
   c. Help to be given by the principal.
      (1) Immediate, from his own experience or studies.
      (2) Suggested sources; as, supervisors, university consultant, teacher problem committee, library, community organizations.
5. Faith that the teacher is interested and will use the suggestions offered. Or, means and devices planned for securing this interest, if doubtful.
6. Release of the teacher from:
   a. A mental attitude which would retard her efforts
   b. Uncertainty as to the specific factors in her problem
   c. Ignorance of remedial measures.
7. Direction of the teacher in securing specific objective goals to be attained by definite dates.
8. Checks planned for these objectives.

One of the most interesting problems attacked through these conferences was that of a teacher who was seemingly unable to secure the cooperation of her pupils. She and the principal took up, point by point, the following means, suggested by Almack and Lang in *The Beginning Teacher* as helpful in developing each of the four important principles underlying success in securing the cooperation of pupils:

I. Keep everyone busy.

A. Make preparation ahead of time to meet the needs of those pupils whose capacity or attainment is not equal to the work assigned.
B. Make preparation ahead of time to meet the needs of those for whom the work is too easy.
C. Make preparation ahead of time to meet the needs of those who have not acquired proper habits of study and attention.
   (1) Find out their special interests and their home background.
   (2) Plan remedial measures that will reach them through these interests before resorting to corrective measures.

II. Build up a good school spirit.

A. Pupil participation in government.
B. Interesting group discussion of proper and improper forms of conduct.
C. A school-service program, with recognition for the deserving.
D. Opening exercises prepared by pupils with desirable character traits as the basis.

III. Maintain the proper personal attitude.

A. A quiet, composed teacher will usually have a quiet orderly school. The successful teacher learns to govern herself.
B. The teacher should never take the act of a mischievous pupil as a personal affront. It should be made clear to the offender that by his bad conduct he has interfered with the work and happiness of others.

C. The successful teacher will handle personally all except isolated and abnormal cases of discipline. If a teacher needs assistance, it should be first in the nature of advice as to what to do. After she has followed good advice and exhausted other resources, then if failure results, she may turn the problem over to somebody else.

IV. Secure permanent values.

NOTE: The immediate values of good discipline are happy children who are making progress in their studies. The permanent values are even more important. They include habits of attention, industry, order and obedience. They comprise courtesy, tact, politeness and consideration of others. They embrace the elements which make up service, cooperation, and leadership.

A. Socialized class activities.
B. Pupil committee on: School tasks, creeds and codes of behavior, playground leadership, classroom beautification, and special day programs.
C. Recognition of achievement.

This principal, in talking with the rest of the group, said:

Those items checked were tried out by the teacher with good results. After working along the lines indicated for a few weeks the following list of punishments was given this teacher and she was asked to check as indicated:

In the following list, check 12 punishments which, in your judgment, are proper and 11 which are improper.

Schoolroom tasks.
Serious talk.
Compulsory apology.
Reproof.
Enforced idleness.
Solitary confinement.
Apology before class.
Restoring damage.
Scolding and nagging.
Isolation from others.
Suspension.
Sending home.
Personal indignities — tying up the mouth, court plastering the lips, gagging, washing out the mouth, making the offender hold heavy objects, stand on one leg, stand in a fixed position, etc.
Notifying parents.
Cuffing upon ears, head, or face.
Rebuke or reprimand.
Expulsion.
Keeping in after school.
Low grading in scholarship.
Loss of privileges.
Threats, ridicule, and sarcasm.
Detention to overcome a piece of neglect.
Corporal punishment.

After this was done, I went over this paper with her and discussed each punishment in its proper relation and made corrections. At the end of the year, this teacher could leave her room when necessary and be assured that the conduct would be all right. Again, whereas this same teacher had been sending from one to many children to the principal every day, for the last two months scarcely any children were sent. Also in these later days, as I went into the room, I found it orderly and the children at work. A wonderful change came over this room. Attribute it to what you may, this problem furnished a real situation. I believe it was worked out in a practical way and that both the teacher and the principal were helped.

The use of test results formed the basis of the faculty meetings held by another principal. After the county tests were graded and returned, a meeting was held for the purpose of making detailed plans for immediate use of the results. It was decided that graphs should be made of each

pupil's standing in class. The pupils should be grouped according to their strengths and weaknesses. A definite period of remedial treatment should be begun.

At the next meeting the graphs were discussed and remedial measures planned. Decisions were made as to just what easy reading material should be supplied, of which pupils case studies should be made, and just what other remedial measures were indicated.

Perhaps the most interesting of this series of meetings was the final one. Each teacher compared notes with the teachers of the grades above and below her own. They discussed in detail what each expected of the pupils who came to her. They conferred together over the records of borderline pupils. As a result, promotions were made more satisfactorily than ever before. Each teacher felt that she would be able to begin the fall term with a better understanding of her incoming pupils than ever before. The meeting closed with a vote to make an intensive study the next year of remedial measures in reading.

Earlier in the year, the faculty meetings had been centered around demonstration teaching of the four types of lessons with special attention to lesson planning as this was to be the theme of the next group center meeting. This principal, in reporting on these meetings to the group, said:

> The best teachers were selected for this teaching. This was especially worthwhile for the new teachers. They were given firsthand information of the best teaching in our school. After these demonstrations, a round-table discussion was held with criticism, pro and con, flying around the table. Every difficulty was discussed. Sometimes information and help were suggested from certain sources known to some of the teachers. An interesting phase of this work was that all teachers were to do some work on the next week's program. For instance, we were to have the appreciation type for our next assignment, with a teacher selected for demonstration. All teachers were to be able to give something worthwhile at the next meeting. Suggestive readings were given. These types were followed up by the principal to find improvement. Teaching became more interesting and a professional spirit was increased. A concrete illustration of this was the exclamation of the teachers on returning from the group center meeting: "Just think! We had just been doing the very things that were discussed at the meeting. We were able to make some firsthand contributions."

The other principal who was working intensively on teachers' meetings tried a somewhat different plan but one of especial interest to his teachers. He and they decided to have demonstration lessons for each other on Tuesday, Wednesday, and Thursday. To study the assigned material in the county reading circle book, and to come together on Friday afternoon for a one and one-half hour conference for discussing the demonstration lessons and their professional readings.

They conferred as to the theme of the coming county group center meeting and planned their demonstration lessons accordingly but with special reference to their own needs. They decided whom each one should observe. A schedule was posted, giving the subject and type of demonstration lesson to be taught, the date, the hour, the teacher, and the visiting teachers' names. From one to three teachers observed in each room.

The problem arose of taking care of the work in each visiting teacher's room. This was solved by asking a high school pupil, who had a study period at that hour, to take charge of the room. These pupils showed genuine interest in preparing to make the hour of value to the children and in line with their day's work and interests.

There were demonstration lessons in reading, language, history, and arithmetic, beginning Tuesday morning and lasting through Thursday.

At the conference period on Friday, each teacher was present and took a much more active part in the discussions than in any previous meeting. They had gained a much clearer idea as to what a meeting may mean when problems similar to those to be taken up have been worked through and discussed.

An outgrowth of this discovery was a plan for their meetings the following year. They decided that in order to get the greatest possible value from group and grade meetings the next year, they would plan the following program:

1. Gain a clear idea of the purposes and essential features of the group and grade meetings at least two weeks ahead of the date of the meeting.
2. Carry through activities of the same nature as those to be considered at the meeting.
3. Make statements, as definite as possible, of the problems encountered and their attempted solutions.
4. Make notes at the meeting of specific helps gained there.
5. Plan and carry through a follow-up meeting in their own school two weeks later.

Through the close and frequent contacts brought about by those meetings already held, the principal gained a much more definite idea of the strengths and weaknesses of the teachers.

The principal who was concentrating his efforts on classroom visitation and observation decided to adapt the case study technic to help one of his teachers. When he had made the study and had begun the use of remedial measures, he found her cooperative but not alertly interested. The first thing that seemed to catch and hold her attention was this problem exercise, adapted from *Problem Exercises for High School Teachers* by Douglas Waples to a concrete situation in her grade:

Assume that a boy of average ability in the seventh grade leaves the school during the morning session, without explanation or permission and refuses to listen to a pupil whom the teacher sends to ask his return, remaining away until after the noon recess. It becomes necessary for the teacher to establish her authority. Consider the following procedures by which this might be done:

1. By asking him to leave the room and stay out until he has apologized to the teacher and made it clear that he will not repeat the offense.
2. By threatening corporal punishment on the spot if the apology is not made at once.
3. By sending the boy to the principal's office with a note of explanation.
4. By swinging class opinion including the culprit's against such conduct by showing in detail how it has interfered with the rights of all of the class.
5. By having pupil lose privileges which he values.
6. By notifying his parents.

Directions:

a. Write the number of the procedure you consider most efficient.
b. Write the number of the procedure you consider least efficient.
c. List two procedures which you have used in a similar case, giving details and results.
d. There is a procedure, not listed here, which has brought successful results to many teachers in similar cases. Talk with other teachers and state the consensus of opinion on what this other procedure may be.

After working on this and several other problem exercises, she seemed to realize more fully her own needs and now frequently asks for help.

This same principal used the case study in helping a teacher with a little fellow retarded in arithmetic. He stood at the head of the fourth grade in everything except arithmetic. In that he was below foot. Information from every angle of the study was good, except that, in his own words, arithmetic was to him "just a jumbled up mess of numbers."

Remedial instruction was offered to him thirty minutes a day for eight weeks. He himself was interested as much as the teacher, so that all effort was concentrated on finding the most helpful methods of instruction. It was soon found that under careful guidance he could get accurate results, but that unguided, he would get impossible results. Stress was placed chiefly on (a) exposing him to numbers in many concrete forms; (b) increasing his number experience; (c) providing for him continued practise; (d) and restraining him from too hasty conclusions.

Some devices which were tried and which appealed to him were (a) keeping attendance record for his grade; (b) relay games; (c) "elder brothers" from upper grades choosing him for score-keeper in playground games; (d) keeping a 5 and 10 cent store; (e) making original problems; (f) making a progress book, and several others. At the end of the eight weeks he had mastered the multiplication facts, and worked without error in six minutes nine problems similar to 867 plus 927 plus 342.

The results were very gratifying and continued progress was made until the close of the term. His standard test revealed the astonishing fact that he had climbed in arithmetic from a grade of 2.8 at the close of the previous term to a grade of 4.4 at the close of the present term, and his educational grade being 4.8. Thus he had almost "caught up with himself."

Genuinely interested in the success of these remedial measures, the study group asked this principal to give them, somewhat in detail, his plan for carrying out his program of classroom visitation and observation. His reply was:

I had already made a preliminary survey and had some idea of the work going on in each room. Through these visits I was making myself acquainted with the type of work being done by the teachers. As I had nothing very definite in mind. I did not see very much room for improvement, so usually I came away with nothing but commendation for the teacher and her class—much of it being deserved, at that.

However, if there was nothing more to it than that, what was the use of my job? I began immediately to propound questions to Mrs. Morriss and Dr. Tyler, who defined my problem more clearly and gave me much light. I began to read such books as: Barr and Burton's *The Supervision of Instruction,* Cubberley's *The Principal and His School,* O'Shea's *Everyday Problems, The Principal Studies His*

Job, and others. I saw at once that I must have some information which I did not have. Barr and Burton tell me that the only aim of supervision is the improvement of instruction. Barnes, in his *Rural School Management,* intimated the same thing. The same idea prevails in *The Principal Studies His Job,* as well as in many other books on the subject. Therefore, in the beginning, I accept this as the answer to my first subproblem: "The true aim of all supervision is the improvement of instruction." So, whatever I do in this line must be for the improvement of instruction, or it is not supervision.

Cubberley in *The Principal and His School* tells me that "classroom visits need to be planned carefully" and "the principal must lay out in his own mind what it is he wants to see and do, know why he wants to see it and what he will do with the results." Therefore, I began to make a study of just what I should have in mind as I enter the classroom. I realized at once that I could not do the teacher any good unless my attitude toward her and her work was very sympathetic. My visits must not be merely of the inspection type. In order that she may have the proper attitude toward me and my visits, my attitude toward her must be very friendly and helpful. My criticism must be constructive, not destructive. My understanding with her as I go into her room must be something on this order: "This is your job and mine. If your pupils fail, it is not yours and their failure alone, but mine also. I am not here as an inspector but a helper. This is our job. Let's do it together and succeed together."

The principals and supervisors thus completed their discussions of some of the outstanding difficulties encountered during the study, the methods used in attacking them, and the results obtained.

In their last two meetings together, interest centered on the delegation of duties to others and the supervisory activities which may be carried on in the time thus saved and, last of all, on their conclusions growing out of the study.

The activities which this group thinks can be delegated to someone else with no detriment to the school program are:

1. Making out reports
2. Typing, cutting stencils, mimeographing, filing
3. Answering the telephone
4. Giving out supplies
5. Distributing milk
6. Gathering needed information from various classrooms
7. Keeping, filing, and sending out certain records
8. Giving information to visitors
9. Check on supplies
10. Keeping of study hall
11. Handling miscellaneous finances (milk money, plays, etc.)
12. Some of the routine work in connection with tardies and absences.

The supervisory activities which they think can be carried on in the time thus saved are:

1. Visit and observe daily in classrooms.
2. Hold conferences with individual teachers.
3. Learn the teachers' difficulties.
4. Through closer, more frequent and more purposeful contacts, help more promptly and more effectively in overcoming the difficulties.
5. Hold office hours for teachers seeking help.
6. Assist in securing and in collecting materials.
7. Teach in certain grades in order to make it possible for the teachers to observe outstanding teachers at work.

8. Help the teachers prepare for getting the most help possible from their observation in other classrooms.
9. Check with these teachers on the results of their visits and help them in adapting their observations to their own problems.
10. Help in giving standard and informal tests.
11. Help teachers in making use of test results.
12. Do more professional reading and studying.
13. Pass on to the teachers helpful references in books and magazines for their specific problems.
14. Help the teachers in stating their "impossible" problems, so definitely and clearly that the supervisor can join promptly and effectively in finding a solution.

At the final meeting, the principals put down their "convictions" in writing:

We are convinced:

1. That the principal must prepare himself more thoroughly for supervision.
2. That the principal has more time for this duty than he has been willing to admit.
3. That the matter of attitude plays an important part in this duty.
4. That classroom visits should be based on the difficulties of teachers and that visitation and observation should be definitely planned.
5. That individual conferences can be made doubly effective by careful preliminary preparation and a wisely thought-out follow-up.
6. That teachers' meetings can be made to carry over into definite improvement in classroom practises. That this can be accomplished by preliminary preparation, which shows the teachers the relationship of the meeting to their specific problems and by an interesting follow-up to make sure that adaptations have been made.
7. That no matter which phase of supervision is centered on for intensive study, all of the other phases are almost inevitably included.
8. That there are not so many impossible problems as we have been accustomed to believe. But that the combined effort of teacher, principal, supervisor, and child will usually find a solution.
9. That many pitfalls may be anticipated and prevented by reflective thinking.
10. That the teacher who objects to constructive supervision should be weeded out.
11. That general supervisors are worth just what teachers and principals will let them be but are indispensable to a wide-awake school system.
12. That our service study, through our reflective thinking, has brought theory into the realm of our every-day experiences.

All of the members of the group feel that in making this study they have made for themselves a supervisory tool, a homely sort of tool but made by themselves with the interested help of teachers, supervisors, children, and university instructor. They find that they can use it more deftly than if it were more finished but less familiar. Having made it themselves, they have been surprised by its practical effectiveness and by the amount of indefiniteness it has cleared away. They are keenly interested in making another supervisory tool, with still more help from the teachers and from the children.

Are you interested in supervision? See the Editorial Committee's announcement on pages 124-5.

HEALTH EDUCATION—SOME ENCOURAGING FEATURES

JOHN H. BEVERIDGE
Superintendent of City Schools, Omaha, Nebraska

ONE of the outcomes of health education is the lengthening of the span of human life. The following encouraging data shows an increase in the span of life for the nine-year period between 1900 and 1921:

In 1900—average span of life was 49 years
In 1910—average span of life was 51 years
In 1920—average span of life was 55 years
In 1921—average span of life was 58 years

Those who have made careful study of infant mortality tell us that a child, having reached the age of five years, has a life expectancy of 62 years.

A second outcome of health education should be the development of such habits as will enable the child to enjoy the life he is living. There is little value in merely learning facts about health. One should learn to practise good health habits.

The schools have contributed something by having children learn well established regulations concerning good health and physical welfare, for every idea put into the mind has a tendency to work itself out, but the maximum is accomplished by having children put these ideas into practise.

Rhythm plays an important part in the lives of children. It is well for the child to learn simple little jingles such as:

Here I stand
  By the wall
Look at me
  See how tall

I shall gain
  I shall grow
If I eat
  Good food you know.

However, the check up must be made. Height and weight graphs should be kept so that children may know what progress is being made. This is the way proper health habits are formed. It is encouraging to see the splendid work teachers and school nurses are doing in the follow-up work that puts good health ideas into practise.

It is a fine thing to have children report on what they actually do in the way of observing proper rules and regulations relating to their own physical welfare—such as number of hours of sleep, number of hours of recreation, number of hours of rest they take, types of food they eat, record of time spent daily in the open air, proper ventilation of sleeping rooms, etc.—not that all standards may be observed exactly, but that the child may become interested in his own physical welfare, that his parents may become interested also, and thus the child and the parents, working with the school, may establish a series of habits that make for physical efficiency.

While the outcome of health education should be keeping well rather than becoming well, we are confronted with the fact that children do have physical defects and that much remedial work must be done. The growth in the idea of having a nursing staff for both city and rural schools has developed actual interest in the physical welfare of children. Through this means physical defects are discovered and remedied. Dental clinics over the country have shown their interest in examining children's teeth and indicating the treatment necessary to the end that the health of children has been greatly improved. It is a wellknown fact that the mouth is the chief carrier of disease. It is encouraging to note the interest taken by the dental profession in promoting the health of children and to note how rapidly dental clinics are growing. It is our business to cooperate.

We find encouragement again in the closer coordination manifested between the Departments of Health and Physical Education in the school systems. For example, those who enter vigorous physical contests are required to take physical examinations and have the consent of their parents and a physician before engaging in such contests.

In those physical contests that are wholesome, a larger and larger number of pupils participate to the good of the entire school rather than to the welfare of a few. Recently I observed more than 1000 elementary school girls, who had participated in volley ball contests, come together in one group meeting and hold a final contest and social gathering, and have a social contact beneficial to all concerned. One feature of this affair was to have several representatives each wear a costume that would represent some good substantial book. Their interest was thus carried over from the physical education department to social education.

The introduction into the physical education department of remedial work, emphasizing good posture, grace and ease of manner and bearing, is an encouraging feature in this department.

The interest that both elementary and high-school pupils are taking in the sanitary conditions of the communities in which they live has raised the standard of health and education, and has helped to build ideas regarding health that will make for better citizenship and be of benefit to these people in properly planning for their leisure time.

The emphasis that is being placed upon the study of health education is significant. The goals of health education as set up in the Sixth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association are as follows:

1. To establish health habits and standards.
2. To instill a working knowledge of practical facts relating to cleanliness and sanitation, food, fresh air, rest, exercise, games, sports, and other types of recreation, the causes of preventable diseases, and the means of checking them.
3. To build ideals regarding health, beauty, and service for self, school, and community that will result in better living, including proper use of leisure time.
4. To develop the individual's sense of his responsibility, not only for his own health, but for that of the community in which he resides.

There is also an increased interest in the subject of mental health. May I call your attention to an article by Daniel W. LaRue, "Mental Health and the Principal," found on page seven of the October issue of this Bulletin. This article is an illustration of such interest and says that "ultimate health is mental health" and admonishes, "live as you would be lived with." Mr. LaRue states that teachers believe that "tact" is the first qualification of the school principal. Consider the best and most efficient executives you know. Are they not, for the most part, men and women of good physical and mental health?

A recent investigation shows that the absence of teachers, due to illness, cost the city of Cleveland, Ohio, $300,000 in one year. This may not be great for so large a city as Cleveland, but it is significant. This, with other studies of a similar kind, has forced upon us the importance of the physical welfare of the teacher.

But still more important than the financial value of regular attendance to duties is the educational value of having teachers who radiate health and vigor—teachers who are dynamic, alert, and buoyant. The promotion of teachers is an obligation of educational administration. As a result of three separate studies made relative to the health of teachers, recommendations were made which practically agree in the following:[1]

1. That conditions of schools include rest places and rest time for teachers, proper ventilation, cleanliness, adequate lunch facilities.
2. That better facilities be provided for physical activities and recreation of teachers.
3. That definite efforts be made to find adequate living quarters for teachers.
4. That selective physical examination be given to all applicants before employment—this examination to be followed by instructions on how to keep well.
5. That probationary health periods be fixed for correction of remediable defects.
6. That provision be made by educational authorities for health supervision and guidance of teachers with periodic health examinations and advice concerning matters of personal health.
7. That adequate provision for retirement be put on a permanent basis.
8. That salaries be based on a decent and adequate standard of living.
9. That health insurance and sick leave be provided, and that teachers who are unfit for effective work be required to take sufficient time for recovery.
10. That records of teachers' absences be kept. That an annual analysis of the absences be made to determine the causes which impair the health of teachers.
11. That every teacher in training be given a thorough physical examination upon entrance by a competent physician with a "health positive" attitude. That instruction and training be given in personal hygiene and health education.
12. That conditions of supervision be made consistent with the policy of health promotion among teachers.

Laws of a number of states require that cases of "radium poisoning" be properly reported.

Several states have made certain occupational diseases compensatable under the Workmen's Compensation Act; New York state is an example. This state reported 1438 cases of occupational disease and poisoning in the year closing June, 1926. Many industries are making eliminations of in-

[1] *Health Trends in Secondary Education*—Child Health Association, 370 Seventh Avenue, New York City, p. 46-47.

jurious substances and substituting harmless ones. For example, white phosphorus has all but been eliminated in the manufacture of matches; the use of radium paint for making luminous dials on watches is being seriously questioned.

According to Dr. Raymond Pearl, hard physical labor, after the age of forty often brings premature death, or at least shortens the life of the individual. Caution is necessary. Many of us may have to revise the slogan: "Hard work never kills anyone." We are learning that subjecting ourselves to work in greatly varying temperatures endangers life, and that hot and heavy work after the age of forty should be avoided.

In the last two decades great improvement in mortality has taken place among wage earners. About five years have been added to the life expectancy of every "industrial worker at the age of twenty."

It is encouraging to see the interest manifested in prolonging the lives of industrial workers by manufacturers and by most industries. Attention to conditions under which people work, provision for physical recreation, periods of rest, proper conveniences, better food for lunch—all spell better health.

The interest shown by President Hoover in his remarks to the White House Conference Committee on July 29, 1929, shows the significance he attaches to health education. He said in part, "We should take national stock of the progress and present situation in health and the protection of children, that out of this investigation we should also develop common sense plans for further advancement in these directions. . . . . The greatest asset of a race is its children, and their bodily strength and development should prepare them to receive the heritage which each generation should bequeath to the next. . . . . By the safeguarding of health, and the protection of childhood, we further contribute to that equality of opportunity which is the unique basis of American civilization."

Out of this conference has come a main division on Medical Service and Public Health Administration, with four subdivisions each working toward the physical betterment of the child. Watch this committee's work, its investigation, reports, and recommendations.

AS I SEE IT, and as I am sure you appreciate it, health is that condition in which we have the greatest freedom for the exercise of all our faculties for the enjoyment and for the work of life. It affords us the opportunity to do what we wish to do and to go whither we desire to go, within the limits imposed by heredity, and our past experiences. Now, at the present day, this definition will answer very well as the aim of *all* education, and it is but logical that the educator has taken it upon himself to see that the child has the maximum of fitness, physically as well as mentally, for his work and play in school and in after life.—James Frederick Rogers, M. D., U. S. Office of Education.

SOME USES OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL ASSEMBLIES

REBECCA J. COFFIN
The Lincoln School of Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City

ASSEMBLIES for the purpose of sharing experiences have been a very real part of the life of the Lincoln School from its beginning in 1917. A class wished to tell the school about a study which it had made or to present a play. Plans needed to be made by the school for Christmas giving. Someone—parent, teacher, or child—knew of an explorer, painter, musician, or poet whose contribution would very much enrich the life of the school. These and numerous other real purposes in sharing formed the beginnings of the development of assemblies. At first, meetings were called at irregular intervals, but these soon became so important in the life of the school that a regular weekly hour was included in the program. At this same time a committee of staff members was appointed to study the uses of assemblies and ways of improving them. As an outgrowth of these beginnings there is at present an assembly committee composed of one child from each class from the third grade through the sixth grade with a teacher-advisor, which reports at times to the Elementary School Council.[1]

Among the changes in practise that have come about through experience is that of limiting the audience and the time to fit the situation. Kindergarten, first, and second grade children seldom participate in a general assembly now because of overstimulation and confusion on the child's part. An assembly which is simple enough and short enough for a first-grade child is generally not stimulating to a sixth-grade child, and one that is worthy of a sixth-grade child in content and organization is nearly always too mature for a first-grade child. Sometimes two or more groups of the younger children have an assembly together in one of their own rooms, where the vastness and strangeness of a large assembly room does not overcome them when they are making their contributions.

A study of assembly programs over a period of years shows that they fall into rather definite groups in which special values inhere. *Programs growing out of classroom studies* form one large grouping. The presentation of a classroom study (or unit of work) on aviation by a sixth grade calls for a careful consideration of the medium through which to present the materials—shall it be a debate as to which country leads in aviation? Shall it be a series of talks with demonstrations, illustrative materials, and charts? Or shall the pupils write a play embodying their ideas in dramatic form? Shall the fifth grade present their study of the evolution of water transportation through a series of paintings and talks, shall they impersonate leading men in navigation, or shall they give poems, dances, and songs related to sea-life? The desire to show to others the interesting work done

[1] See p. 12-21 *Curriculum Making in an Elementary School* by the Staff of the Elementary Department of the Lincoln School of Teachers College, published by Ginn and Company, 1927.

in their class inspires each group to ingenuity.[1] The reorganization of a class study may call for interpretation through another medium. This serves to select and to fix useful information. Not the least among the values in the presentation of class studies as assembly programs is the natural use made of various forms of expression such as the planning and making of costumes, the building and painting of scenery, the planning and writing of the content of a play, and the managing of the stage.

Other programs group themselves around *problems that have to do with the life of the school.* At these assemblies ways of improving the lunch hour may be discussed; a council meeting may be held, or the children new to the school in the fall may meet for discussion of phases of the school which interest or puzzle them. These assemblies go far in developing a spirit of good-fellowship which comes through sharing common responsibilities. Here, too, the younger and the older members come to appreciate and understand each other. Very valuable suggestions bearing on different phases of organizing the life of the school have grown out of assemblies of this type.

The occasional *programs by specialists and artists* are planned primarily to bring about further appreciation and give keen pleasure in some field in which there is already interest as in the cases where Miss Rose Fyleman read some of her poems, and Miss Constance Lindsay Skinner told how she wrote her books. This type of assembly also sets high standards of artistic excellence.

Sometimes there are *assemblies for practise.* These serve to bring to a number of classes an appreciation for a complete program and to give the experience of fitting single parts into a whole. Outstanding class shortages are noted for further class work. The time is not used for teaching words or for detailed drill; this is done in the class period. This type of assembly is most often for music practise.

The assembly committee is responsible for planning dates for those wishing to give assemblies, for keeping in touch with teachers and pupils as to what topics they would like to see presented, for making any special arrangements for lighting, decorating, disposing of materials, etc., and also for keeping balance in the year's programs.

Progressive schools everywhere are concerning themselves with further developing the aspects of their work which contribute to socialized living.[2] This is interpreted to include organized living in the school as a community. The Lincoln School is constantly examining its assembly programs with this thought in mind. Following is a partial list of such programs grouped from this standpoint.[3]

[1] *Ibid.*, p. 100-111 for Miss Avah Hughes' detailed account of how the Wheat Play developed in a Second Grade.

[2] See "The Morning Exercise as a Socializing Influence." *Francis W. Parker School Yearbook.* Chicago, 1913. This contains a discussion of the theory of assemblies, materials and programs for many assemblies and illustrations.

[3] From "Some Uses of Elementary School Assemblies" in preparation by the Lincoln School of Teachers College, New York City.

1. Assemblies to develop school community life

A Dream in the Library. Developed to show how the library should be used. Described in "The Lincoln School Library," p. 14. Published by the Lincoln School

A creative work period assembly

A summer work exhibit assembly

The assembly as a means of planning a school activity

2. Assemblies to develop appreciation of social and industrial cooperation

A study of records—A program given by a sixth grade showing how human records have developed from the cairn to presentday methods of record keeping.

A textile assembly

An assembly on shelter (See Illustrative Programs)

New York City—A second grade dramatized some aspects of life in the play city which they built

3. Assemblies to develop appreciation of other people

Christmas in other lands—Christmas stories from Sweden, Spain, France, and Germany were told and carols of these countries sung in the original language

Africa: A travel talk given by one of the fathers who had just returned from an educational mission to Africa

The Little Dawn Boy—An American Indian play given by the second grade

4. Assemblies to develop appreciation of science

The Lincoln Nature Corporation—An account given by the fifth grade of their experiments in raising pedigreed canaries and white rats—nutrition experiments in the feeding of the rats, with charts showing results.

A study of fossils (reported by a third grade)

Experiments in science

A food assembly

Birds (A talk by the high-school biology teacher)

Primary assembly on electricity

Kite flying (See Illustrative Programs)

Aviation (sixth grade)

5. Assemblies to develop appreciation for the esthetic

A. Literature

"The Magic Fish Bone" (a dramatization by a sixth grade)

"Odysseus" (a dramatization by a fifth grade)

Ballad assemblies

How we use books

Christina Rosetti assembly

A puppet play

A favorite book assembly

B. Art

A study of pottery—Demonstrations and talks by representatives from the third grade through the sixth grade.

C. Music

A creative music assembly—A symphony given by all of the children of the fourth, fifth, and sixth grades. Many of them used instruments they had made.

Song assemblies

The Norfleet Trio—Two concerts were given by artists on stringed instruments

D. Rhythmic plays and dances—Folk-songs and dances given by Grade IV
Original dances.
A rhythm assembly—These rhythms were selected from among many which had been developed in the physical education classes

6. Assemblies to commemorate anniversaries

Lincoln—A talk given to the entire school by a man who is an authority on Lincoln
A Thanksgiving assembly
The Christmas story dramatized
A Columbus play

"The ideal is one of vital school meetings where pupils learn to share their interesting experiences, to express themselves intelligently, easily and naturally, and where they grow toward high standards of comradeship, citizenship, appreciation, and scholarship through cooperative efforts in school affairs."[1]

ILLUSTRATIVE PROGRAMS

ASSEMBLY ON SHELTER

(Under the direction of the Industrial Arts Department. Arrangement and management by Ninth Grade boys)

Introductory Statement.....Grade IX
Our Doll Houses.....Grade I
Our City.....Grade II
Our Castle.....Grade III
How We Made Bricks and Concrete in the Fourth Grade.....Grade V
Reading House Plans.....Grade VII—Girls
Elementary Frame Construction.....Grade VII—Boys
Exterior and Interior Finish of Houses.....Grade VIII—Boys
Modern Buildings (Illustrated by Lantern Slides).....Grade IX—Boys

A. The Zoning System
B. Contributions from the Past
C. Our Finest Buildings

KITE ASSEMBLY

(By Sixth Graders)

I. Introduction
Beginnings
II. A Chinese Legend
III. Kite Flying in Other Countries
IV. Kite Flying in the United States
For Sport
For Scientific Purposes
V. Benjamin Franklin's Experiences with Kites
VI. Our Experiences
1. Construction—framework, geometry applied, covering kites
2. Flying Our Kites
What Makes a Kite Fly
The Beaufort Scale of Wind Force
3. Our Tournament

[1] Some Uses of School Assemblies, published by the Lincoln School of Teachers College, 425 West 123rd Street, New York, 1922. (Out of print)

THANKSGIVING

I. Four Songs of Harvest-time sung by children in Grades I and II

Now to the Meadows
Out in the Orchard
Pretty Little Johnny
The First Bouquet

II. "We Think of the Harvest Festivals of Other Peoples" contributed by children in Grades III-VI

The Hebrew Hymn of Thanksgiving
Harvest Customs of Ancient Peoples
The Pilgrims' Thanksgiving
An Indian Hymn of Praise

III. We Tell of the Things for Which We Are Thankful in Our Own Hymn of Praise (See "Our Hymn of Thanksgiving" below)

Song, "Come, Ye Thankful People, Come."

OUR HYMN OF THANKSGIVING[1]

Child: We give thanks for the beautiful country that lies around us.
We give thanks for the grains and vegetables and fruits prepared for us.
We give thanks for the rain that falls and the sun that shines down upon us.
And we give thanks for the growing trees and flowers about us.
We thank God for the mountains that tower above us and for the rocks that give us shelter and give us beauty.
We give thanks for the sky above us and the earth below us and the birds that fly between earth and sky.
We give thanks for the cloth to make sails and the wood to make boats to sail on the waters.

Chorus: Thanks to Thee, O God, we give,
For the food by which we live.
May we eat our bread with joy,
And our strength for good employ.

Child: We give thanks for the little streams that flow.
We give thanks for the tide that rises and lets us go out in our boats.
We give thanks for the sea with fishes in it.
We give thanks for the warm clothes and beds and houses to live in.
We give thanks for schools to learn in.
We give thanks for the beauty and love all around us.
We give thanks for all the things that the Lord has set upon the earth.

Chorus: Thanks to Thee, O God, we give,
For the food by which we live.
May we eat our bread with joy,
And our strength for good employ.

[1] This Hymn of Thanksgiving was a composite production prepared for use in the Thanksgiving Assembly by Grade III. The teacher asked the pupils what they thought should go into our hymn of thanksgiving. The following shows the finished hymn which the children arranged from their original suggestions.

THE EXTRACURRICULUM PROGRAM IN A SMALL COMMUNITY

By Emerson Guy Greenawalt
Supervising Principal, Susquehanna, Pennsylvania

A SCHOOL administrator who would introduce an extensive program of extracurriculum activities in a small community of limited finances and conservative ideas must possess courage, tact, and a wealth of imagination. The very fact that the community is conservative indicates that the citizens, at least the leaders, cling to old traditions and practises. Therefore, the innovator at once places himself in a position for criticism. This requires courage, but that his courage may not turn out to be foolhardiness, he also needs tact. He dare not resent the criticism and censure of his would-be opponents. He must regard them as his future supporters. They are his prospects. To them he must sell his program. This will necessitate that he draw generously on his store of imagination.

Two factors are involved: First, the administrator must have a program—one that he can justify in the face of sound educational philosophy and practise; second, he must be determined, in the very striking language of baseball, to "put it across." His program must be vital, in order to grip the imagination of the children; that is, it must tend to come in contact with, and draw out, the aptitudes, capacities, and inclinations of the pupils. No greater avenue of approach into the homes of the parents exists than through the interest and enthusiasm of the children. His personality must be large enough to arrest the attention and arouse the interest of the teachers; for since the finances of the district are limited, the teachers must assist, individually and collectively, in carrying out the executive's plans. Consequently, he must be sincere in his purpose, wholehearted in his interest, and perfectly willing and able to assist the teachers whenever the need arises. At times he must do more than direct the teachers in their efforts; he must even train the children. He ought to have enough skill and imagination to place himself in dramatic situations, for instance, present a sample bit of acting for the inspiration and guidance of the young people who are to be trained.

Seven years ago the author of this article undertook the development of a program of extracurriculum activities in a small Pennsylvania German community of twenty-five hundred people. The initial attempt included an operetta, a school play, and a May Day festival. A partime teacher of music trained the students for the operetta. The administrator himself coached the boys and girls in the play and directed the health games and dances for the festival.

The director's part in arranging for the May Day exercises consisted largely in encouraging each teacher to properly train the pupils in his own individual group, and then to organize and coordinate the entire production. The element of competition inspired the teacher and his pupils to do their very best, so that the first May Day festival of the public schools of this

community was a success. The May Day festival, or pageant, has ever since been an annual affair in the district, and it has become quite popular with the people of the community, as is evidenced by the fact that two thousand persons attend each year to see their children, six hundred in number, take part in the pageant staged on the diamond and green of the local ball park.

The pageant is two hours of entertainment to the people who attend; it is six weeks, or two months, of rehearsing for the classroom teacher; but for the children themselves it is life. They live for it from one year's end to the other. It is a colorful and eventful day in their experience.

As they sit on the greensward viewing the total pageant—with its story, its action, its picturesque dress, the evident enjoyment of its participants, and its wonderful beauty—it creates imagination.

It inspires in them a greater delicacy of taste. It teaches them to play and dance together in harmony. It gives grace to their bodily movements. It produces confidence, and takes selfconsciousness away from them. In brief, the pupils in the pageant learn to be at ease in the company of their fellows and in the eyes of the public. To say that the annual pageant means better health is not sufficient argument to convince the community. Games on the playground may be counted on for that, so far as the people can see. These various other factors must be pointed out by the administrator; directed play must be emphasized—directed play with a definite purpose, an ultimate goal, such as a public exhibition. This the children will appreciate. It will vitalize their work; their interest will become genuine. The results will then be assured, for they will convince their parents.

The teacher, too, needs to see that the training of his pupils for the pageant may, and should, become a part of his health program. There is a place in his calisthenics and directed play for the folk dance. It will afford a delightful variation to the regular routine. Children love music. In the classroom they are taught to sing and to appreciate beautiful folk songs. Why should they not care to play in time to these attractive airs on the playground?

Once the teacher considers pageant material a means of health training on the playgrounds, or in the gymnasium periods, he will not only find the burden of playground duties considerably lighter, because the children naturally like to express themselves through dances and group games; but also that, if they are allowed a margin of freedom, they will express themselves in such a manner that he may even improve upon the material offered by the author of the manuscript. It is scarcely too much to be expected that the teachers and pupils in cooperation, and to music, may become authors of games and dances for their own pageants, as a part of their playground activities. Thus, pageantry on the playground may discover and train creative spirit.

Since the pageant starts training pupils in the first grade, and through successive stages advancing in degree of difficulty from grade to grade, it becomes the basic extracurriculum activity of the school. Its product con-

tributes towards the success not only of athletic sports, but of the operetta, the play, and insofar as poise, grace, and selfpossession are concerned, in debate, in declamations, and in oratorical contests. Besides, the preparatory work in getting the pageant ready, in the field of physical education, a correlated program of health exercises, and of directed games and dances should be carried out on the playground and, lacking gymnasium facilities for inclement weather, in the school corridors.

Furthermore, public school performances tend to establish a more vital contact between the people of the community and their schools. Excellence in this department creates public interest by arousing in parents and taxpayers in general a consciousness of personal ownership. Their schools and their children are entertaining. The talent represents their own blood and their own relationship. The training is due to teachers and facilities furnished by their own taxes and their own initiative. That which was but an innovation only a few years since, now becomes an essential part of firmly established local customs and traditions.

The most stubborn objector to extracurriculum activities will attend a parent-teacher association meeting, or a transfer or commencement exercise, provided his own child is to participate in the program. Likewise, he will patronize a play if his child is an actor. Visiting day at school will always be well-attended if the children present some form of special entertainment. Parents like to know that their children are able to do things—that they excel in certain fields of interesting endeavor.

The more that the school administrator can show that the extracurriculum activities correlate closely with the regular work of the classroom, the quicker he can sell his idea to the public. As with the pageant and its connection to the health work of the school, so the annual school play should be of such a literary character that it could be, at least partly, rehearsed in the English class, as a feature of the daily lesson plan. For the other part, it should afford additional English training to those who possess mental ability above the average of the class.

School dramatics should never be thought of as a vehicle for discovering professional dramatic talent in a community, and developing professional dramatic skill in one or two selected students. They should endeavor to cultivate in the students in general a higher dramatic appreciation—to render the individual more competent in the selection of the type of plays which are to entertain him during his leisure moments. They should teach impersonation of character and interpretation of thought and feeling to a selected few who will, perhaps, be called upon to act in, or to direct, home-talent or school plays. The entire program of school dramatics should have as its underlying philosophy a conscious effort to raise the community's level of dramatic appreciation.

The civic club, the chamber of commerce, the church, and all local, school, or religious organizations will have need of people who are trained to serve as officers, entertainers, and public speakers. The extracurriculum program of a school system tends to increase efficiency in these capacities.

Public speaking alone is a large contributing factor. It not only trains children to appear in public to interpret selections of prose or poetry, or to discuss problems of interest and importance in a clear and convincing tone of voice, but it induces the audience to listen to and appreciate public speaking. Great good is derived by all from hearing speakers practise correct pronounciation and enunciation in English expression.

During the past year 37 percent of the high-school students in the small community used as an example took part in a declamation contest to select a school representative for the county contest. More than five percent competed in the local eliminations of the international oratorical contest; 40 percent sang in the mixed chorus at the first annual musicale. In plays and the operetta 55 percent appeared on the stage. These activities were all elective, and the dramatic casts were selected by trial. School athletics include football, baseball, track, and tennis. Approximately 45 percent of the student body engaged in these activities.

A very important activity under process of development is the homeroom program. Its importance lies in the fact that it trains for a worthy use of leisure time, both people to entertain and people to be entertained. The performer and the auditor are given an opportunity to show preference in the matter of selecting their own amusements and entertainment. The entertainer prepares and presents a number in competition with his classmates. Then, in turn, the audience votes on the most popular one. The one receiving the most votes is given before the whole student body at the general chapel exercises.

The homeroom program of a literary nature is varied with a business program. Here again a social good is rendered in teaching the students of the group to conduct their business activities in an orderly and proper fashion; that is, to plan social functions and to keep records of their business transactions. The teacher should act as guide and director. The homeroom activities of his pupils should be regarded in the light of a laboratory experiment in social science. Data from controled situations should be obtained, evaluated, and classified.

The school library and the school bank are two outstanding phases of extracurriculum work, and both are closely allied to the regular program. Here again, the purpose is not especially and primarily to train librarians or bankers; but, in the case of the library, to offer abundant opportunity to the student to improve his reading ability, and to gain a better appreciation of literature for use in leisure time; and, in the case of the bank, to guide the pupils so that they carry on their finances in a systematic and business-like manner.

The extracurriculum program of a small community will grow with the years—grow in importance and efficiency. As it broadens in influence, deepens in interest, and increases in vision, the scholastic attainments in high school and college, and in life itself, of the pupils trained under this program, all other things being equal, will prove superior.

THE BOY SCOUT JAMBOREE

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MOST of my readers know of the Boy Scout organization in their own home town.[1] You probably know that this organization is one of the best means of training the young lads of today for better citizens in a community. There are over 800,000 boys in the United States at the present time who are members of this great international movement. There are over two million scattered over the entire world.

Several years ago Sir Robert Baden-Powell said that for the cost of a single dreadnaught the Boy Scout movement could do more for the future of world peace than the greatest navies ever accomplished. Scouting is a real brotherhood with a bond of common ideals and common interests. From this situation, the Boy Scout Jamboree of 1929 was made possible. This Jamboree was spoken of as the " Coming of Age Jamboree," signifying the celebration of the twenty-first birthday of the Boy Scout movement, and the whole occasion was a tribute to Sir Robert Baden-Powell, the Chief Scout of the World.

Twenty-one years ago Sir Robert Baden-Powell, of London, took a small group camping with him on Brownsea Island and following that began to write *Scouting for Boys.* These articles were published as quickly as written in weekly instalments in one of London's illustrated magazines. Sir Robert's intention was to offer the program to existing organizations without any strings attached. This he did, but such interest was shown immediately throughout England that groups calling themselves Boy Scouts were organized independently, and an association to promote it became absolutely necessary. There is no man living today who commends the affections of the boys of the world as does Sir Robert Baden-Powell. Through his persistent work among boys, he has developed that feeling of brotherhood, which has spread to nearly every corner of the globe. When the Chief Scout issued the little magazine, *Scouting for Boys,* and established the troops of Boy Scouts and later the Girl Guides, no one could have foretold all that was to spring from that tiny seed.

Some there were who saw the germ of militarism in his pioneer movement, but they were wrong. At Geneva, Locarno, and the Hague, men are still seeking by *words* to permanently destroy the specter of war. Yet, in 1929, at the Boy Scout Jamboree at Arrowe Park, boys white, black, brown, and yellow, and of rival nations and innumerable creeds were assembled as brothers. There seemed to be a popular feeling among the people and the press that this Jamboree was the most important event of the year in relegating world wars to the background. One English editorial writer said:

> The great Boy Scout Jamboree is the most significant sign of an inward and spiritual grace I can remember. It is the sign of the growing amity of the nations and an omen of coming peace and brotherhood built upon the solid rock of an enlightened understanding. It is a magnificent symbol of the spirit of the age.

[1] How Scouting came to America is told in *Handbook for Boys,* official manual of the Boy Scouts of America.

It is impossible to describe the numerous incidents of the Jamboree. Scouts were registered from forty-two nations. The British delegation in addition included representatives from thirty-seven colonies. There was a total of 55,000 Scouts from the various nations. The United States was well represented with nearly 1500 Scouts.

The camp at Arrowe Park was a stretch of pasture, lawns, gardens, and woods, about four miles long and about three miles at the widest point. It is one of the most beautiful country estates of England. Here is a report of the camp as I have gathered it:

> From the wrought iron gate of which the principal design is crossed arrows, from which the estate takes its name, a beautiful avenue leads up to the hall, a big old-fashioned, fairly low building surrounded by an English garden and a park magnificently kept. To the right is a wooded glade down which I went. Suddenly, I was at the edge of the forest, where stretching before me as far as the eye could see was an immense meadow crossed by avenues and dotted with small thickets and ponds, a magnificent sight and a splendid panorama. I followed the glade to the west, then to the north, and came upon the lake hidden in the trees, with the sides fringed with primrose, and all sorts of wild flowers. It is here on a piece of ground of over 450 acres that the largest boys' camp that has even been seen arose.

There were English Scouts from all parts of the world. Some proclaimed their locality by the skins of snakes around their hats, others by leopard tails, and still others by the Lancashire rose. Then came the Scouts of Ireland, followed by the hardy boys from bonny Scotland. The one, singing the glories of the green, and the other playing a lively tune on the bagpipes.

The Hungarians were there with their big packs and steady step. With snappy uniforms the French Scouts filed into camp, singing the *Marseillaise* and greeting every one with a hearty grin.

In the nearby harbor of Liverpool ships unloaded their laughing throngs. The Scouts of the world were coming to England, the birthplace of the Boy Scout program. Some had to travel overseas for seven weeks in order to get there; others were able to mount their bicycles and ride to the gathering in an hour. Some had to travel half-way around the world to be present; some came by aeroplane, while others had only a few miles to walk. So they came night and day—scouts from everywhere. Every known race was represented in the great multitude. The sturdy blonds of Sweden and the darker Indian Scouts alike paid homage to the great Chief Scout.

There were lads from India; Scouts from Australia, eager to teach the arts of camping as practised in their country; Scouts from Siam, brilliantly outfitted in their beautiful suits; Scouts from Japan, coming from a far country to give world brotherhood a helping hand and to make friends with Occidental boys; Scouts from Iraq and Esthonia, China, Greece, Iceland, and Chile. They all came to celebrate the twenty-first birthday of Scouting and to honor its founder, Sir Robert Baden-Powell.

Boys rushed from their half-peeled potatoes to greet brother Scouts from other lands. Fingers and hands, as well as tongues, were used to convey hearty messages to one another. Barriers of language, as well as religion and

color, were pushed aside. Every one greeted everyone else with a firm scout grip and a joyful smile. For two days previous to the opening of the Jamboree this continual humdrum was kept up and when the sun had finally set on that wonderful camp, instead of a peaceful forest, there were thousands of tents warmed by cheerful campfires and laughter of tired, but happy boys.

On the great fields of the park there had been erected a long circular grandstand for visitors, of whom there were more than 350,000 during the Jamboree.

On the afternoon of July 31st, upon the arrival of H. R. H., and the Duke of Connaught, the Royal Standard was flung to the breeze, the British national anthem was played, and thus opened the Third International Jamboree. On the raising of the flag and the playing of the anthem, the Chief Scout sounded a note on the Kudu horn, which called the first scouts from their beds at Brownsea Island in 1907. Colorful in appearance and with precise execution of commands, the American contingent marched before the Royal Box waving silk American flags. It was one of the most inspirational sights I have ever witnessed. Following the American contingent which was first in line, came the Boy Scouts of all the world in one tremendous parade which took about two hours to pass the Royal Box, marching 24 abreast.

The American contingent made an inspiring spectacle in their lumberjackets, red neckerchiefs, and khaki uniforms. It was said by many spectators that the Boy Scouts of America were certainly the most distinctive in appearance of the entire assemblage.

After the parade came the introduction and speeches by the higher scout officials. Thousands of interested spectators were present for the official opening and the Scouts were kept busy entertaining their guests afternoon and evening.

Here are a few words taken from the speech in the greetings from the Chief Scout:

> I want you to remember that this is an occasion that will never come again for any of us. Let us therefore make the highest use of the short time that we shall be here together. Let us start at once to make friendships with our brother Scouts from other lands. Let us—every man and boy among us—determine to keep our promise and Scout Law more fully than we have ever done before, in every detail during every day and every moment of our time together. The best way of proving that the Scout Spirit is in you will be by making friends with Scouts from other countries. The main and great object of this camp is that you should meet your brother Scouts of different nations and *make friends* with them. Do not forget this and do not waste time in starting to do it. Thus will the Scout Spirit abound and bring forth its fruit of Goodwill and Friendship.

The American Scouts made a vast number of friends with other Scouts of the world. The greater number of friends being made with the English and Scotch camps, probably due to the closeness of camps and the English language. The American Scouts were very alert and never hesitated in mixing with those of other nations, regardless of color or race. They tried

to fulfill the duties of the Scout Laws and demonstrate the idea of true Americanism.

In these days when so much is heard in criticism of youth, the fact that such an immense gathering is only possible because of the selfdiscipline of the boys themselves, is noteworthy. That this great gathering was in the interests of fellowship and goodwill, rather than in the spirit of athletic competition, is also worthy of more than passing mention.

At no time during the Jamboree was there any thing carried on in a competitive method. It was the desire of the International Jamboree Committee for the Scouts of all nations to demonstrate their ability of Scouting as it was carried on in their own country. Through this idea, Scouts learned to improve their own methods by seeing others perform.

The Jamboree objectives of the American Scouts were as follows: (1) to observe the methods and programs of Scouts of other nations, (2) to display as nearly as possible the normal troop and patrol activities of the Boy Scouts of America, (3) to stimulate, through preparation for the reports of the Jamboree, a wider interest in Scouting according to the best approved methods, and with the highest type of leadership, (4) to foster the spirit of brotherhood and friendliness among the boys of the world.

Besides the speeches of Sir Baden-Powell, H. R. H., the Duke of Connaught, the scouts had the privilege of hearing a message read from His Majesty, The King. The King was recovering from an operation and was confined to his bed during the Jamboree. His Royal Highness, the Prince of Wales, visited the camp of every nation represented, talking with the boys. He made many friends among the American contingent.

During the first week of the Jamboree the Scouts visited the various camps, taking articles to exchange with other Scouts. On the first Sunday the Protestant boys went to the Arena and listened to His Grace, the Archbishop of Canterbury. Thousands of Scouts sang the hymn, "All Hail the Power of Jesus' Name." As the crescendo notes of "Crown Him, Crown Him," rose, one wondered just what the millions of public thought of this great hymn of praise coming over the radio. For the Catholic Scouts His Eminence, Cardinal Bourne, delivered a sermon. During the conclusion of the sermons there was a torrential downpour of rain, but the youth of the world pausing for a moment to put on their ponchos, continued quietly to the conclusion of the services.

The second week was devoted to the explaining of exhibits, which various troops had on display, the demonstrating of games, pageantry, and various stunts for entertainment. The last three days were used for sightseeing by motor coach and train through interesting points of England. The second Sunday service was again held at the Arena in which all the boys took part by using the printed programs made for the special event.

There was rain during every day of the Jamboree. For six weeks or more, previous to the opening of the Jamboree, England had suffered from a drouth, but from the opening day until the last there was a downpour of rain. Soon the camp was known as the "Mudboree." The passageways,

trod underfoot by thousands of scouts and daily visitors, became seas of mud, and it was folly to walk out of camp without high boots. Even with all of the torture of mud and water the camp spirit improved rapidly. Instead of walking about bemoaning the terrible state of affairs, scouts tried to be cheerful, keeping in mind the eighth Scout Law. There were many sunny hours amid all of the darkness and as soon as the sun appeared the Scouts ran out with their kodaks and began "shooting" interesting pictures.

It is a remarkable fact that notwithstanding the almost daily rain there was little sickness among the scouts, particularly the American scouts. The English Committee had made ample hospital arrangements with more than one hundred beds; there was also an operating room, dental department, dispensary—every facility and convenience of a modern hospital.

The scouts leaders were of the best type of manhood representing each nation. Scouters of this type meant much to a group of boys. It was a privilege to talk and to mingle with such men as Sir Robert Baden-Powell, the Duke of Connaught, the Prince of Wales, Ambassador Charles G. Dawes, Daniel Carter Beard, James E. West, and various other men of high rank.

A world celebration of boys and the coming together of over 55,000 of them from about seventy different lands is unique in more senses than one. The pages of history can be searched without finding a parallel. Not the least striking thing about this great gathering, however, is the fact that it was in the nature of a tribute from the boys of the world to one man. In this day of instantaneous communication, when news of exploits flies around the world in a few seconds, heroes are made in a day and are forgotten as soon. Sir Robert Baden-Powell has held his place in the affection and esteem of the boys of the world for two decades. One of the memorable things that the Scouts representing the Boy Scouts of America looked forward to, was the privilege of paying Sir Robert their personal and joint tribute for bringing to them the game of scouting.

During the last week of the Jamboree, Sir Robert Baden-Powell had conferred upon him the degree of LL.D. by Liverpool University. Also, Sir Robert was created Lord Robert Baden-Powell by King George in honor of his great service to boys.

On the closing day of the Jamboree, the American Scouts demonstrated the "Scouting Activities in America" with a pageant, consisting of the coming of Columbus, the Red Man, early explorers, adventures and woodsmen, and the bringing of Scouting to America. Through the whole pageant Uncle Dan Beard acted as one symbolic of early American life. As the American boys were marching off the field in a spontaneous demonstration two European leaders cried out, "That was the most Scoutlike display I have seen in the Arena during the Jamboree."

The Jamboree created a real brotherhood of boys and Scouting has become one of the truly great agencies for world peace. Scouting has shown us how to apply the Golden Rule to our daily life. Religious leaders have called

Scouting "religion in action." Finer service can no man perform than to guide and inspire the boys of the world as Lord Robert Baden-Powell has done.

The last day of the Jamboree was probably enjoyed more than any other, because it was the only day in which it did not rain, and this was the great farewell meeting of the Scouts. After they had marched to the Arena for the farewell march, the Scouts were assembled 24 abreast in which no two scouts were standing together from the same country. Each row of Scouts then locking arms and keeping in step passed before the reviewing stand. Assembling in the center of the field in the form of a large wheel, the scout leaders forming the hub, the whole group buried the hatchet as a symbol of the burying of all discords and enmity among the nations. Then Sir Robert handed to each of the leaders of the various delegations a little golden arrow to symbolize the goodwill of Scouts to each other, and said in parting:

From all corners of the earth you have journeyed to this great gathering of World Fellowship and Brotherhood. Today I send you from Arrowe to all the world bearing my symbol of Peace and Fellowship, each one of you my ambassador, bearing my message of love and friendship on the wings of sacrifice and service to the ends of the earth.

From now on the Scout symbol of Peace is a golden arrow. From Northlands, Southlands, Westlands, and Eastlands you came at the call of my horn to this great gathering. Today I send you back to your homelands across the seas as my ambassadors of Peace among the nations of the world. I bid you farewell.

THE ASSEMBLY is the meeting place of the room or group of rooms, or more often, of the school, to aid in guiding school opinion, and to provide for wholesome enjoyment through worthwhile entertainment. While opinion at times may be intelligently formed as a result of direct instruction by pupils, teachers, or the principal, it is *more* often formed by an interesting presentation of the successful achievements of the school. It is necessary for the school as a whole to establish ways that the school does things and to point out ways that the school does not tolerate. These ways of doing things are largely in the field of behavior and are probably most effectively secured by the approval and disapproval of the group.—Dr. E. K. Fretwell.

THE PERSONALITY OF THE TEACHER AN IMPORTANT FACTOR IN MORAL EDUCATION

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THE most important single force at the disposal of the school for the upbuilding of character is undoubtedly the character of the teacher. The teacher is the foundation of the success of any course of character education. Conduct is contagious. " Nobleness inkindles nobleness." Through reading the biographies of noble lives, one's conduct may to a considerable extent be influenced, but the scope of the influence is much greater when life comes into direct contact with life. In that way one sees good deeds concretely and appreciates their values. What we admire in others we desire to possess ourselves. The desire to do likewise soon follows. The environment of the child influences him, his classmates influence him, but the predominating influence is that of the teacher. Few positions have as great opportunities for doing good as the teacher and for this reason he should have an impressive personality.

The first schools grew up around great personalities. The spirit and method of a person, rather than a place, formed the school. The banks of the Ilissus and the Agorce were the locations of Socrates' schools. The exact location of the schools of Plato, Aristotle, Alcium, and Abelard, Froebel, Pestalozzi, and Horace Mann are not what is remembered. Jesus, the world's greatest teacher, staked the future of His kingdom upon the influence of His life upon those who journeyed with Him in His School. So strong was His conviction of the influence of the teacher, He neither committed anything to writing Himself nor selected ones to carry on His work who were able writers.

Arnold at Rugby is one of the best examples of what the school can accomplish in the way of character education. He was a genius in that line. His most significant contribution to the theory of moral education was not his methods, devices, and institutions; but the demonstration of the fact that every human being is born, not with an illimitable number of possibilities, which the environment may bring out, but rather the fact that every human being is born with a very considerable number of potentialities for both good and evil, and that it is in the power of the teacher to develop them. One of his pupils writes of him:

> I am sure that I do not exaggerate my feelings when I say that I felt a love and reverence for him as one of quite awful greatness and goodness, for whom I well remember, that I used to think I would gladly lay down my life. . . . I used to believe that I too had a work to do for him in the school, and did, for his sake, labor to raise the tone of the set I lived in. His teaching and example—his unwearied zeal in creating moral thoughtfulness in every boy with whom he came in personal contact gave the Rugby boys this character.

Helen Keller and Miss Sullivan are a fine example of the effect of the personality of the teacher on the pupil. Helen Keller says:

> It was my teacher's genius, her quick sympathy, her loving tact which made the first years of my education so beautiful. . . . I feel that her being is inseparable from my own and that the footsteps of my life are in hers. All the best of me belongs to her—there is not a talent or an inspiration or a joy in me that has not been awakened by her loving touch.

A woman who had worked for forty years with prisoners was asked, "Don't you find your work depressing?" "No, not all the preachers in the land could teach me spiritually what these convicts have, or give me such a faith in the ultimate destiny of the human soul."

If this is the reward of a life spent with life's failures, what might be the reward to those who work with unspoiled children?

Bishop Huntington said:

> Today's simple dealing with a raw or refractory pupil takes its insensible coloring from the moral climate you have all along been breathing. Celestial opportunities avail us nothing unless we ourselves have been educated up to their level. If an angel comes to converse with us on the mountain top, he must find our tent already pitched in that upper air. There is a touching plea in the loyal ardor with which the young are ready to look to their guides. In children there is a natural instinct and passion for impersonating all ideal excellence in some superior being and for living in intense devotion to a heroic presence. It is the privilege of every teacher to occupy that place. If his pupils love him, he stands for their ideal of a heroic nature. Long after his lessons are forgotten, he remains a teaching power.

Children remember teachers for what they are and not for what they teach. Anyone appearing day after day will teach more by example than by precept. The teacher may not know just how or when to teach the most impressive moral lessons but if he is living the well-rounded moral life, his pupils cannot escape his helpful influence. The character of the teacher is "caught, rather than taught." The teacher is in a very large sense the course of study himself and really the only course that all his pupils will take and understand. Just as there is an atmosphere upon which health and life of body depend, so there must be an atmosphere for the soul, determined by thoughts. The teacher must see that the moral atmosphere is kept pure, stimulating, and uplifting. A teacher with selfish, unloving thoughts exhales a poison far more deadly than impure air, for the latter poisons only the body, the former, the soul. In reality there is no human excellence which is not useful for the teacher. No good quality can be thought of which he can afford to drop. He should be inspired by a love of righteousness and a desire to see it prevail in the world. He should have the ability to get the pupil's point of view and should find time for personal participation in the interests and life of the pupils. Each pupil has his personal problems, ambitions, and needs. Personal interest wins confidence. It bridges the gulf between the "you" and the "I" with the "we." The best moral results are attained through companionship. It is what the teacher is that fashions the lives, shapes the character, and determines the ideals of the children. A real teacher, like the Great Teacher, undertakes his task that children "may have life and have it more abundantly."

THE ELIMINATION OF REPEATING

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IT IS possible that no reader of this paper believes in the repeating of grades as an educational device of any value. Again it is possible that many who would not attempt to defend repeating are nevertheless convinced that it can not be avoided in practise. At the risk of boring the first group and in order to increase the discontent of the second I should like briefly to review some of the reasons which have persuaded many principals to reject altogether from their educational philosophy, and as far as possible from their practise, the failing and repeating of grades by pupils who do not achieve standard subjectmatter requirements.

While we may need no convincing on this score the existing almost unanimous reliance upon this device surely indicates that someone needs convincing. And the fact that practise is so overwhelmingly against us puts the burden of proof squarely on those who would meet the difficulty in some other way. If a recall of the arguments against the method will provide ammunition for anyone who is trying to get support for his effort to get rid of it, it will be worth doing.

The argument may be based upon three statements growing out of modern pedagogy which will probably be acceptable to thoughtful students of education:

1. Education is guidance of development of individuals to secure the utmost in effective personal and social living.

2. Modern educational ideals insist upon that peculiar opportunity and treatment essential to each pupil for his fullest personal and social development.

3. The general order of final importance (possibly not the strategic order) in social outcomes is (1) ideals, (2) attitudes, (3) appreciations, (4) habits, (5) skills, (6) knowledges.

If these three statements be granted our question then becomes, does repeating tend to promote or defeat the pupil's maximum development? That is to say, when benefit and harm in repeating are balanced is there ever a residue of benefit? The anti-repeaters for the reasons to be given, say emphatically, no.

Repeating is resorted to almost entirely to correct lacks in arbitrary prescriptions in knowledges, and to some extent, skills. It is occasionally *intended,* I hasten to add, to correct attitudes, as for instance when a teacher says to you,

> Oh, I know you think Walter is a wonder because he managed to do pretty well in the achievement tests and is a good ball player and can wind the School Council around his finger, but he has sat in my room all the term and never done a tap of work, and it goes against my grain to promote him!

Granting for the moment that repeating does sometimes cure gaps in knowledge and skill, let us look at the other side of the picture. The following indictment may be drawn fairly, repeating,

1. Creates a sense of failure by emphasizing the pupil's failure over his success.
2. Stamps in the habit of failure by efforts "to make him like it," i.e., accept it as fair.
3. Shames the pupil before his social group and so isolates him. (Is not social isolation a breeder of criminal attitudes?)
4. Penalizes *him* for the *failure of the school to meet his needs,* and so
5. Destroys his confidence in educational agencies, and finally
6. Drives him out of school
7. If he stays, delays him in getting where he can succeed.

From the point of view of the school insofar as school interests and pupil interests can be thought of separately, repeating,

1. Makes classification a competitive game for the pupil to beat, wasting energy which should go into real educational effort.
2. Wastes major part of time in repeating what has already been acquired.
3. Creates habits of boredom, loafing, and mischief, which undermine class morale.
4. Increases social, chronological, and physiological age differences in groups.
5. Increases teacher's load of individual instruction and disciplinary activity.
6. Increases administrative labor on the non-constructive side.
7. Increases cost.

Please note where all this damage cuts into the scale of our third basic statement given above. For the sake of curing a few defects at the less important end of our list we unfailingly hurt the best side of the child's personality, sometimes to a devastating extent. We tend to distort the whole purpose and activity of pupil and school as cooperating elements in the educational process. Add to that the claim made by many that only occasionally does repeating actually do the very thing it sets out to do. As one views the unlovely features of this cherished device, he is tempted to ask with the precocious nine-year-old, observing the turmoil occasioned by the arrival and adjustment of his infant sister, "What good is the thing anyhow?"

To that question there seems to be just one answer. It is a device for administering a case-hardened yearly or semester-grade system, based upon arbitrarily set subjectmatter standards, which standards tend to hang over from the days of faculty psychology and a highly selected school attendance. The standards are beginning to crack in spite of the tendency of standardized achievement tests to delay the process, when they are misused. We are beginning the long process of evolving new and flexible standards more adapted to modern educational theories.

The chief difficulties in the way of ridding ourselves of repeating seem to lie in the fixed yearly grade. Here and there an ardent anti-repeater advocates passing the children along according to chronological age (with varied curriculum content) without attacking the yearly grade system. In my opinion, the difficulties which persist in this proposal would disappear if we could get away from this system. To those who are not lost in veneration of this traditional classification scheme I issue an invitation to examine with me two alternative proposals for regrouping pupils in the elementary school. I do not claim to have originated either of these plans.

They have been more or less in the air and both tend to suggest themselves as one speculates on the possibility of getting away from the existing scheme. I merely offer a possible interpretation of them based upon my experience of the needs.

A. *The chronological age group*—Opinion would vary as to what to include in a group. The suggestion here is a span of two years of actual age, with an accepted meaning for a stated age, and beginning age determined by our findings as to proper objectives at each age and for each group, subjectmatter to be thrown into units of activity according to type or at most three or four main subjects, such as English, science, social science, numbers. Grouping within the large groups is to be variable, flexible, and temporary to conform to individual needs, abilities, and type of unit being worked in. Individual pupils are to take such parts as they are able to carry on. The teachers of the whole group are to work as a committee responsible for the experience of the group, with some informal specialization and team-work for large-group activities. This sounds like a pure project type of curriculum. While it would encourage a tendency toward the adaptability of the project idea it does not demand the breaking up of large subjectmatter divisions. But emphasis would tend to fall upon dividing and organizing according to the demands of the job in hand. It is not claimed that such a plan would be easy or even possible for teachers and principals who are permanently wedded to traditional rituals of teaching methods. It seems an idea worth working over in one's mind, suggested here in bare outline purposely, for active organizers would come out with great differences of detail.

B. *The achievement group*—In this case one would have as many grades as he had classes in his school, at least up to twenty-five or thirty for a six-year school. A grade would be described for office purposes at any rate, by its grade score median in some important subject or subject group. Since reading is the core of our work and correlates well with intelligence, it would perhaps be wise to classify according to Reading Grade Scores, on a standard reading test, although there is no reason why a local test properly constructed could not be used. One would then have such grades as 1.2, 1.3, 1.5, 1.8, 2.6, 3.9, 4.0, and so on, with differences in a large school of not more than say, two or three months. Each group would start frankly where it was and go on as far as it could during the term or year, with reclassifications once or twice a year. I would suggest four times a year if I were not afraid that the idea of possible transfers of twenty or thirty percent would bring on widespread shuddering. It would seem desirable to me to be able to transfer individual pupils rather freely without red tape at any time, a thing impossible with the record system in my own state. Nothing in the main idea, however, would prevent a child staying with one teacher throughout the year.

One thing we lack for such a plan which seems necessary is the recasting of our curriculum into relatively short units of work, either within or cutting across subjectmatter fields, with each unit evaluated in grade-

score terms. The teacher would have a library of such units, suited to the abilities of his class and rich, varied, and plentiful enough to offer him a rather wide choice at any given time. The unit idea in courses of study is growing fast and this is the type of material that we seem destined to put in the teacher's hands. He, of course, will be helping to construct new units as he goes along.

It may be argued that an achievement basis of any sort will throw together pupils differing widely in everything but achievement. It will do that of course if we worship the grade score as we do the present grade. If enough variation were allowed to permit grouping over-age pupils together and young pupils together, we would still have groups vastly more homogeneous, from the point of view of their needs, than we have at present. What is more important, we would know just where each group was and give its members materials and work at which they could succeed. No one would fail or repeat old work. We would not get rid of retardation or individual adjustment by any classification scheme, but we could set a maximum age for elementary school and send pupils to the junior high school at that age, to be given programs suited to their abilities at that time. Nothing in this plan would prevent grouping together of classes for any purpose or the cooperation of teachers as in the previous plan.

Not the least interesting feature of these two suggestions is the fact that either of them would require an active and open-minded staff to run them. The school in either case would be a growing organism, studying its procedures, testing its results, and perhaps on the defensive at first. No school ever gets into such a state without making progress. If I may be allowed to prophesy, no other kind of a school will be tolerated a few years from now.

WHEN an elementary school pupil is not promoted at the end of a year, and is required to spend an extra year in school, it costs the city about $84.25. It is as if for every thousand pupils thus retarded we had to run one more complete elementary school, with all the added expense of teachers, supplies, and service. In the high schools the cost is correspondingly greater. Retardation is thus a very serious economic problem, and for financial reasons alone it is advisable to take stock of ourselves from time to time. But, from the pupil's standpoint the matter is even more important. Of course, there is an added burden to the parents. But beyond this is the fact that a pupil-year of retardation is after all one whole precious year of human life, with all its imponderable possibilities for achievement or discouragement, for good or ill. If there are ways in which we can improve our procedures and methods, and thus reduce retardation, we should try to find them."—Statistical Bulletin No. 7, Chicago Public Schools, May 28, 1929.

MORE ABOUT SALARIES AND SUPERVISION

FRANK W. HUBBARD
Assistant Director of Research, National Education Association

THE elementary school principal is the pivotal person in a progressive school system. Around him revolve major, administrative, and supervisory problems. A superintendent who magnifies his principals can clip the dividends in morale among his whole professional staff.

Here and there cities are realizing that the salaries and services of principals are closely associated.[1] It is futile to pay low salaries to poorly prepared persons and then demand a high level of supervisory performance. It is unfair to pay a clerk's salary to highly competent persons. Nor is this practise economically sound, for ability gravitates to cities where it receives adequate recognition and recompense.

In the *Seventh Yearbook* the Committee on Standards and Training discussed the importance of paying principals an adequate salary.[2] It will not be profitable to repeat these arguments at this point. Instead we shall assume that progressive school systems *want* to pay an adequate wage. The problem facing many schoolboards is *how* to do this with a limited budget. This article merely suggests one approach to this latter problem.

A common situation—Salary schedules for principals vary widely from community to community. Many schedules recognize experience as of primary importance. In other cases professional preparation is emphasized. Various differences and likenesses in practise might be cited. However, we shall now focus our attention upon the practise of paying principals salaries in terms of four or five school size groups. Table 1 illustrates the point under consideration.

TABLE 1—A SALARY SCHEDULE BASED PARTLY ON SCHOOL SIZE[3]

Class	School size	Salary each year						
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I	Over 500	3000	3100	3200	3300	3400	3500	3600
II	300-500	2700	2800	2900	3000	3100	3200	3300
III	200-300	2400	2500	2600	2700	2800	2900	3000
IV	100-200	2100	2200	2300	2400	2500	2600	2700
V	50-100	1800	1900	2000	2100	2200	2300	2400

[1] See "Salaries, Service, and Supervision" by Frank W. Hubbard in the July 1929 Bulletin of the Department, p. 549.

[2] See pages 468-95 of the *Seventh Yearbook*, Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association. 1928.

[3] An actual salary schedule from a city of approximately 100,000 population. Similar schedules could be cited from a number of relatively large cities.

It will be noted in Table 1 that there are salary levels based upon rather small and minutely drawn school size groups. Note the fact that five groups are used and the school differences are relatively small. Particular attention is called to the $300 difference between each of the Classes I, II, III, IV, and V.

Some hypothetical considerations—If Table 1 illustrated an unusual situation there would be little point to this article. But copies of schedules sent to the Research Division indicate that the condition is common enough to deserve further comment.[1]

After examining Table 1 we might be inclined to ask several questions. Can we justify paying Principal A $2100 for a school enroling 180 pupils while Principal B receives $2400 for supervising 205 children? Is it A's fault that his school is slightly smaller? Will this difference in school enrolment have any appreciable effect upon the quality of A's supervision?

Someone may insist that it is necessary to make some grouping. Let us say on the basis of differences of 300 pupils between school size groups. Then does Principal A deserve one-half as much salary as Principal B if the school enrolments are 300 and 600 respectively? Or is this difference worth $500 a year? Are there any real differences in ability required to manage schools of the various sizes after they enrol 500 or more pupils?

If the absurdity of the finely drawn classifications are not obvious from the above, we may approach the question from another angle: Are children in the small schools entitled to the same high type of supervisory skill as pupils in large schools? Do people of superior ability remain as principals of small schools when there are opportunities for higher salaries in the larger units of the same school system?

One solution—The first suggestion might be to reduce the number of small classifications from five to three. These changes might bring about the result shown in Table 2.

TABLE 2—PROPOSED REVISION OF A SALARY SCHEDULE[2]

Class	School size	Salary each year						
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I	Over 500	3000	3100	3200	3300	3400	3500	3600
II	200-500	2700	2800	2900	3000	3100	3200	3300
III	Under 200	2400	2500	2600	2700	2800	2900	3000

Obviously, Table 2 does not completely solve the difficulty. Undoubtedly, it has eliminated some of the absurdities brought about by the minute divi-

[1] Every two years the Research Division makes a survey of salaries in city school systems. These data are summarized in "Salary Scales in City School Systems, 1928-29" *Research Bulletin*, May, 1929. Detailed tabulations may be purchased at a nominal cost.

[2] See Table 1 above.

sions of Table 1. Chief among the objections which can be raised is that we have retained many of the small school units. Table 2 under these conditions would cost more than the schedule of Table 1 and might therefore be impossible in terms of the available funds.

Another solution—Progressive theory would say: eliminate the pseudo-principalships from many of the small school units. Instead, form the city into supervisory units under skilled supervising principals. Give each supervising principal approximately the same number of children and thereby eliminate this school size as a factor in salary scheduling. Let differences in salaries be based upon training, experience, and such evidences of merit as can be measured or estimated with reasonable accuracy.

Let us apply the above suggestions to a specific situation so as to indicate the possibility of improving both salaries and supervision. Melno is a city of approximately 80,000 population.[1] There are 9 teaching and 11 supervising principals in charge of approximately 8000 elementary pupils. The approximate range of salaries from $2150 to $3150 per year.[2] The estimated total outlay for principals' salaries is $51,600 per year.[3]

It should be practical over a period of several years to place the 20 small schools into 10 (or fewer) supervising units each containing from 800 to 1000 pupils. This arrangement could be made by uniting one or two small schools into a larger unit for supervisory purposes. A fulltime trained clerk would be assigned to each supervising principal. In the small subordinate schools a head-teacher would be designated to handle the minor clerical and administrative problems. Such persons should be paid $100 a year in addition to their regular salaries as teachers. The approximate cost of the new arrangement is shown in Table 3.

TABLE 3—ESTIMATED COST OF THE REORGANIZED SUPERVISORY PROGRAM IN MELNO

	Salaries			
District	Principals	Clerks	Head-teachers	Total salaries
A	$3200	$1000	$100	$4300
B	3200	1000	100	4300
C	3200	1000	100	4300
D	3200	1000	100	4300
E	3200	1000	100	4300
F	3200	1000	100	4300
G	3200	1000	100	4300
H	3200	1000	100	4300
I	3200	1000	100	4300
J	3200	1000	100	4300
Totals	$32,000	$10,000	$1,000	$43,000

[1] The city name is fictitious, but the figures used are correct in round numbers.

[2] Based on Special Salary Tabulation II-A, Research Division, May, 1929, p. 17 and 19.

[3] This does not include approximately $1000 spent each year for partime clerks in elementary schools.

The possibilities of attracting persons of high calibre by a schedule such as Table 3 stands in startling contrast to existing conditions in Melno. Here we have the chance to place trained supervisors over approximately 1000 children under conditions favorable to a genuine educational program. Clerks are provided in every district which is not true at the present time. Probably of least significance is the saving of over $8000 in overhead costs.

Salaries and supervision—Superintendents are insisting that their principals assume a position of supervisory leadership. To meet this demand many competent principals are seeking to equip themselves by professional study and research. Other persons bent on advancing to the superintendency or other higher salaries are showing a sincere desire to remain in their chosen field—the elementary school principalship. But all such groups recognize that adjustments must be made in many existing salary schedules if compensation is to balance the required supervisory technics.

How can these changes be brought about? Obviously, it is impossible for many communities to place a supervising principal in each small school unit. This article suggests that one possible solution is through reorganization and consolidation for supervisory purposes.

The problem calls for much calm and deliberate thinking by groups of principals and superintendents. The facts are available, let principals marshal them; when the facts are assembled, let superintendents view them, and when the facts are accepted, let both groups act cooperatively upon them in the best interests of children.

ENROLMENT NEWS

HERMAN RITOW
National Chairman, Fort Sheridan, Illinois

The paid up enrolment for the school year 1929-30, up to and including January 15, was 3703. This is a gain of 216 over the corresponding enrolment last year. There is but one way to account for this increase; that is the state and local enrolment chairmen are working hard and are succeeding in their efforts. Last year an increase of less than 200 about January 1 resulted in a total increase for the school year of more than double that amount. We have, therefore, every reason to hope that our enrolment this year will be very near 6000. Let us keep up the good work. The National Chairman takes this opportunity to thank the members of the committee for their splendid work.

The list of State Enrolment Chairmen for 1930 is as follows:

Alabama—J. D. Williams, Avondale School, Birmingham, Alabama
Arizona—No State Chairman
Arkansas—J. A. Day, Peabody School, Fort Smith, Arkansas
California—A. J. Hamilton, University Elementary School, Berkeley, California
Colorado—Mrs. Margaret Mendenhall Smith, Ebert School, Denver, Colorado
Connecticut—Florence E. Smith, Seymour School, West Hartford, Connecticut
Delaware—Elva M. Dugan, P. S. No. 3, 210½ Jefferson St., Wilmington, Delaware
District of Columbia—Lou E. Ballenger, 1801 Sixteenth St., N. W., Washington, D. C.

Florida—Olga D. Benson, 1050 S. W. Sixth St., Miami, Florida
Georgia—Maude A. Rhodes, Whitefoord School, Atlanta, Georgia
Idaho—No State Chairman
Illinois—Cecelia B. Schimek, Mason School, Chicago, Illinois
Indiana—Celia Galvin, No. 3 School, 23 N. Rural St., Indianapolis, Indiana
Iowa—Earl E. Bovee, 1620 S. Palmetto St., Sioux City, Iowa
Kansas—Mrs. Mary J. Singer, 341 N. Topeka Ave., Ingalls School, Wichita, Kansas
Kentucky—Roy J. Bell, Salisbury School, Louisville, Kentucky
Louisiana—L. S. Rugg, West End Grammar School, Alexandria, Louisiana
Maine—Helen M. King, Clifford School, Portland, Maine
Maryland—L. Adele Talbott, Prin., School No. 69, Oakford and Grenada, Baltimore, Maryland
Massachusetts—Julia A. Sheehan, Hunnewell School, Wellesley, Massachusetts
Michigan—Earl R. Laing, Burt School, 20710 Pilgrim Ave., Detroit, Michigan
Minnesota—Helen J. Mather, Hiawatha School, Minneapolis, Minnesota
Mississippi—Bess Clement, Public Schools, Meridian, Mississippi
Missouri—Isabel Tucker, 5122 Ridge Ave., St. Louis, Missouri
Montana—No State Chairman
Nebraska—Cassie F. Roys, Walnut Hill School, Omaha, Nebraska
Nevada—K. O. Knudson, Prin., Las Vegas Elementary School, Las Vegas, Nevada
New Hampshire—No State Chairman
New Jersey—James R. Floyd, Jefferson School, Plainfield, New Jersey
New Mexico—Stella Kiker, Longfellow School, Raton, New Mexico
New York—Nathaniel G. West, Prin., Andrews School No. 9, Rochester, New York
North Carolina—E. T. McSwain, David Caldwell School, Greensboro, North Carolina
North Dakota—Mrs. Sadie A. Walker, 730 Ninth St., North, Fargo, North Dakota
Ohio—Belle Torrey Scott, Fulton School, Columbus, Ohio
Oklahoma—B. E. Koonce, R. E. Lee School, Tulsa, Oklahoma
Oregon—Carl S. Zook, Route 2. Milwaukie, Oregon
Pennsylvania—Roland T. MacLaren, George Washington School, Williamsport, Pennsylvania
Rhode Island—Henry W. Robinson, 27 Clarke St., Newport, Rhode Island
South Carolina—George D. Grice, Julian Mitchell School, Charleston, South Carolina
South Dakota—No State Chairman
Tennessee—W. O. Hornadan, Bedar Hill School, Chattanooga, Tennessee
Texas—James T. Whittlesey, 317 S. Marsalis Ave., Dallas, Texas
Utah—Joseph B. Driggs, Hamilton School, Salt Lake City, Utah
Vermont—May I. Donnelly, Lawrence Barnes School, Burlington, Vermont
Virginia—Forbes H. Norris, Robert E. Lee School, Richmond, Virginia
Washington—Lester L. Reeves, West Queen Ann School, Seattle, Washington
West Virginia—No State Chairman
Wisconsin—Elizabeth McCormick, Howe School, Superior, Wisconsin
Wyoming—No State Chairman
Porto Rico—Isolina del Toro, Asst. Supvr. of Schools, Baldorioty de Castro School, San Juan, Porto Rico
Virgin Islands—Amadeo I. Francis, Prin., Fredericksted Public School, St. Croix, Virgin Islands

THE PRINCIPAL AND SUPERVISION

A preliminary announcement by the Editorial Committee of its plans, outlines, and suggestions for the 1931 Yearbook of the Department of Elementary School Principals.

Supervision is the theme of the 1931 Yearbook of the Department of Elementary School Principals. This is a problem upon which progressive principals are centering much of their time and energy. The time has come for a survey and an evaluation of progress written by principals themselves. Let members of the Department join with the Editorial Committee in a comprehensive statement of creative and practical supervisory procedures.

General suggestions to contributors—Chapters on supervision are solicited from elementary school principals. Other school workers may submit manuscripts but applications of practises and principles should be made from the angle of the school head.

Authors are asked to be specific. No one should apologize for the principal's place in supervision, nor explain why the principal should be considered a supervisor. Take these facts for granted. Devote your chapter to telling HOW a principal can supervise. Show WHAT happens under supervision. Explain the USE of specific supervisory technics. Tell WHY one technic is used now and another activity at another time. Describe results as shown in both teacher and pupil progress.

Remember that teachers' meetings, rating scales, standard tests, conferences, and similar devices are means not ends. Ask yourself what the supervisory technics are supposed to accomplish. What do teachers think of your work? By what criteria do you judge the effectiveness of procedures? Can you offer objective evidence on the value of a supervisory program?

Where can you get help?—Discussions in local professional clubs are frequently most helpful. Individual and group experiments have brought out valuable supervisory procedures. All such activities will be stimulated by the following publications:

1. National Education Association, Division of Research. "The Principal as a Supervisor." *Research Bulletin* 7 : 277-348; November, 1929. $.25.
2. National Education Association, Department of Superintendence. The 1930 Yearbook on supervision may be obtained in February, 1930, by sending $2 to 1201 Sixteenth St., N. W., Washington, D. C.

The above sources contain rich bibliographies on many phases of supervision. The principal who is pursuing a particular problem will be able to find the most recent developments in his field.

Since manuscripts are not due until November 1, 1930, many principals will avail themselves of the opportunities of summer schools. Experiments initiated NOW can be written up for professional classes and later submitted to the Editorial Committee.

A preliminary outline of the Yearbook is given on the next page of this bulletin. Principals should write upon problems which may be classified under the main topics of this outline.

PRELIMINARY OUTLINE OF THE 1931 YEARBOOK

THE PRINCIPAL AND SUPERVISION

I. *General chapters.*

1. Supervision by subjects. 2. Supervision by grades. 3. Research and supervision. 4. Etc.

II. *Administrative phases of supervision.*

1. Relationship of superintendent and principal. 2. Relationship of special supervisor and principal. 3. How building management influences supervision. 4. Efficient use of supplies and equipment. 5. Records and instruction. 6. Etc.

III. *Influencing the teacher.*

1. Morale Building. 2. Teachers meetings. 3. Individual conferences. 4. Classroom visits. 5. Professional courses. 6. Supervisory rating and self-rating. 7. Demonstration lessons. 8. What do teachers think of supervision? 9. Etc.

IV. *Adjusting and guiding pupils.*

1. Case studies. 2. Use of standard tests. 3. Individual instruction. 4. Placement procedures. 5. Promotion schemes. 6. Pupil report cards. 7. Conferences with pupils. 8. Etc.

V. *Re-vitalizing the curriculum.*

1. Selecting textbooks. 2. The principal on city-wide (or county) committees. 3. Experiments with instructional materials. 4. Using the new-type examinations. 5. Curriculum committees within a single school. 6. How pupils shape the curriculum. 7. The community and the course of study. 8. Etc.

VI. *Developing the principal for and through supervision.*

1. Getting more training in summer schools. 2. How principals' clubs help with supervision. 3. Professional reading of the principal. 4. The principal as an author. 5. Professional study prior to conferences and teachers meetings. 6. Etc.

VII. *Evaluating the principal's supervisory program.*

1. What objective evidence shows the value of supervision? 2. What case studies indicate that supervision produces unique results? 3. Rating schemes devised by local principals' clubs. 4. Some commercial rating cards. 5. What basic criteria can be used in judging the principal's supervisory program? 6. Etc.

Letters of inquiry may be sent to the Editorial Committee, Department of Elementary School Principals, 1201 Sixteenth St., N. W., Washington, D. C., or directly to the individual committee members: Earl R. Laing (Chairman), Burt School, Detroit, Michigan; Isabel Tucker, Shenandoah School, Saint Louis, Missouri; and Arthur S. Gist, State Teachers College, San Francisco, California.

THE ATLANTIC CITY MEETING

EDUCATION in the Spirit of Life is the convention theme selected by President Frank Cody for the sixtieth meeting of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association, at Atlantic City, New Jersey, February 22-27, 1930. Headquarters, registration, general sessions, and exhibits will be held in the Atlantic City convention hall located on the Boardwalk.

THE DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

General sessions—The Department of Elementary School Principals will have two general sessions on Monday and Wednesday afternoons at 2 P. M. Music will be furnished by the National High School Orchestra. The general theme for discussion is the Principal's Part in Formulating and Organizing a Program of Elementary Education in the Spirit of Life. The program in full will be found on another page of the Bulletin.

Breakfast meetings—There will be breakfast meetings on Monday and Tuesday mornings at the Hotel Jefferson, Kentucky Avenue, near Beach, at 7.30 A. M. Price $1. Miss Mary F. Willey, Pennsylvania Avenue School, Atlantic City, will be in charge. These breakfasts furnish the opportunity for principals from all sections of the country to become acquainted. Committee chairmen will present brief reports. Every elementary school principal is invited to be present.

Department dinner—The dinner of the Department will be held Tuesday evening, February 25, in the American Room, Hotel Breakers. William J. Cooper, United States Commissioner of Education, will be the chief speaker. The subject for his address will be, The Professional Opportunity of the Principal. Music by the National High School Orchestra. As the Department was organized at Atlantic City eight years ago the dinner will be in the nature of a birthday party. Price per place $3.50. Tickets should be bought on Monday. Mr. Mason A. Stratton, Brighton Avenue School, Atlantic City, is in charge of dinner arrangements.

Hotel reservations—For hotel reservations, application should be made at once to Mr. A. H. Skein, Secretary of the Hotel Committee, Atlantic City, New Jersey. State clearly the type of accommodations desired and the date of your arrival. Be sure to give name and address of persons who will share your room. Act now. Principals should begin at once to make their plans to attend this great meeting.

Headquarters—The social and business headquarters of the Department will be at the Convention Hall. Through the courtesy of the Crane Company, Chicago, Illinois, we will have the use of a suite of rooms in that building. These rooms will be open Saturday, February 22, and Sunday, February 23, from 3 to 5 P. M., and on Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday, and Thursday from 10 A. M. until 10 P. M. Telephone, stenographer, information, and a place to meet your friends.

Afternoon tea—New Jersey principals will serve tea at the headquarters in the Crane Exhibit Building on Monday, Tuesday, and Wednesday after-

noons. Miss Alberta M. Johnson, Richmond Avenue School, is in charge of the hospitality committee. New Jersey principals extend a most cordial invitation to all elementary school principals to be their guests at these afternoon teas.

Appreciation of hospitality—Cordial thanks are extended to Mr. James R. Floyd, General Chairman, to local chairmen, to the principals of the Atlantic City schools, to the New Jersey Department of Elementary School Principals, and to all organizations and individuals that have given of their best efforts in our behalf, for the delightful hospitality and the efficient management that will make the Atlantic City meeting of our Department a notable success.

HERBERT C. HANSEN,
President, Department of Elementary School Principals.

ATLANTIC CITY PROGRAM

The Principal's Part in Formulating and Organizing a Program of Elementary Education in the Spirit of Life

FIRST SESSION

MONDAY AFTERNOON, FEBRUARY 24, 2 P. M.

MUSIC
String Group, National High School Orchestra

GREETINGS
Frank Cody, President, Department of Superintendence, Superintendent of Schools, Detroit, Michigan

THE OFFICE PRINCIPAL
B. R. Buckingham, Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts

THE COMMON PURPOSES OF TEACHERS, PRINCIPALS, AND SUPERVISORS
Julia L. Hahn, Director of Primary Grades, San Francisco, California

THE SALARY OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS
J. R. McGaughy, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City

DISCUSSION
John J. Loftus, Principal, Public School 80, Brooklyn, New York
George I. Brinkerhoff, Principal, Webster School, Newark, New Jersey

SECOND SESSION

WEDNESDAY AFTERNOON, FEBRUARY 26, 2 P. M.

MUSIC
National High School Orchestra

THE EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP OF THE PRINCIPAL
E. Ruth Pyrtle, President, National Education Association, Principal, Bancroft School, Lincoln, Nebraska

PUTTING THE "PURR" IN SUPERVISION
James R. Floyd, Principal, Jefferson School, Plainfield, New Jersey

DIVERSE NATURE OF THE PRINCIPAL'S WORK
Ellwood P. Cubberley, Stanford University, California

THE PURPOSE AND PLAN OF THE DEPARTMENT YEARBOOK
Earl R. Laing, Chairman, Editorial Committee, Principal, Burt School, Detroit, Michigan

REPORT OF SALARY COMMITTEE
Warren A. Roe, Principal, Belmont Avenue School, Newark, New Jersey

BUSINESS MEETING