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OF THE
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School Principals

THE NINTH YEARBOOK
The Principal
and Administration

Good Administration
Precedes
Good Supervision

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PRINCIPALS generally have shown a professional activity not witnessed in any other period of educational history, and American elementary school principals have formed a strong, compact organization for research in their own problems which has accomplished one of the most significant educational transformations of the decade.—William John Cooper, Commissioner of Education, addressing a general session of the Department of Superintendence, Atlantic City, February, 1930.

THE CONTRIBUTION which the Department of Elementary School Principals is making to American Education, through meetings, research, and publications is most invaluable. Every superintendent of the country should encourage his principals to avail themselves of the benefits of this department.—Frank Cody, Superintendent, Detroit, Michigan.

PREFACE

AT THE CLEVELAND meeting of the Department in February, 1929, the Editorial Committee was appointed to take over the increasing demands of yearbook editing. Up to this time several individuals had given much unselfish service in the work. The first yearbook in 1922 was edited by Worth McClure; the second by John L. Bracken; and the third, fourth, fifth, sixth, and eighth yearbooks by Arthur S. Gist. The seventh volume was a report of the Committee on Standards and Training under the chairmanship of William T. Longshore. To these pioneers belongs much of the credit for "breaking the trail" which the Editorial Committee has followed.

The 1930 yearbook of the Department emphasizes the place of good administration in a progressive school. In 1931 the yearbook will be given entirely to supervision. By this order of topics the Committee affirms the principle: that good administration precedes good supervision.

Several innovations in the Committee's procedure should be called to the attention of the Department:

(1) A questionnaire will be found on page 135 of this volume. Readers are asked to use this blank in sending the Editorial Committee suggestions for our yearbooks.

(2) A preliminary résumé or summary chapter has been included to give the reader a general view of the yearbook as a whole.

(3) Immediately following the résumé are several chapters which emphasize the philosophical aspects of school administration. These contributions suggest some of the larger aims of the principalship.

(4) An index has been included so as to make the contents of the chapters more readily available to the busy administrator.

The Editorial Committee wishes to thank the many principals and other school workers who offered manuscripts for publication. In a few instances such contributions could not be included because they were not adaptable to the theme of the yearbook. Everywhere the Committee has met with friendly responses and concrete offers of assistance. Much of the credit for this volume belongs to many persons who were not actually members of the Editorial Committee.

The Committee appreciates particularly the work of the Headquarters Staff of the National Education Association at Washington, D. C. Mr. S. D. Shankland has made the necessary business arrangements for furthering the Committee's work. The Division of

Publications, through Lyle W. Ashby, has handled the details of printing. Much of the planning, organization, and preparation of chapter contents has been executed by the Research Division under the direction of Frank W. Hubbard, Assistant Director of Research.

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THIS IS YOUR YEARBOOK

The Ninth Yearbook has been planned to meet the needs and interests of the members of the Department of Elementary School Principals. How has it done so? Your criticisms, suggestions, or praise will be helpful to the Editorial Committee. Just tear out this page along the perforation and mail to the Editorial Committee, Department of Elementary School Principals, 1201 Sixteenth St. N. W., Washington, D. C.

Good points of yearbook:

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Weak points.....

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THE FUTURE CHALLENGES US

THE DAY of the new principalship is at hand. The radical changes in elementary education are demanding a new type of leadership. Fundamental changes in school organization and purposes have ushered in a rapidly changing order. Where do the elementary school principals stand? What immediate problems require solution? How can we meet the new problems which so insistently demand our attention?

First we can take a firm stand on the personal and professional qualifications of those entering our ranks. The day is past when "just anyone" makes a good elementary school principal. Elementary schools are no longer the simple institutions they once were. In several states there are organized movements to set up laws and rules for principals' credentials. Do such forward steps enlist the interest and profit by the experience of those who are now principals?

A second problem is to arouse and keep active the present great body of principals. Even now supervision is being offered to us as a fitting token of our strategic position. Will we ignore the challenge thus offered? Are we too busy with routine matters to give instruction its just due? It is true that we must have balance on this point. It won't do to neglect highly important administrative procedures, as pointed out in this present yearbook. Nor will mere enthusiasm prove a substitute for genuine supervisory skill. Does not this problem emphasize the importance of continuous self-improvement in service?

Third we must take steps to see that the principalship is placed upon a sound economic basis. The May, 1929, *Research Bulletin* of the National Education Association showed a median salary of \$3443 in cities of 100,000 population. Let us remember that 50 percent of the principals in these large cities are *below* that figure. Is this a professional wage for skilled supervisors?

Ours is not merely a problem of gross salaries, nor is it restricted to urban areas alone. How can we reduce unnecessary transfer of skilled principals to higher salaried positions? How can we make rural positions attractive to those with skill and professional training? How can we increase the public's appreciation of the superintendency so that this position will provide the principalship with able leadership?

The above paragraphs merely touch upon the problems confronting us as principals. There are still other challenges in such fields as curriculum construction, teacher personnel, textbook improve-

ment, libraries, and school organization. Who now can interpret any of these problems adequately when measured in terms of our ultimate aim—child growth?

Our great hope lies in improving the technics and broadening the vision of each principal. Here is where our local, state and national associations offer inmeasurable hope. There are 40,000 of us or more. One in eight of that number is a member of the national department. How long must the few carry the organized work of the many? Surely we are ready to enlist the united efforts of *all* elementary school principals in meeting the challenges of the next decade.

Education moves forward. Those of us who insist that principals assume their rightful leadership may answer the standpatter with the words of Charles Beard, "It might be better to be wrecked on an express train bound to a destination than to moulder in a freight car side-tracked in a well-fenced lumber yard."

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

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RÉSUMÉ¹

The purpose of this résumé is to give the reader a brief survey of the treasures to be found upon subsequent pages. He who fails to go beyond these preliminary paragraphs will deprive himself of the details of sane theory and effective practice.

Good administration precedes good supervision. This guiding principle of the Editorial Committee appears again throughout the yearbook. By placing administration first the Committee is merely recognizing the precedence of common practice and is not raising the question of relative values. Certainly, the first obligation of the principal is to organize and to manage his school as effectively as possible. Upon the solid foundation of practical administration the complex superstructure of supervision is reared.

One of the obvious conclusions brought out by this yearbook is *that the same school actively may be administered successfully in a number of different ways.* Does this imply confused muddling? Not at all. The most effective devices for School A are not necessarily the "best" for School B. What seems to be "best" today may not be desirable practice tomorrow. Hence, the uniqueness of each school forces the principal to be forever critical of his own practices and of the suggestions of others. It is this questioning attitude which the reader should bring to all subsequent pages.

*Foresight in administration*²—Dr. Judd has undoubtedly centered attention upon the crux of effective administration when he discusses the need of foresight. The principal who "thinks through" his problems does not have to face the dilemma of unexpected demands. He has anticipated such emergencies.

The practice of foresight has implications far beyond administrative phases of the principal's work. The individual who anticipates problems is no longer the slave of petty whim and routine. Each duty has a time and a place in accordance with its relative value. Through foresight the principal is able to allot to administration, supervision, research, and community relationships their due share of his energy.

¹The résumé has been prepared by the Research Division of the National Education Association and the Editorial Committee of the Department of Elementary School Principals. Readers are requested not to form judgments on any individual contribution without referring to the full text. Page numbers of the complete article can be easily found by looking for the author's name in the index at the back of the yearbook.

²See Chapter I.

*The school reflects the principal's philosophy*¹—Mrs. Susan M. Dorsey, formerly superintendent in Los Angeles, summons principals to a philosophy of human helpfulness. She regrets that some principals overlook their chances to raise the whole level of life within the school's community.

The movement to enrich life demands leadership. Through teachers, pupils, curriculum, extra-curriculum activities, and the community itself, the principal's constructive efforts may exert widespread influence. Is it enough to administer an efficient school? Or, is it obligatory upon the principal to make his school a forceful and an aggressive factor in human progress? Mrs. Dorsey offers practical procedures as well as challenging theories.

*Importance of a good philosophy of education*²—Hamilton emphasizes the need for principals to have a sound philosophy of education. Many of the emphases in school administration will take their cue from what the principal considers to be educationally important. The ability to discriminate between administrative values requires each principal to measure his practices in terms of his philosophies of education and life.

*The principal's time budget*³—The recent emphasis on supervision and certain major administrative duties has put new stress on the principal's working day. Some principals feel that matters are approaching an *impasse*, for their duties are already heavy for one individual. What can be done to meet the situation?

Abbott starts the consideration of the principal's work habits with a clever description of Mr. N. A. Rutt of Typicality, U. S. A. How many of us have not been in Principal Rutt's condition, where the gales of petty duties have swept us from our feet? Abbott does not stop with witticisms. He analyzes carefully the value of the daily schedule, cites examples of good time allotments, and then shows how the schedule actually operates. Abbott is not satisfied with daily schedules for principals, but insists on the value of weekly, monthly, and yearly plans. Does this proposal illustrate the "foresight" discussed by Dr. Judd in Chapter I?

Bennett proposes in his article that the principal set up a daily time schedule, supplemented by a number of record forms. The various printed and mimeographed cards tend to reduce routine duties to a minimum. With the time thus obtained the principal carries for-

¹ See Chapter II.

² See Chapter III.

³ See Chapter IV.

ward a flexible daily schedule which he often must have "the courage to disregard."

Flowers calls upon principals to examine their working habits. Are you delegating routine work to others? Do you plan your time? Do you insist that others give fair consideration to your daily plan? Are your office hours known to school patrons? Have you reduced routine directions to typed or mimeographed form?

*The administrative assistants*¹—The fifth chapter is concerned primarily with the administrative assistants and the vice-principals of the school. However, in any closely knit organization the functioning of clerks, nurses, vice-principals, and principal are so closely allied that this and subsequent chapters tend to overlap. What rôles do the administrative assistants play?

Taylor starts by pointing out that the number and types of the principal's assistants depend much upon the school's program. A traditional school in an ordinary American community makes certain demands. A large platoon school in a foreign district is a far more complex situation. Taylor's school community requires an office staff consisting of a visiting teacher, a psychologist, a primary supervisor, a vice-principal, and several clerks. Bringing this group into unity of action requires (1) an analysis of functions, (2) an agreement upon responsibilities, and (3) frequent "cabinet" meetings for the maintenance of efficient coordination.

Katz advocates the policy of magnifying the vice-principalship. Why have skilled and trained assistants if the principal merely assigns them clerical tasks? The principal is wise when he trains his assistants to assume supervisory leadership. Katz insists that the delegation of responsibility carries with it the giving of authority. Hence, while retaining the ultimate responsibility for instruction the principal is careful to work *through* and not *around* his administrative assistants.

Hendricks discusses the relationship between superintendent, principals, and visiting teachers in a small school system. His "visiting teacher" is really the teaching supervisor found in large school systems. It is interesting to compare the lists of duties in a small system with those found in cities or in professional textbooks. Is much of our present educational theory based upon urban rather than rural practices?

*The school clerk*²—Probably one of the most practical problems facing superintendents and principals is that of school clerks. That

¹See Chapter V.

²See Chapter VI.

the problem is not a simple one may be indicated by such questions as these: Should clerical help be supplied to teachers as well as to principals? Do principals know how to use clerical help efficiently? What training should clerks have? Is school enrolment the best basis for assigning clerks to schools?

Donner describes a plan for making the office and the clerical staff most efficient. He suggests, first, that the office arrangement and the equipment be adapted to the school program. His second step is the analysis and coordination of the functions of the office personnel. Without these basic administrative procedures the principal cannot free himself for supervision.

McClure's article presents the situation somewhat from the viewpoint of the superintendent's office. In Seattle, the central office has not only provided the clerks, but it has sponsored a study of the clerk's duties and has used these data in advising principals. McClure's article is convincing evidence that the problem before superintendents is not, "Shall principals have clerks?" but, "How can the central office help principals to use clerks effectively?"

Duffy is anxious to magnify the school clerkship until it becomes a secretaryship. By obtaining persons of ability, paying adequate salaries, and delegating significant duties, he hopes to provide principals with intelligent help.

Coffey describes a teacher-secretary arrangement which comes close to meeting Duffy's criteria. Many readers will see in the teacher-secretary the same elements as found in the "assistant to the principal" plan. Coffey's time schedule and description of duties should be helpful in school systems where teachers are assigned to office work.

Kehoe sets forth the advantages of a handbook of clerical duties. He writes from the experiences of a group of New York principals who have prepared such a booklet. The New York handbook contains samples of record forms, instructions for making reports, and sources of information. How many principals have felt the need of such a handbook in training a new employee, or during the absence of the regular clerk?

*School organization procedures*¹—Professional literature is full of the derelicts and wreckage of school organization schemes. This chapter makes no attempt to exhaust the field of even present, much less abandoned, practices. But here are found some stimulating articles on how the school or its classes may be organized so as to reach the individual pupil.

¹See Chapter VII.

Dr. Courtis leads off the chapter with a thoughtful article on individualization. Will individualization as an *evolutionary tendency* remain even after individualization as a *panacea* has waned? Is individualization merely an administrative movement, or does it reach over into the curriculum, teaching methods, and educational philosophy? What does each principal know about individualization? What can the principal do about it?

Colburn reviews the complications facing the principal who organizes classes for bright and slow children. Are tests reliable devices in segregating children? Can "just anyone" be trusted with the examination and placement of pupils? Colburn emphasizes the importance of adapting teaching, curriculum content, and school equipment to the different classes.

Addicott describes an interesting experiment with a class of bright pupils. He tells how the class program was given over to information mastery, special activities, creative work, appreciation, and testing. It is safe to predict that Addicott's lead will be followed by many principals.

Shedd is principal of a regular school in which orthopedic classes have been organized. This arrangement brings the physically defective child in wholesome contacts with his more fortunate fellows. The splendid humanitarian philosophy behind the movement for special orthopedic classes is worthy of widespread emulation.

Matthews discusses the need for various types of special classes, including orthopedic, sight-saving, open-air, ungraded, and coaching. She presents evidence on how principals use and evaluate such special work in meeting the needs of individual pupils.

Cornish and Stark have collaborated in describing the work of an opportunity class. These writers show objective evidence of the value of coaching and studying the maladjusted pupil.

Bowen and Latshaw have jointly discussed a plan of ability grouping. They point out some of the common mistakes of inexperienced administrators in using tests, and emphasize basic principles to be followed in correct practice.

Ritow's article offers much practical advice to the principal who plans to departmentalize his school. Principals of platoon and departmentalized schools usually testify that program making is one of their most difficult problems. Ritow leads the reader step by step through his experiences in several Chicago schools.

Duvall suggests a combination of the platoon and non-platoon schemes of organization. Is it advisable to throw primary children into the specialized platoon plan? Can the primary grades be given

the problem is not a simple one may be indicated by such questions as these: Should clerical help be supplied to teachers as well as to principals? Do principals know how to use clerical help efficiently? What training should clerks have? Is school enrolment the best basis for assigning clerks to schools?

Donner describes a plan for making the office and the clerical staff most efficient. He suggests, first, that the office arrangement and the equipment be adapted to the school program. His second step is the analysis and coordination of the functions of the office personnel. Without these basic administrative procedures the principal cannot free himself for supervision.

McClure's article presents the situation somewhat from the viewpoint of the superintendent's office. In Seattle, the central office has not only provided the clerks, but it has sponsored a study of the clerk's duties and has used these data in advising principals. McClure's article is convincing evidence that the problem before superintendents is not, "Shall principals have clerks?" but, "How can the central office help principals to use clerks effectively?"

Duffy is anxious to magnify the school clerkship until it becomes a secretaryship. By obtaining persons of ability, paying adequate salaries, and delegating significant duties, he hopes to provide principals with intelligent help.

Coffey describes a teacher-secretary arrangement which comes close to meeting Duffy's criteria. Many readers will see in the teacher-secretary the same elements as found in the "assistant to the principal" plan. Coffey's time schedule and description of duties should be helpful in school systems where teachers are assigned to office work.

Kehoe sets forth the advantages of a handbook of clerical duties. He writes from the experiences of a group of New York principals who have prepared such a booklet. The New York handbook contains samples of record forms, instructions for making reports, and sources of information. How many principals have felt the need of such a handbook in training a new employee, or during the absence of the regular clerk?

*School organization procedures*¹—Professional literature is full of the derelicts and wreckage of school organization schemes. This chapter makes no attempt to exhaust the field of even present, much less abandoned, practices. But here are found some stimulating articles on how the school or its classes may be organized so as to reach the individual pupil.

¹ See Chapter VII.

Dr. Courtis leads off the chapter with a thoughtful article on individualization. Will individualization as an *evolutionary tendency* remain even after individualization as a *panacea* has waned? Is individualization merely an administrative movement, or does it reach over into the curriculum, teaching methods, and educational philosophy? What does each principal know about individualization? What can the principal do about it?

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activities characteristic of the platoon movement without the dangers of too much specialization?

*School management problems*¹—The direction and guidance of the organized school raise many problems of management. How much responsibility can teachers and pupils share with the principal in running the school? What part should the janitor take in school control? Should teachers be assigned to yard duty? How can pupil control be used in the cafeteria?

Adams describes a school in which self-direction is stressed. Pupils, teachers, janitors, patrons, and principal have their own responsibilities—and apparently the desire to carry their share of the load. Surely there is a splendid school spirit and abundant opportunities for growth in a school under such democratic control.

Enfield turns his attention to specific devices in maintaining intercommunication within the building. How many principals have thought about the teaching time wasted by circulating notices during school hours? Enfield suggests the teachers' committees as a means for circulating non-emergency information. He is convinced on the basis of experience that many directions to teachers could be reduced to simple form in a teacher's handbook.

Stanton made a study in Seattle of the extent to which principals shared school management with teachers and pupils. His data suggest such questions as these: Is it necessary for teachers to patrol the halls? Can pupils control their own activities on the playground? Does the principal have to run the lost and found department? Should the assignment of routine duties to pupils provide for child growth?

Kretsinger analyzes the problem of yard duty for teachers. He describes various types of pupil and teacher control of playground activities. Many principals will agree that the play period offers teachers an opportunity to become better acquainted with children. How can playground assignment be freed from its "police duty" implications?

Briscoe gives careful consideration to the management of food, equipment, service, and funds of the school cafeteria. The school cafeteria is more than an administrative problem, for it bears closely on health instruction. The standard menus and checklist of cleanliness as used in the Oakland school system will be appreciated by many principals.

Jacobs discusses the control of the cafeteria as an opportunity for teaching and practising good pupil behavior. He tells of various

¹ See Chapter VIII.

devices which tend to make the lunch period a pleasant part of the school day.

Vincent points out the possibility of improving learning conditions by stimulating attendance. He suggests not only "drive" procedures, but a careful study and elimination of specific handicaps to good attendance.

Rich describes the simple scheme used in Detroit for accounting for the funds in each elementary school. How many principals safeguard themselves against criticisms by proper financial records? Few schools can overlook suggestions on school accounting.

Harriss introduces us to the possibility of radio in education. She is not interested in the radio as an extra-curriculum activity, but as a vital influence upon all instruction.

*Health and safety education*¹—Problems in health and safety have come forward in recent years to positions of serious importance. Medical research has shown that minor illnesses can be prevented with reasonable attention to sleep, diet, and cleanliness. The thousands of deaths and injuries due to traffic conditions have brought increased emphasis on safety work.

Wilkinson believes in improving the learning opportunities of children by eliminating unnecessary absences. She describes how a school may take an aggressive attack in the matter of health without usurping parental rights. This difference between paternalism and intelligent help in health work is a distinction well worth making.

Jacobs reports the details of a thorough-going health program. Much attention was given to enlisting pupils and parents in clean-up campaigns, physical examinations, and similar preventive measures. While many phases of the health program had a "drive" aspect, Jacobs was foresighted enough to provide for correlations of activities and permanent interests.

Fleming questions the 10 percent standard as the best criterion for locating the physically deficient child. He believes that it is more important to locate children who do not show healthy growth over a period of months. The practices and records suggested undoubtedly accomplish the health objectives of the school without unnecessarily antagonizing parents and without subjecting the school to the charge of superficiality.

Graham's article deserves careful study and use by principals. He presents in careful form the methods for changing safety work from a subjective to an objective basis. Do not such facts as the following bear directly on the safety program? (1) Certain schools have higher

¹See Chapter IX.

accident rates than others; (2) 60 percent of the total number of accidents occur when children are violating safety rules; and (3) 96 percent of traffic accidents *cannot* be appreciably minimized by safety patrols, police, or mechanical devices, but must depend on educating the individual child.

Condon presents an outline of a safety education program. She lists the objectives to be sought; the means for enlisting pupils, teachers and public; and a bibliography in safety work. This article is an excellent illustration of the administrative foresight suggested by Dr. Judd in Chapter I.

Woods summarizes some of the main problems and guiding principles in connection with fire drills. Obviously, the fire drill is an opportunity for teachers and pupils to apply the teachings of safety education.

Buckalew has made a survey of fire drill practices in 51 cities and drawn from these data certain basic practices. He indicates how the fire drill may be linked with fire prevention instruction. In this way the drill becomes a form of instruction which should exert a significant community influence. The general adoption of Buckalew's suggestions would be further evidence of the alertness of elementary school principals.

*Pupil personnel practices*¹—One of the significant movements of the past 20 years has been the study of the individual pupil. Such research has led to the special classes, modified curriculums, and other adaptations described elsewhere in the yearbook. In this chapter the emphasis is placed chiefly upon the devices and techniques used in discovering the differences between children.

Riggs describes the principal as the leader in pupil personnel work. He suggests record forms, but places most emphasis on the personal interview between principal and child. Many principals will agree with Riggs on the importance of the principal's personality in the school.

Patton tells of a survey of retardation in several Boston schools. He followed up the general study by case studies and adjustment of the retarded pupils. From this experience he advocates the careful examination of all pupils.

Remick believes that general school morale depends much upon the attitude of individual pupils. Therefore, helping the individual to happiness and proper educational adjustment is a promising approach for the principal. She describes the functioning of the progressive school and cites illustrative case studies.

¹See Chapter X.

Knox challenges principals to attack the problem of juvenile delinquency. She believes one approach to the problem is the visiting teacher who works under the principal's immediate direction. How many "problem" cases require only that an adult sympathize with the child's viewpoint?

Brennan points out the importance of cooperation in meeting pupil adjustment problems. While the principal usually initiates the case study, he can benefit by the help of teachers, parents, psychologists, clinics, and physicians.

Masters cites evidence of the value of a pupil guidance program in the elementary school. The pupils of his upper grades are rated by their teachers. With these data the guidance teacher interviews every child, giving help with the elementary school adjustment as well as preparing for entrance into the high school.

Wrightstone suggests that much record keeping has tended to dismember the child into educational, physical, and emotional units. He believes that both administration and supervision can be improved by the use of cumulative record cards.

*Building school morale*¹—During the World War we heard much of civilian and army morale as essential factors in united group action. The same principles apply in the management of the elementary school. Without hearty pupil and teacher support the principal's program has little chance of success. How can the principal influence the spirit of the pupils and the teachers?

Cox reviews the factors and methods in building school morale among children. He believes that many children require the influence of a "moral sanitarium" separate from regular schools. But whether such segregation takes place or not, the regular school needs to utilize the psychiatrist and other scientific means much more than it is now doing.

Curtiss brings home in vivid fashion the importance of adjusting school management to the local problems. His school in a negro community presents an amazing array of complex social problems. While adhering to many of the modern tendencies toward pupil freedom, Curtiss realizes that theory cannot always receive immediate and full application. This discriminating sense between theory and practice is indispensable in successful administration.

Henderson describes a plan whereby pupils may earn points by serving others. At the end of the year proper recognition is given to those pupils who have high records. Fortunately, Henderson is alert to the disadvantages as well as the advantages of his plan.

¹ See Chapter XI.

Perkins shows a keen sense of boy psychology in handling the Knot Hole Gang. Here the destructive gang tendencies are sublimated into more constructive activities. How wise is the principal who fights the school gang?

Kirk's school government plan illustrates the suggestion made earlier that the pupils should participate in school control. Kirk is not interested in present problems only. He believes that pupil government helps children to practise the art of living with others.

Foulks summarizes the influence of various types of pupil participation in administration. He believes that the pupil government scheme offers many opportunities for developing self-control in a social situation.

Paris shifts our interest from the pupil phase of school morale to that of the teacher. Why emphasize pupil freedom and continue to bind the teacher? Paris indicates a way in which teacher committees can share with the principal the problems of school management.

Jones illustrates in her article how the principal's friendliness can be helpful to the faculty. She suggests that the teachers be called upon for advice and criticism in developing the school's program.

Hammond describes an administrative rating scale which she believes improves teacher morale. The rating scale is specific in its items, the purpose of the rating, and the rating scores are fully explained to each teacher. The justice and the frankness of the whole procedure tend to encourage positive faculty attitudes.

*Extra-curriculum activities*¹—In most modern schools there are few extra-curriculum activities as such. We use the term now merely to distinguish certain less formal activities from the more academic work of the classroom. Although these new activities have been generally accepted as worthwhile, every principal must face such problems as the following: (1) How can the special activities be integrated with the academic program? (2) What types of extra-curriculum projects can our school undertake? (3) Who should select the particular activities? (4) What part should each teacher take in the special activity program?

After discussing the principles of administration underlying an extra-curriculum program, Burger makes certain applications to the Boy Scout movement. He shows how Scouting develops the leadership so essential to pupil participation in building management. A strong Scout troop can do much to relieve the principal from routine duties.

¹ See Chapter XII.

Herron describes the bands and orchestras which can be developed in an elementary school. In the program outlined in this article, who can say where the regular class work leaves off and the "extra" activities begin? Herron gives many practical and specific suggestions.

Brooks states that clubs in the elementary school are helping to break down undesirable formality. He describes how teachers became interested, the activities sponsored, and the possibilities for future growth of the club work in his school.

Norris considers the pupil clubs as means of enriching the curriculum without adding more subjects. Each pupil is given the opportunity to select his own club and to develop his own activities with the minimum of teacher control.

Michael describes in detail the organization and management of an elementary school newspaper. He shows that the work has at least four values: (1) training pupils in management, (2) giving pupils practice in writing, (3) the dissemination of useful information within the school, and (4) the enlistment of community interest in the school's activities.

Lowman discusses the school newspaper in terms of its influence upon English. How much more exciting it is to write for the school paper than it is to write an *ordinary* theme!

Graves reviews the various types and purposes of school assemblies. It is obvious that the assembly becomes the focusing point for both regular and extra-curriculum activities. Once again it may be asked: In a well managed school how can one clearly distinguish between the regular and special parts of the educational program?

*The school library and museum*¹—The school library idea is gaining more followers each year. No longer are we satisfied with merely teaching the child *what* he should know. The *why* and *how* of studying are given so much more emphasis than formerly. The library offers the school many opportunities to care for the inter- and intra-curriculum activities.

Madison describes a plan whereby the principal becomes a leader in the library work of his school. She believes that "getting the right book to the right child at the right time" requires immediate and intimate direction in each school unit. The evidence cited indicates that the plan fits in smoothly with the principal's administrative duties.

¹See Chapter XIII.

Lovis believes that a school librarian should be a teacher with special library training. She summarizes some of the current plans and programs of library training. How can principals select librarians who will develop the "magical" and not the museum-like qualities of the library?

King discusses the furniture and equipment of the school library. His suggestions are concrete and specific in every detail. Principals who are starting libraries will be particularly interested in King's advice.

Merriam presents objective evidence of the trend in school systems from limited textbook toward broad library experiences. This movement means the enrichment of the curriculum in accordance with present progressive practices.

Daugherty describes the functioning of the school museum in connection with science instruction. Exhibits arouse interests which carry over not only in the first-hand study of nature, but also in the vicarious experiences of library reading.

*The principal's community contacts*¹—In Chapter II Mrs. Dorsey says that the community is entitled to more than the educational crumbs which incidentally are brought home by the children. This statement raises many problems: To what extent should the principal "adjust" his school to the community? How can the principal find out what the community needs or ought to have? How can the school's work be brought before the patrons?

Thomas suggests that the principal must study his community. If education is training *in* life, then no school can afford to be ignorant of the elements *of* life. Thomas suggests the community contacts which are reasonable to expect of every principal.

Taylor discusses constructive relationships between parents and school, with particular emphasis upon the parent-teacher association. He cites examples of cooperation which have benefited both school and home. When a parent-teacher association is not a constructive influence Taylor believes that the principal has been indifferent to his chances for leadership.

Chase describes in detail a study made of the movie and literature interests of children. On the basis of these data she was able to give much valuable advice to the parent-teacher association.

Nye shows how the parent-teacher association and the school can work together in the interests of children. Obviously, such constructive relationships depend much upon the leadership qualities of the principal.

¹ See Chapter XIV.

Webbling presents a description of efforts to adjust the schools and communities in Hawaii. Cooperating authors have helped Webbling to report Hawaiian practices along such lines as the parent-teacher association, school adjustment, nutritional work, dental hygiene, and the curriculum. This remarkable program will suggest to all principals many valuable practices.

Bennett shows the importance of school publicity. Her program is concerned not only with advertising the school to the public, but in giving children practice in preparing publicity materials.

Gragg briefly reviews various types of school publicity. He believes that putting school news before the community is a duty of teachers and pupils as well as of the principal.

Brady describes the publicity mediums utilized in his community. Among the means discussed are: the daily newspaper, the parent's night at school, the report card, exhibits, entertainments, educational publications, and Saturday afternoon interviews between teachers and parents.

Conclusion—The reader, who has patiently read the above résumé, will be aware of the contribution this yearbook makes to the literature on the principalship. The practical and specific characteristics of subsequent chapters are obvious. Yet the Editorial Committee does not present this volume for uncritical acceptance. It is strongly urged that none of the practices contained herein be put into immediate use without careful consideration of such questions as these: What are the assumptions upon which this procedure is based? What objective evidence does the writer present? Does the suggested activity agree with progressive educational theory? How would the proposed procedure fit in with the administrative policies of my school system? Are the teachers and the pupils of my school prepared to take this step? What influence will the procedure have upon the community? Are the suggested activities constructive influences upon children?

PART ONE
THE PHILOSOPHY IN GOOD
ADMINISTRATION

CHAPTER I. GOOD ADMINISTRATION ANTICIPATES
EDUCATIONAL PROBLEMS

CHAPTER II. THE SCHOOL REFLECTS THE PRINCIPAL'S PHILOSOPHY

CHAPTER III. PHILOSOPHY IS THE WORKING BASIS
OF ADMINISTRATION

INTRODUCTION TO PART ONE

ALL OF US know at least two types of elementary school principals. There are those who manage their schools in an indifferently mechanical manner. Others seem to transmit vitality, economy of effort, and purposeful direction to everything they touch. What is that "something" which distinguishes the master administrator from the routinized robot? Part One attempts to answer this question.—*Editorial Committee.*

CHAPTER I

GOOD ADMINISTRATION ANTICIPATES EDUCATIONAL PROBLEMS

CHARLES H. JUDD

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I. FORESIGHT—THE ESSENCE OF EFFECTIVE ADMINISTRATION

THE MENTAL EQUIPMENT of a successful school administrator must include as one of its most important elements imagination. In arranging the program for a school a principal must be able to foresee how personal and material factors are likely to react on one another, where incoordinations are likely to arise and how adjustments which often seem very trivial can be made in such a way as to facilitate the proper functioning of the school. A very concrete exhibition of the presence or absence of imagination in a school principal is always seen on the opening day of a school term. The principal who has adequately prepared for this occasion will have the satisfaction of seeing pupils and teachers promptly located and immediately beginning work. There will be no more confusion than there is in any well-ordered social function. On the other hand, the principal who has not taken the precaution to think out in advance the arrangements necessary for an efficient opening of his school will be confused and overwhelmed by difficulties that never should have arisen and will find that other people are equally distraught and unable to do their work properly. The essence of good administration is foresight.

II. THE APPLICATION OF FORESIGHT TO MATERIAL PROBLEMS

The demand for foresight will be readily recognized with respect to buildings and supplies. A school cannot operate at all unless somebody has provided the building and the appropriate equipment within the building. Even here, however, there are many exhibitions of inadequate foresight. A great many schoolrooms are nothing but four walls and a collection of seats. There is a monotonous uniformity in the rooms used for the different grades which makes it perfectly clear that whoever has charge of those rooms has merely followed the practices of the past and has never set his mind to the task of seeing how each room can best be prepared for the particular activities that are there to be undertaken.

Nothing can be more impressively in contrast with the lack of imagination exhibited by many school administrators in regard to classroom equipment than the practice which is fortunately becoming more and more common in the construction and furnishing of new buildings of trying to picture in advance what is needed in classrooms in order to make them comfortable and adequate. Even where an administrator has only very limited financial resources, he and his staff should prepare a list of the maps, pictures, book filing cases, and apparatus which are desirable. What is needed for a second grade is very different from that which is needed by a sixth grade. Preparation of lists of the kind suggested is stimulating to everybody concerned and even if the list goes far beyond the possibilities, the work of the school will be improved by getting the attention of teachers and patrons concentrated on the idea that various kinds of equipment are important helps in classroom work. In most cases the list of desirable articles will lead school officials to take steps toward better equipment and in the long run much of what is asked for will be given. Certainly no equipment appropriate to progressive work will be furnished unless somebody has the imagination to foresee the possibilities of bettering conventional arrangements.

For a long time school officers have thought of seats for pupils as staple articles. These seats have been arranged in straight lines and have been fastened to the floor. It required some mental energy to reconstruct the conventional situation and to see that an entirely different arrangement of seats is often possible and advantageous. The kind of mental energy which was required was that which expends itself in reconstructing familiar images, that is, it consists of what the psychologist calls imagination.

The psychologist draws a distinction between various types of imagination. Sometimes when one lets one's thinking run on without any restraint, one reconstructs but in so doing arrives at a result which is wholly impractical. The psychologist calls this free uncritical imagination "fancy." There is, on the other hand, a controlled, critical kind of imagination of the type exhibited by the engineer who plans a bridge or a tunnel. Such imagination produces something new and something highly useful. Constructive imagination requires more effort than does mere fancy. Indeed, constructive imagination calls for concentration and for knowledge in a high degree. The school administrator has need of constructive imagination.

One of the most common exhibitions of lack of imagination among educational administrators is seen in the inefficient management of supplies. On a number of occasions it has appeared in the course of

school surveys that the storerooms of school buildings are filled with books and materials which are not used. Several school systems have found in recent years that by redistributing supplies that had accumulated in storerooms, they were able to effect very notable economies. The lack of imagination on the part of a school principal who overstocks his supply room or who accumulates materials which he does not use should be emphasized because most people when thinking of poor administration of supplies have in mind failure to get what is thought of as necessary. There is an unpardonable waste resulting from over-equipment which is quite as bad, if not worse, than the maladministration which comes from lack of foresight in securing that which is desirable. School boards are sure to react violently to oversupplies. Not only so, but the administrator who is guilty of overstocking his school is usually also guilty of lack of energy in stimulating teachers and pupils to do more than the mere routine of reciting what is written in textbooks. It requires imagination to keep supplies in circulation and to discover effective ways of routing them. Schools can learn from transportation companies. Some of the best brains in the transportation world are devoted to the task of keeping equipment in circulation and making sure that equipment is located at the point where it can be most effectively used.

III. THE INFLUENCE OF FORESIGHT IN PERSONNEL ADJUSTMENTS

It is not, however, in the handling of material things that the administration has the best opportunity to exhibit constructive imagination. The adjustment of human relations requires a type of sympathetic imagination which is much rarer and much more important than is the type of imagination that erects buildings and places seats in the classroom. Industry has coined a word which expresses the appreciation which employers are coming to have for the sympathetic imagination which solves problems of human placement. Industry speaks with respect of human engineering.

Much of the incoordination between human beings arises from the fact that it is very difficult for one person to put himself in the position of another person, that is, to exercise the imagination necessary to view the circumstances of life from a point of view other than one's own. If this discussion were treating of the teacher's tasks rather than of the tasks of the administrator, it would be possible to cite many simple examples. The teacher often fails to understand a pupil's difficulties because the teacher takes a mature view of the world and one totally different from that of the pupils. Reference to simple types of incoordination between the thinking of teachers

and pupils opens the way for a consideration of the more complicated task of the administrator. He usually has to deal in the cases which are referred to him, not with one other mind, but with two or sometimes several minds other than his own.

There was once a school principal who found at the close of the school year that he had in his school of 1300 pupils, about 200 problem cases. He decided that it would be a good investment of a part of his summer vacation to do something by way of reclaiming some of these cases. He addressed notes to the parents of all the pupils who were not getting on well and suggested to each parent that he would be glad to have a conference about his child's difficulties.

It may be remarked that the example here used is not an example merely of imagination; it illustrates also the characteristic of industry. Some may even go so far as to point out that the administrator's contract does not call for such a sacrifice of free vacation time. The activity of this particular principal in the case cited was indeed more than is called for in ordinary routine, but the effectiveness of his plan in preparing for the work of the following year is the main point that is here emphasized. Industry and time were expended under the guidance of wise foresight.

The plan of holding conferences was effective. The principal found out in the deliberate conferences of the summer a great deal that it would have been much more difficult to find out in the less leisurely conferences which are held when school is in session. What is far more important, the summer conferences were not embarrassed by the necessity of dealing with acute crises. The problem cases could be discussed in all their aspects without at the moment the necessity of treating them as disciplinary cases. The principal found that he could make many readjustments which during the following year relieved the school of an appreciable burden of incoordination. He persuaded a number of parents to make physical adjustments under the advice of physicians. He put some children in advanced grades on trial and secured a type of cooperation from the parents which he had never had before. He persuaded parents in some cases to be satisfied with a slower rate of progress for their children. He found out in some cases about home conditions which he could not remedy but which he and the teachers could take into account in dealing with the children from these homes. All told, the investment of time in the summer conferences resulted in a great economy of the principal's time throughout the following year; and what is quite as important, the efficiency of the school was greatly improved.

The question will perhaps be raised at this point whether it is the principal's duty to deal with problem cases. Is it not a part of the classroom teacher's duty to find out about home conditions and to secure the cooperation of parents? The answer to the question which has been raised will depend in part on considerations of expediency and in part on one's definition of administration. It is certainly desirable to relieve the teacher so far as possible from distractions. The teacher has a number of pupils to deal with and must concentrate attention on certain subjectmatters which must be carefully organized for presentation to the whole group. A single unadjusted pupil can absorb so much of a teacher's energy that the class will suffer. If the school can provide proper administrative agencies for the removal of the distractions, the teacher's work will be much more efficient. Furthermore, if the teacher is supported by administrative agencies which help in making proper adjustments with homes and with pupils, it is much more probable that the teacher will be encouraged to give attention to outside conditions as well as to the regular classroom routine. It is not suggested in what has been said in preceding paragraphs that the principal assume responsibility for the adjustments of all of a pupil's relations to his work. It is merely stated that the principal be active in removing incoordinations of a personal type quite as energetically as in correcting deficiencies of material equipment.

IV. THE IMPORTANCE OF AUTHORITY IN FURTHERING THE PRINCIPAL'S PLANS

Questions of the type referred to in the last paragraph cannot be disposed of fully until some satisfactory principle of division of labor is arrived at so that teachers and administrative officers will go about their several tasks without feeling that there is duplication of effort or conflict of authority.

Evidently responsibility and authority must go hand in hand. An example will make clear what is meant by this statement. There are school systems in which teachers are held unduly responsible for the results of their work. If a test in arithmetic is administered to the teacher's pupils and a low score results, the teacher is rated in keeping with the low score. Very often teachers object to the judgments passed on them on the basis of tests because they say that the machinery of administration has supplied them with ill-graded pupils or with impossible textbooks or with a crowded program which makes it impossible to give the time that they think should be given to a particular subject. When one considers how limited the authority of

the classroom teacher is in determining the factors which contribute to high and low scores in an arithmetic test, one can hardly escape the conclusion that teachers are right in their contention that they should be relieved of responsibilities which they cannot discharge because of their limited authority.

Administrative authorities who are responsible for promotion must be prepared to make adjustments when it appears that the promotion of a particular pupil is a cause of incoordination. Administrative authorities must be prepared to accept responsibility for the prescribed curriculum. Administrative authorities must be prepared to deal with the problems of time distribution within the instructional program.

Much of the restlessness of the members of the teaching profession about their relations to administrative officers can be traced to a lack of clear allotment of responsibilities. Teachers are a part of a system and the system is the immediate and controlling cause of much which happens in every classroom. The teacher will attribute failures to the system whenever failures appear, and the system cannot answer the charge of the teacher in any arbitrary fashion. Responsibility and authority must be recognized as coextensive.

The principal is the representative in a school of what was called in the foregoing paragraph the "system." Whatever the system does to the pupil is a part of the principal's responsibility. To be sure, the principal is controlled in a measure by superior administrative authorities such as the school superintendent, the board of education, and the state department of education. In an important sense, however, the principal is not so much the servant of these superior administrative authorities as their representative. So far as a particular school building is concerned, the principal is the representative of the adopted curriculum, of the grading system, of the building program, and of the time program.

It is perhaps superfluous to mention explicitly the reservations with which the definition of the principal's duties and responsibilities must be qualified. As American schools are now organized, a great many principals are nothing more than head teachers. In some school systems the superintendent assumes the role of general principal of all the schools and thus limits the scope of activity of the building principals. Not infrequently supervisors of special subjects exercise the authority which was ascribed in the last paragraph to the principal. In short, there is quite as much confusion in the distribution of administrative functions in school systems as there is in the delimitation of administrative and teaching functions.

The fundamental reason for the existing situation is that there has been, until recently, no effort to arrive at a clear understanding of what belongs to administration as contrasted with that which belongs to classroom management and classroom teaching. The original school was a place where the teacher was instructor and administrator. The "system" of education was derived from tradition or from some remote source such as the makers of textbooks. The whole process of conducting school was an undifferentiated routine.

So long as the primitive undifferentiated school was accepted as adequate, there was no special attention to the refinements which the modern school has evolved. The school building was simple and innocent of such equipment as a library or even a playroom. Administration has become a necessity as a result of enlargement of school activities. Administration is the counterpart of complex organization.

No one can fail to recognize the fact that the modern school has outgrown the possibility of control by individual teachers. The grading system which was introduced into the American school by Horace Mann and his contemporaries created the necessity of a coordinating officer. The growth of the curriculum from the early stage, where it included in the elementary grades only the three R's, has inevitably led to the demand for some authority to rule on the many problems of adjustment that arise.

While it is true that confusion exists in the present highly evolved system and while much of this confusion is the result of a slow and incomplete evolution, it will have to be admitted that a part of the present lack of clearness about administrative functions is to be laid at the door of administrative officers. Specifically, the confusion about a principal's duties is in no small measure the fault of the principals themselves. This assertion is not made without full regard for known facts. There is scarcely a survey of schools, which has been reported during the last two decades, in which it has not been necessary to call attention to the fact that many principals are very little qualified for their offices. Too frequently a principal is a superannuated teacher who has come into his present office without any special preparation and without any understanding of his new duties. He does in many cases what any other untrained person is likely to do, namely, retires into inoffensive inactivity and allows accidental forces to guide the institution which he should direct. There will never be any clear definition of the principal's duties until principals become students of their own functions.

The subsequent chapters of the yearbook are conscious efforts to define the duties of the administrative officers of schools by giving

concrete examples of the way in which progressive administrators have solved the problems which they encountered in the conduct of their institutions. The purpose of this preliminary discussion is to arrive at certain broad general conclusions regarding the nature of administrative responsibility.

V. THE FUNCTIONING OF THE PRINCIPAL'S AUTHORITY IN THE SOLUTION OF SCHOOL PROBLEMS

Starting with the general statement which has already been made that administration has to do with the system as a whole, we may try to work out some of the meanings of this statement.

Let us come back to the case which was discussed earlier when it was said that a teacher often objects to being rated on the results of an arithmetic test. What should the principal do in this case? He should make a careful study of the causes of the low score. It may be that the pupils of the class with a low score had a poor teacher the year before and are now exhibiting the results of poor preparation. The principal should recognize it as clearly within his authority to take the class and the present teacher back a full step in the prescribed curriculum and repair the deficiency which was permitted to occur the year before.

Perhaps the principal finds on examination that the textbook being used in the class is not suitable. Here the principal may find himself in serious difficulty with the system which is above him. The textbook may be prescribed by the state or by his board of education. What can he do? There are two steps which he can take and certainly should take. He should make vigorous representations to the officers of the system above him. These superior officers are dependent on him for advice which will guide their action. If the principal fails in his duty to the system through inertia or timidity, the unfortunate situation which has led to failure within his school will continue and he will be responsible. The second step which the principal should take without waiting for the system as a whole to move is to supplement the prescribed textbook with materials which will make instruction more effective. In doing this the principal has a right to expect the cooperation of the classroom teacher, but the principal should understand that he must furnish much of the initiative in the matter because the system was at fault and he is more responsible for the system than is the individual teacher.

Incidentally the principal will find that he can secure the cooperation of his teachers in no way so readily as by frankly assuming the responsibility which belongs to him. If he says to the teacher that

he finds on careful study that the low score in the arithmetic test is traceable to unsatisfactory curriculum conditions, he lifts the blame from the teacher and puts it where it belongs. He brings into his school a feeling on the part of his teaching staff that he respects their rights, and he creates an enthusiasm for objective diagnosis of difficulties which will raise the morale of the whole group. Furthermore, the principal in assuming responsibility for the curriculum puts himself in the right relation to the special supervisors. He can now say to the special supervisors that his diagnosis of the difficulty is thus and so. He can invite further examination of the situation and can ask for advice. The supervisors can thus begin to operate in the school building with the principal instead of over him.

Another possible cause of the low score in the arithmetic test may be that several pupils have been promoted into the class when they were not ready for the work of that grade. Or what is often still worse, it may be that several pupils have been held back in the grade when they should have been promoted. Two adjustments are possible. The unadjusted pupils may be transferred to some other grade or the teacher may be helped in some temporary or permanent readjustment of the class so that pupils are dealt with in subdivisions or even individually. There is no more striking example of the necessity of administrative authority than that which appears when mistakes in grading need to be corrected. The individual teacher has no authority outside of his or her own classroom; the principal has authority to coordinate the various rooms and is therefore in a position to make interclassroom adjustments when they are necessary.

The human engineering which has been discussed up to this point has been thought of as including parents, pupils, and to some extent teachers. There are, of course, other personalities which contribute to the success or unsuccess of the school. Where a school is large, the staff will include not only teachers but clerks and assistant administrators such as assistant principals. There is always a janitor to be reckoned with when the management of a school is under discussion. In adjusting these personalities to one another, the principal must very often exercise authority which no one other than the representative of the school system can assume.

VI. THE IMPORTANCE OF SUBSTITUTING SCIENTIFIC FOR RULE-OF-THUMB PROCEDURES

In exercising authority the principal who has had experience is always at an advantage because in the course of his experience he has had opportunities to experiment in dealing with almost every

possible kind of personality. A principal who has served for a long time in a given district gains a knowledge of the community and of the pupils which is invaluable as a basis for organizing the work of the school.

In recognizing the value of experience, one lays the foundation for a demand that the principal shall go beyond the collection of mere accidental experiences. The step from experience to a scientific study of the problems of administration is logically a very short step. Practically, experience and science are often far apart. The principal who has been successful in dealing with problem cases among his pupils is not unlikely to be satisfied to let matters drift in the belief that he can deal adequately with cases when they arise. An experienced principal will often scoff at the suggestion that he ought to keep elaborate cumulative records of pupils. Why go to the labor and expense involved in keeping such records or studying such records when the typical cases of incoordination are so easy to deal with and are so comparatively few in number?

The answer to all who think of school administration as a kind of benevolent paternalism in which some kindly personality sits in the offices and adjusts matters when accident brings them to his attention, is that administration has as its major obligation an aggressive forehanded prevention of incoordinations rather than a slow patching up of breaches after they have occurred. There are very few incoordinations in schools which do not follow premonitory symptoms which might have been detected and diagnosed long before disaster occurred, if administration had adopted the methods of penetrating examination known in every progressive modern organization. Modern business does not wait for panics to effect retrenchments. Physicians do not wait for epidemics before taking measures to improve public sanitation. Modern navigation provides itself with devices for warning ships of coming storms. The school will never be in step with modern progress until it supplements personal experience with that perfectly legitimate supplement to experience, scientific foresight.

The school administrator is not unlikely to encounter some reluctance on the part of the community to the proper equipment of his office. The fact is that communities have not been accustomed to scientific administration of educational institutions. Too often the public has been led to think of schools as places where personal influence will provide difficult pupils with special privileges. Even in so special a matter as the appointment of teachers, schools have often shut their eyes to records of training. As was indicated earlier, schools originally were staffed entirely by teachers and saw no need of central administrators.

The result of the history recited in the foregoing paragraph is that the public often thinks of a principal as an ornamental social addition of doubtful importance to the community. In order to justify the principal's existence, the public feels that it must find him at all times ready to accommodate the personal convenience of anyone who has a question to ask or a trivial complaint to register. The principal is often thought to be a public servant with nothing to do but attend to citizens.

The day will come when the public will learn that a human engineer in charge of a school is a person occupied with investigations that increase the efficiency of schools to such an extent that it is uneconomical for him to be disturbed every few minutes on the telephone or by personal callers. That day will not come, however, so long as principals are willing to be imposed upon and so long as they live from hour to hour with no more insight into the problems of school management than that which is forced upon them by the emergencies of institutional life.

A true representative of the school system in charge of a school will so organize his duties and so organize the records of the school that he can assume direction of all the agencies and material supplies and insure efficiency, not merely correct defects. The statement has been repeatedly made in this paper that good administration depends on imagination or foresight. The discussion has now reached the point where it is evident that imagination and foresight depend on scientifically arranged information quite as much as on mere experience. In order to imagine in a constructive way, the administrator needs to have facts which will carry the weight of a constructive policy.

Let us consider a few examples. The New York State Ventilation Commission has shown by records that the amount of absence due to respiratory illness is less in schoolrooms with natural ventilation than in schoolrooms ventilated by forced ventilation. This finding is confirmed by the United States Public Health Service. The facts with which these two research agencies dealt were accessible to hundreds of school principals. One would think that a comparative study of attendance records would long ago have interested school administrators. When one estimates the amount of money which has been spent on forced ventilation, one sees immediately the lack of systematic, scientific administration of which schools have been guilty.

Every investigation which has been made of the results secured by teaching has shown that there are great individual differences among pupils. The investigators who have accumulated the records showing individual differences disagree as to the extent to which these differ-

ences are traceable to methods of study. No one has such easy access to large bodies of data which would throw light on the problems of individual differences as school principals.

Other problems calling for solution are those of class size, the desirability of various types of home study or occupation outside of school, the effects of extra-curriculum activities, the desirability of library periods, and the effects of various types of school organization such as departmental teaching and platooning.

Doubtless principals confronted with such lists of problems calling for investigation will be disposed to answer, first, that they have no time for research, and second, that it is not the duty of an administrative officer to solve such problems.

The only justification for a paper in this Yearbook written by a representative of the research interests in education is to bring as vividly as possible to the minds of practical administrators the impossibility of solving school problems unless administration becomes a system of scientific insight. The number of persons in this country who are engaged in scientific studies in education is small, and ordinarily research students operate in schools which are very special in their clientele and in their equipment. In the special centers where pioneering in research is done, it is possible to perfect methods of recording facts and of tabulating them in such ways as to make productive comparisons possible. The research centers that have been operating in a pioneer way during the last twenty years can, however, affect practice in school systems at large only when public schools realize clearly that research is a phase of administration.

There ought to be in every school system experimental centers in each of which one problem is attacked at a time by the whole school staff under the guidance and leadership of a competent principal. It may be that the problem will be one of curriculum reconstruction such as the better organization of reading or arithmetic. It may be that the problem will be one of departmental teaching. Not only should there be vigorous experimentation along the chosen line, but there should also be a rigid critical evaluation of the results of the experiment. If such a program is adopted, it will result in a better attitude toward record-making because records will be seen to have a real purpose. The enthusiasm which attaches to the particular problem under investigation will spread to all of the undertakings in the school. Cooperation with other schools will be made possible in a new way because the experimental school will have something to give as well as a desire to receive. Administration will be recognized by the community as productive and worthy of liberal support.

The plea for scientific studies by principals is based, however, not merely on considerations of the advantages which will result. The more fundamental basis for this plea is that administration has very limited scope if it does not so organize the school that administration solves in advance the problems of education. Administration has as its purpose coordination and preparation for economical and efficient action. Administration calls for wise anticipation of needs, material, and personnel. Administration is the organization of the system as a whole so that all the parts of the system shall be recognized and given their respective opportunities to contribute to a long interlocking series of activities.

FOR practices illustrating many of Dr. Judd's points the reader should turn to Chapters IV, V, VI, VII, and VIII. Particular attention is called to Chapter IV dealing with the principal's time budget and work habits. In advocating the doctrine of foresight the principal's first efforts can well begin with his own procedures.—Editorial Committee

CHAPTER II

THE SCHOOL REFLECTS THE PRINCIPAL'S PHILOSOPHY

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I. INTRODUCTION

GOOD ADMINISTRATION in any school, of whatever rank, requires the setting up of a central, controlling aim and the holding to a definite, dominating purpose to attain results through the realization of that aim.

The character of the aim, or the lack of any aim reflects the philosophy of the administering head. Not often enough is the principal's philosophy of the elevated type necessary to achieve good administration. Nor is this a matter for wonder when one stops to consider the varied motives that sometimes influence the aspirants to principalships. Among such motives the following are fairly representative: weariness of the teaching routine, a desire for larger compensation, an ambition to "get on" in the profession, an inclination toward management and possibly some evidence of aptitude for that type of professional activity, a plan to use the position as a stepping stone to some other profession or political job, or an honest desire to be in a position that permits of broader service to children and adults.

Some of the above motives reveal a self-seeking attitude and a materialistic turn of mind on the part of principals. Their philosophy will be one of individualism, a philosophy of the market, and will never result in good administration. Fortunately, not all of those who attain principalships, though actuated by indifferent or unworthy motives, pursue their work on the same low level. To many whose original purpose was not of the best, the responsibility of the task, as it opens up, brings a revelation of the true value of the public school and the real import of this great institution of democracy. Duties assumed in a spirit of indifference or self-seeking are performed in the light of a new vision of a better world. Helping mankind to attain this better world is the business of every principal.

II. THE PRINCIPAL'S PHILOSOPHY IS IDEALISTIC AND HUMANE

The philosophy of good administration in an elementary school is idealistic. The principal believes that there are higher values in life than those which can be mathematically measured. He is, therefore, content to leave to others the pursuit of the shekels, for his search is for ways and means to increase human excellence. His philosophy involves an unwavering faith in the improvability of human nature.

What is more pertinent, he expects to see progress in his own school and community in the direction of finer desires, a deeper and more general appreciation of the nobler arts. He looks for a growth of the spirit of social justice, which will react among other ways in the equalizing of the opportunities of school children, with all the implications of community contributions, financial and of many other types, which an educational program of this character calls for. Unless the principal believes that such progress is possible, that the public school exists to secure these ends, and that it is the business of the administrative officers to so guide its activities that these aims shall be realized, then his philosophy, whatever it may be, is not one that can result in good administration.

However important the acquiring of learning may be, the philosophy back of good administration is never woodenly pedagogical. It looks beyond the imparting of knowledge and the use of methods, and sees that the reason for all study and learning lies in the right use of the knowledge attained, namely, in the relating of it to the business and art of living. Knowledge is power, but power for the betterment of the individual and equally for the upbuilding and enriching of the common life of all.

Such a philosophy sees in the principal's work no perfunctory program or a mere succession of the commonplace routine incidents. It sees the work as a great engineering project, the constant problem of which is to build into the life of the community those ideas and ideals, those attitudes and purposes, that will make continuously for the improvement of the social outlook and conditions and the upbuilding of all other worthy institutions, as well as the school.

This philosophy concerns itself with worthy home membership for the home's sake, as well as for the indirect good to the school; it is interested to conserve the public health for the sake of the many, as well as for the school child; it sneers at no form of genuine religious expression and does not belittle the contributions to society made by religious institutions—the church and kindred organizations.

The philosophy of the elementary principal that results in good administration is that of human helpfulness. The schools are the one universal means to which the state and society must look to secure that continuous improvement in human attitudes and behavior which will enable successive generations to maintain civilization at the level it has reached and advance it to yet other and higher levels.

III. HOW THE PRINCIPAL'S PHILOSOPHY INFLUENCES PRACTICAL LIFE

(a) *Through the teachers*—The philosophy of good administration calls for the creating of a spirit in the instructing personnel which will be understanding and in accord with the great social purpose of human improvement as the ultimate aim of public education, and will desire to contribute to its realization. To secure this spirit and cooperative effort is often most difficult even when the principal is fully conscious of the comprehensive function of the schools and of his own responsibility. One must face the constant pressure of many requirements of superior officers, some absurdly trifling, the interruptions and distractions in every working day, the baffling annoyances from unsympathetic and ill-tempered parents and other citizens, the sheer physical weariness and exhaustion from daily buffetings, the hunger for time in which to live just a bit and realize one's own ambitions and personality. Such demands and hindrances at times dull the keenness of perception of what the real aims and accomplishments of the public school should be.

The principal is, therefore, not to be too severely censured if he sometimes grows disheartened and falters in his attempts to secure in his staff a more liberal understanding of the benefits which the school should render to society and a commensurate response in endeavor. The teachers themselves sometimes present the most formidable obstacle to the right spirit in this great undertaking of public education. The inertia of some is most disturbing; one wonders why they chose this noble profession to pursue it so lethargically. The positive unwillingness of others to interpret their calling in terms of social service prevents the spirit of noble adventure necessary to make the school function consciously as an institution for human betterment and not simply as a place for formal lessons and drills, the place of the daily job. Some teachers—happily not many—are chary of their hours and measure their tasks in terms of day-labor service—so many hours for so much pay. One such person in a school constitutes an unbearable burden and makes it difficult for the principal, especially if the teacher has a contentious spirit, to carry his faculty with him in any enterprise that evolves extra hours and effort.

Admitting that with some teachers an understanding spirit is difficult to attain and that good administration is for that reason frequently hampered, it still remains that in some way the principal must secure not only a spirit, but also a procedure, among both teachers and children that will realize the ultimate aims of human improvement through all the instruction and activities of the school. He may never stop short with a perfunctory imparting of knowledge and rest easy with the formal discipline of an autocrat, for knowledge and formal discipline may, or may not, improve humankind. Teachers do their best work when knowledge is interpreted and discipline is rationalized.

(b) *Through the pupils*—Unquestionably, wherever the philosophy of good administration may finally lead, the first obligation is to the child and to the child's present needs. Those needs may be variously interpreted, and herein lies the crux of the whole matter. Do his needs require that only the tools of learning shall be taught, with a maximum of repetitive drill to insure mastery? Even in this day the principal meets those who object to taxation for what they term unnecessary accomplishments involving unwarranted costs. The tools of learning at least must be mastered, but they may be taught in so human and social a way that the very process remains as a part of that learned. The child may even become eager for their mastery by being helped to understand how they came to be, what a rich heritage they are for him, how much of human effort has gone into their perfecting, and that their mastery is essential to all future learning. Children, as well as adults, appreciate having a difficult requirement rationalized.

The present needs of the child do not stop short with the fundamentals. Here is where the philosophy of the utmost of helpfulness will begin to do its perfect work, so that all human excellence may increase. The elementary principal (perhaps at the price of his own leisure, ease, and profit) will crave and, if possible, secure for his charge every advantage of instruction and environment that will bring added understanding and appreciation of the amenities of life, of arts, of literature, of crafts; an understanding, also, of those matters that bring a strengthening of health and the enjoyments of play. More than that, his view of what the schools are set to do will impel him to see that obstructions of poverty, hunger, and lack of clothing, adverse home or other social conditions, are removed, so that every child may enter into his rightful heritage of the abundant life. Inelastic courses of study must yield to the needs of the child. The other institutions of society—the church, the home, the courts, the community

chest—will be impressed, if necessary, to clear the way for the child. Archaic notions and methods of school discipline will yield to a new and better way, the humanizing, social way, in which the child is made conscious of immediate participation in the great project of helpful living and of his privilege and obligation to assume at once that measure of responsibility for the common good for which he is already fitted.

The child's fair share of betterment is not limited to instruction in the tools of learning, in the care of the body, and in the arts of living and of life. His needs make it desirable that he have, also, attractive and wholesome surroundings. So long as the wealth of the nation increases faster proportionately than the costs of education, the public should not grudge or withhold attractive and wholesome surroundings for its children. The people will not practice an unwise economy if they fully understand the noble aim of public education. That the rich must pay more taxes than the poor to secure these good things for all the children is the simple and inevitable working out of that great democratic principle of equal opportunity for all, on which our nation rests. No apology is due any man for the use of a fair portion of his wealth for the schools, and happily in most cases none is desired, since this philosophy, that public education must be directed to secure all human betterment, is gaining ground even with the heaviest taxpayers.

(c) *Through the course of study*—In working out his philosophy of human betterment, the administrator is obliged to make provision in his school curriculum for the future. Only in this way will his pupils be able to enter progressively into the fuller, more complex adult life of the community and the world, and especially to understand that constant learning will be necessary if they are to keep abreast of changing conditions. Many educators have in recent years become hesitant about regarding the school as a place of preparation for life. Yet, that function is exactly what the school is for. This is true, not in the sense that the present life and needs of the child for activities appropriate to his complete living now are to be disregarded, but in the large and real sense that preliminary learning and training are necessary for any calling, and surely for none more than for the great project of living the community life happily, helpfully, and successfully.

While the higher schools must undertake the more advanced learning that should fit youth for the responsibility of leadership and for making the contributions of the expert, it must not be overlooked that many young people, unfortunately the larger number, leave

school at the end of the elementary or junior high school years. For this reason it becomes urgent that even the elementary principal introduce into his course of study some subjectmatter and many activities¹ that serve as preparatory disciplines for sharing as adults in the community life. Such experiences as these involve an understanding of the very same principles of conduct as those practised by adults in the operations of the larger community life. Good elementary administration will take cognizance of this similarity and utilize every opportunity that permits children to take part in the management of school affairs as a first step in preparation for progressive participation in the more extended community life.

The acquiring of knowledge, however, must not be minimized in the philosophy which regards public education as an unending program for increasing human excellence. The imparting of much and varied knowledge to children is essential. Equally important is it that they be introduced to those procedures which are necessary to the acquiring of more complete and additional knowledge as needs require, so that the young may become increasingly understanding and helpful members of society. Never has knowledge been so much needed for the successful life; never has so much knowledge been needed. The knowledge-imparting function of the public schools should therefore magnify its own importance by definite effort to insure the carrying over into adult life of the habit and practice of learning. The minds of the young should be cleared of any thought that study, learning, and reflection are to cease as a conscious process with departure from school.

From all these considerations it becomes evident that the course of study and its skillful use by principals and teachers are matters of first importance in elementary administration, so that knowledge shall be gained not for its own sake alone, but for that greater, nobler aim, the use to be made of it in the improving of individual and community life. There are difficulties here, for the making of the course of study is in danger of being so overweighted with cumbrous machinery as to become an object in itself. In these times it even happens that the extended studies, so necessary to the writing of even a meager course, are not completed in the term of one administrator. The unfinished work is passed over to a successor and becomes an incomplete, posthumous publication, sometimes with the point of it all missing.

¹ Such as participation in the actual management of the school, group responsibility for the appearance in certain particulars of the buildings and grounds, the carrying out in part of safety measures and of thrift activities, and the incidental programs of special days and events.

More expedition, more dependence on the findings of experience and on actual first-hand knowledge of needs, a minimum of questionnaires and collations with other tedious details and occasional unreliable findings, a definite purpose set forth at the outset toward which subjectmatter, instructional procedures, and supplementary activities converge, might produce courses of study more appropriate to the needs and ultimate purposes of public education and surely more vital and energizing than some compiled (I use the word advisedly) in recent years.

But the elementary principal urges that the course of study is prepared by his superiors, the superintendent or the state department of education, and that as a rule inexorable requirements of adoption and use are imposed on schools. This is unfortunately true in too many instances, but generally the elementary principal is given a large place in the preparation of the instructional program for the school. Here is his opportunity to influence the character of the course and impregnate the whole with that philosophy of human helpfulness which will make good administration possible. If in the last event he must use an inept instructional program, still even the worst course of study, when administered by an alert, farseeing principal and by teachers of vision and zeal for human betterment, can be made an effective instrument for the teaching and training of children for the finer life.

It is not the province of this chapter to discuss methods of administering the course of study. Perhaps, however, the writer may be permitted to say in passing that to secure the utmost of profit from any course through instructional procedures, the principal must himself, in a spirit of helpfulness, see that teachers understand the socially educative purpose and possibilities of the curriculum content and supplementary activities. Teachers must be aroused to the new place of knowledge and its vast importance in a world in which the very substance of earth is pronounced other than it seems and the heavens are almost yielding up the secret of infinity. Teachers need to magnify their own profession, and principals must not shirk their responsibility of weeding out the sluggish minds and self-seeking personalities from among the instructors, for the time has come when these must give way to the ones who see clearly that the mass of men, the beloved of the public school, must have knowledge and understanding or become subject to those who know and to the experts.

(d) *Through the extra-curriculum activities*—The elementary principal has the rarest of chances to demonstrate the educative sufficiency of his course of study for the improvement of behavior and

the cultivation of good citizenship through contacts and conferences with the children. Such contacting of child life comes in the semi-curriculum activities which mean so much or so little in the school, according to the spirit and understanding with which they are prosecuted. No matter what the responsibility intrusted to children in the interests of the school group, the principal should never fail to hold preliminary conferences with his committees, anticipatory of the duties to be assigned. On these occasions suggestions may be made as to plans and procedures and, above all, a clear setting forth of the *reasons* for all things.

Education so often fails just at this point. It holds aloof from rationalizing its proceedings. It still depends too much on the fiat; a deplorable mistake, especially for the young, who respond with an amazing comprehension and eagerness to the thing that is made reasonable. For instance, the child quickly understands, because it is reasonable, that his own conduct must be an example of orderliness if he may hope to induce similar behavior in the group. He is keenly sensitive himself to the subtle meanness of partiality and responds at once to the suggestion that in a system of student control those in charge must show no favors to friends and inflict no unfair penalties on those not well liked. Many a principal who has the intelligent vision to take the trouble to hold frequent conferences with children over the problems that arise in their individual efforts at self-control when engaged in activities for the group, as well as over the more general problems that concern the group, will be rewarded by learning later on, that in the estimate of the child grown to adulthood, those experiences were the ones most truly educative and valuable for all life.

(e) *Through the community*—Let us pass now to another phase of the principal's activities, namely, his efforts to achieve good administration through the release of public education to do a larger work beyond the limits of the school grounds. The community of the district is entitled to more than the educational crumbs that fall into the homes through contacts with school children. The elementary principal needs to have a definite policy of helpfulness in community endeavors, a purpose and determination to raise the standards of aspiration, and should help in releasing the latent power that can and will bring about communal improvement.

Schools are inclined to lag behind their possibilities of leadership in this general work of human advancement, which means that principals and other administrative officers are inept in imparting to the teaching personnel a full comprehension of what public education is

really set to do and inducing among teachers a spirit of daring and enterprise adequate to the undertaking. Even the training schools fall quite short here—and this is said in no spirit of unfriendly criticism. Much time must be given to the study of the theory, to the practice of teaching and to the technic of measuring results. All of this is necessary, but equally important—in fact, fundamentally important—is it that teachers while in training acquire an understanding of that larger service which educators must render through helpful contacts of various sorts with the community outside the schools. The community is still entitled to be the recipient of educational ministrations. That larger group has a right to look to the schools for a wider distribution of knowledge than that confined to the limits of the school site. Who, if not the educators, are under obligations to see that the vast stores of new knowledge that increase daily with amazing volume are not hoarded by the few, but passed out to the many and made of use through adequate interpretation?

It is granted that this phase of educational work lies more especially in the fields of the high schools and colleges, but the elementary principal, too, cannot afford to be indifferent to the needs of the adult community for ever increasing knowledge. If he inspires the forming of one class of adults to study one phase of one subject, especially if that subject be related to their own problems, he has made a worthwhile contribution toward the distribution of knowledge. Knowledge, like goods, to be of any value, must be distributed to those who need and can use it. It should not be overlooked that such efforts produce also a valuable byproduct, since the enlargement of the principal's own personality can be insured in no better way than through his efforts and experience in community education.

To support sympathetically and to participate, when possible, in betterment projects initiated by the community itself, such as clean-up days, tree-planting and patriotic days, pageants with local historical settings, extends the service of the schools in a most convincing way and produces a sentiment of solidarity in the prosecution of the great enterprise of enriching the common life.

The less facile the community in bringing about its own educational advancement, the more need for help from the school. Often the complaint comes, and sometimes with good reason, that requests for such help are too frequent and the numerous interruptions to regular school work intolerable, because the required subjectmatter of the year cannot be covered. The principal must, of course, protect the formal education of the children against interference that is destructive of serious and sustained effort and mastery of necessary tasks. Still it

is a striking evidence of good administration, when a principal on appropriate occasions can secure cheerful cooperation of children, and especially of teachers, in community projects.

From timidity and self-distrust, from outright fear of expressing themselves in the presence of prominent citizens, well-intentioned principals sometimes fail to give their full measure of service. Perhaps the principal needs only to remind himself that he knows more about his own profession than even the prominent citizen. Perhaps he needs to learn more, in which case there is cause for self-distrust. Perhaps he only needs to discipline himself sternly in the organizing of projects and the forms and language of public address. All this improves his own personality and should be cheerfully undertaken in an effort to further the great project of improving the community life. Meanwhile a few discouraging experiences are not wholly bad. The criticisms of the captious need not be taken too seriously, but the support of those in sympathy with striving always for the finer issues of life should be cherished as priceless.

An urge to principals to keep the education of their adult clientele constantly in mind, is the almost universal acceptance of the tradition that formal education and active study of subject matter properly cease with graduation. The unfortunate sequence of this false notion is that parents often lag behind their children, and in despair of "keeping up with the times," content themselves with futility. A condition that makes the continuance of formal education into maturity a matter of first importance is the striking paucity of information that existed in the schools of twenty years ago in a form available to be given out, as compared with its rapid increase and vast accumulation during these same years. The mass of mature men and women today are confused and almost hopeless in their efforts to understand. They need encouragement to attempt educational projects and direction to insure a profitable issue.

Why recent years have been prolific of knowledge is not difficult to understand, for both war and science have been at work. Wars confer one benefit—of doubtful value, in view of their murderous cost—their pressure calls for the exercise of all the wit of the race, consequently in their wake there always remains a large modicum of new knowledge, especially in the fields of medicine, applied mechanics, and the organization of human endeavors and activities. Added to these advances growing out of the travail of human intelligence during the World War, science and also philosophy and psychology have been making contributions of amazing proportions in these same years. The mass of adults have a right to a share in these new riches.

The principal is not expected to have mastered, or attempted to master, a large part of all this new knowledge. He is expected to be entirely conscious of its existence, to be an appreciative student himself of some phase of learning, and, being an educator, in a pivotal position, he is expected to be active in efforts to secure a wider distribution of knowledge. There are always those in every community who enjoy telling what they know if another provides the audience and provokes an interest and enthusiasm to know. The principal's opportunity for community service comes in arousing interest and securing of audiences.

When one seriously thinks of the futile employment and even sheer waste of the leisure hours of the many, of their sodden attitude toward the cultural and spiritual life, of their blank unknowingness of what is going on in the world, of the narrow, warped, and stupid interpretation of events of mighty significance, of the avid consumption of organized propaganda, one becomes almost breathless in his eagerness to help the many to see and enter into their rightful heritage of knowledge and enlightenment. Surely so long as there are numbers of the crookedminded and the illiterate in every community, so long as there are those who take a promoting interest in such events as pie-eating and melon-eating contests, and endurance feats in dancing, rocking, and flagpole sitting, there is no question that public education has still a great work to do through its enlightening, humanizing, and refining ministrations.

These paragraphs are not intended to lay another heavy burden on a group already beset with responsibilities of vast importance and endless detail. They are only meant to suggest the way to a larger opportunity in educational service, a way by which the good administrator may see the fruition of his philosophy.

As hinted above, the alert elementary principal will find citizens in his district willing to sponsor and promote an adult class if its improving possibilities are made clear; in any case, it seldom happens that there are not some intelligent women with a fair degree of leisure who can be induced to help in educational projects of this type. The particular subjects studied will, of course, depend on many considerations, such as the intelligent and intellectual homogeneity of the group, their particular occupations and interests or current events commanding general attention, urgent community problems or some cultural phase of literature, music, art, or handiwork. The matter of great importance is to push adults out once more into the great stream of intellectual and spiritual effort and progress.

IV. THE ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALSHIP: A CHALLENGE AND AN OPPORTUNITY TO SERVE MANKIND

The elementary principal holds the most important place in the whole line of educators because he receives and trains the recruits. Upon him rests the great responsibility of educating the children in the use of the tools of all learning. The importance of his task cannot be overestimated, nor can it be lightly regarded, neglected, or done in half-hearted, slovenly fashion. The very practice necessary in learning to use these tools confirms the young life in habits of carefulness, accuracy, facility, and satisfaction in good workmanship, or dooms it to be content with mediocre achievement. Upon the elementary principal rests another great responsibility. He must see to it that the ideals of our civilization are transmitted to the young so as to win reasonable respect for, and acceptance of, that which the experience of the race has found to be good.

The elementary principal has also this advantage, that he usually works in a district small enough to permit of frequent contacts in ways that may be made of educational value, with very many of the adults, particularly with the parents and guardians of the children, and with that most helpful group, the parent-teacher association. These contacts, through personal interviews, through visiting days and public school events, permit of constant interpretation of school activities. The visiting day may be made invaluable as an occasion not for showing off, but for showing *why*—why certain subjects are taught rather than others and why taught through one process rather than another. An opportunity to explain the perplexities of public schools that must accept all children, good or bad, intelligent and unintelligent, those well environed and those from tawdry, impoverished, and vicious homes, the difficulties in the way of securing attendance and improvement where poverty and poorly-adjusted homes prevent. Visiting days also furnish an opportunity to secure help for children in need, so that the noble project of universal education may not falter. These contacts frequently reveal understanding and helpful spirits whose assistance in extending the service of the school will aid the principal greatly in realizing his philosophy of human enrichment.

This is the day of the educator, for "not by might nor by power" will salvation come to the world, but only by the subtle, pervasive influence of humanizing thought. The agency for setting this influence in motion is public education. The elementary school has the greatest opportunity and responsibility of all, that of reproducing in the young and perpetuating the good of the past and of creating ideals that shall make possible a new, greater, and more universal

good in the future. If educators shirk this responsibility or dally in performance, democracy will fail and the many who know not will pass under the control of those who know. On the other hand, "a little more light for the common man this year, next year, a hundred years from now, and the battle for humanity, for democracy, and for brotherhood is won."

THE vision discussed by Mrs. Dorsey is exemplified particularly in Chapters IX, X, XI, and XIV. In these chapters one may see that many schools are exerting a buoyant influence upon their respective communities. Principals are seldom satisfied with the "educational crumbs" which fall accidentally to the school's patrons. In many places, home-school cooperation is a vital force for good.—Editorial Committee

CHAPTER III

PHILOSOPHY IS THE WORKING BASIS OF ADMINISTRATION

A. J. HAMILTON

Principal, University Elementary School, Berkeley, California

IN THE OPINION of the writer there is no such thing as a philosophy of administration. Administration seeks to provide an environment in which pupils under the wise guidance of teachers can attain the objectives embodied in a philosophy of education. All administrators, therefore, have, or should have, a philosophy of education. This philosophy is built out of the experiences of the administrator. How fundamental it is depends, of course, upon the nature and extent of his experiences, and his ability to interpret life through them. Experiences and ability to interpret them are personal and, therefore, differ widely as individuals. It must follow then that there are a great many philosophies of education. Moreover being influenced by experiences they are never static. They are as changeable as time. This accounts in part, if not entirely, for the ever changing conceptions of education.

The inadequacy of language and the inexhaustible number of philosophies make a recounting of them an impossible task. The justification for a brief article on the subject, however, happily does not depend upon such a recounting but rather in the belief that there are sufficient common elements in our varied conceptions to enable us to think together, and to provide us with an opportunity for emphasizing the need of an educational philosophy before we can intelligently administer.

Two sketchy and fragmentary points of view regarding the meaning of education are hereafter set down with purposely an emphasis on one that indicates the camp to which the writer is attached. While brief they are sufficiently divergent to eliminate the possibility of mistaking one for the other. An effort to state in such a way as to carry over a philosophy of education so that it could serve as a working basis for a school, would of course require much more space than is here allotted. And an attempt at validation would amount almost to rationalization. Establishing the validity of one's philosophy involves more than a statement, more than administration, more than supervision; it involves all these plus the time element.

It is a matter of education. It is one phase of training in service and is the paramount duty of an administrator.

The traditional educational philosophy influences administration one way—One philosophy emphasizes subjectmatter in compartments hermetically sealed. Many schools are still, and will continue to be, organized and administered on this subject-centered basis. A knowledge of subjectmatter logically arranged and properly filed in neat mental pigeon-holes for future use is thought to be the all important thing. When this is one's philosophy of education the school will be so administered. The curriculums will be traditional subject curriculums. The program will be set off in 30 or 40 minute periods. The bell will ring and the teacher will "switch off" the children's geographical interest and turn on the historical. Iron desks will be nailed to the floor in such manner as to make roll call easy. Supplies will consist of pencils, paper, and books. Teaching will be easily standardized, and the outcomes can be readily measured by true-false, completion, or multiple choice tests. There will be order. There must be. The principal will be rated Class A; all teachers who conform will be retained and receive the usual yearly stipend; and all pupils who succeed in curbing their natural enthusiasm will be rewarded by a certified statement that they have been moved upward (?) one notch. This, of course, is a brief and somewhat generalized statement of the case but will be readily recognized as fitting many present day situations, and they are not confined to any particular region.

A freer philosophy makes for informal administration—Education is no longer conceived by some as a body of subjectmatter dictated by adults and set up for children to learn and give back without adequate understanding. It is no longer preparation for life. It is life. Education to be effective must begin with the needs, interests, and experiences of the child on the plane on which he is living. It must grow and keep pace with his mental development, but not so fast that he is unable to feel the need for the wider experiences and activities in which he is required to take part. If we critically examine life on any level we soon discover that it consists of a continual process of solving problems. These problems are varied as life itself. They make up life. Moreover, they are in no way geographically or historically bound around. That is, they are not in any sort of water-tight compartments. The solution of any problem of importance involves some knowledge and understanding of practically all so called subjectmatter. Isolated subjectmatter does not function in one's life. Only such learnings as we use in the integration of our experiences stay with us.

We have not yet in our general educational practice caught up to Dewey's creed published in 1897. At that time he said:

The only true education comes through the stimulation of the child's powers by the demands of the social situations in which he finds himself. . . . Without insight into the psychological structure and activities of the individual, the educative process will, therefore, be haphazard and arbitrary. If it chances to coincide with the child's activity it will get a leverage; if it does not, it will result in friction, or disintegration, or arrest of the child nature.

A school organized and administered by one who holds the above educational philosophy will seek to provide an entirely different environment. Rooms will be larger; fixed desks will give way to work tables; supplies will no longer be confined to pencils, paper, and books; there will be an abundance of these plus all possible media for creative expression. Silence will no longer be golden, unless it be the wise silence of the teacher. Children will have an opportunity to participate in determining the activities. Teachers will be allowed to freely and frankly examine and evaluate all administrative requirements. These evaluations will be heard and they will influence the conclusions of the administrator. Individual and group activities will be in order. There will be drill but only when drill is needed to fix what the child understands and feels to be valuable to his needs. In general the school as well as each group will be a cooperative undertaking appreciated by all personalities involved in its activities.

A philosophy of education is essential—Whether you agree with the writer's philosophy or with the one previously stated is unimportant. Many who read will agree fully, and many will not; some will sit in both camps. We always have with us those who find satisfaction in a cautious attitude. One fact, however, continually impresses itself upon us as we get older, and that is, that those individuals who make an impression on educational practice are never luke-warm. They know what they stand for and will defend it. It appears to the writer, therefore, that an important factor in all administration is that the administrator have a philosophy, and have it so clearly in his mind with all that it involves in the way of objectives that he can wholeheartedly sell it to his teachers and patrons. This does not mean that a sound fundamental philosophy is not necessary, but it does mean that a false one clearly stated and unquestionably understood by teachers and patrons is better than none.

It would make for progress in every community if the administrator of the school were required to present to his teachers in written form every year a statement of his educational philosophy and permit it to be evaluated in the light of whether or not it was the guid-

ing principle of his administration. If this were followed there might be some enlightening comments.

The statement of a philosophy of education is as necessary for the central administrative office as it is for the principal. No school system can make progress when led or driven by an administrator with a foggy notion of where he is going or what it's all about.

THE Editorial Committee calls your attention to the questionnaire printed on page 135. The blank on that page offers you an opportunity to improve the Department's year-books

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INTRODUCTION TO PART TWO

APPROXIMATELY 5,000 persons are members of the Department of Elementary School Principals. Fully 500 of this number are working in rural schools. Two thousand are in charge of schools in the largest cities. The rest are found in the smaller cities, towns, and villages. How can the resources of this vast experimental laboratory be made available to American education? Part II offers a significant answer to this question.—*Editorial Committee.*

CHAPTER IV

THE PRINCIPAL'S TIME BUDGET AND WORK HABITS *PLAN YOUR WORK AND WORK YOUR PLAN*

ROBERT B. ABBOTT

Principal, Heaton Demonstration School, Fresno, California

INERTIA IS A COMMON affliction among school administrators. It is so easy to drop into the old familiar grooves. In some communities four out of five are afflicted and their best friends won't tell them. Let us look into the office of Principal N. A. Rutt. It is 10:15 A. M. in the American School of Typicality, U. S. A.

I. WHAT IS WRONG WITH THIS PICTURE?

Janitor: Mr. Rutt, we will probably need more soap by the end of the month. It seems to me that these youngsters use a great deal of soap. I think they must be using it to play with. Anyhow we will need some more before long.

Mr. R: Yes, I must do something about the wasting of soap. How much shall I order?

Janitor: Ten gallons should carry us over until the close of the term, I think. Er— did you order some oil for me yesterday? I am afraid it is getting quite low.

Mr. R: Ah! That's right. I'll see to it right away.

Pupil 1: Mr. Rutt, Miss Bowman would like to have you come up to her room for a minute if you can.

Mr. R: All right. What is going on?

Pupil 1: She would like to have you see the Indian village we have been making. We are going to put it away now and take up something else, and we thought maybe you'd like to see it before we put it away.

Clerk: Oh, Mr. Rutt, before you go will you O. K. this order of Miss Carlson's for some drawing paper?

(Enter two pupils, one supporting the other, more or less.)

Pupil 2: Mabel hurt her foot playing ball. She turned her ankle when she slid on third. Shall I take her to the nurse's room?

Mr. R: Yes. Is it badly hurt, Mabel? Let me see the ankle. Does it hurt there—or there (pressing different parts of the ankle).

Pupil 3: No, sir. Yes, it hurts there—

Mr. R: I guess it's only sprained a little but your mother may want to have your doctor see it. Is your mother home?

Pupil 3: Yes, sir.

Mr. R: She can come after you, can't she? (Pupil nods.) What is your telephone number?

Pupil 3: 3-6576.

Mr. R: (Mr. R. dials 3-6576.) Mrs. Denham? This is Mr. Rutt, of the American School, speaking. Mabel has turned her ankle and, though I do not think it is serious, possibly you would prefer to take her to a

doctor. No, it is not serious, but bathing it in hot water would help even though you do not take her to a doctor. Good-bye. (To Mabel.) Your mother will be here soon. You can wait in the other office for her. (Boy enters as the girls exit left rear.)

Mr. R: Well, John, what is it?

John: Miss Enters said I was to come down to see you.

Mr. R: What's the trouble?

John: I didn't do nuthin. Besides, Jimmy Dolan did it just as much as I did.

Clerk: Mrs. Parent would like to speak to you on the telephone, Mr. Rutt.

Act I ends in June.

Act II opens in the fall and may be very similar—but we hope not.

Referring to the activities of the principal actor in the play presented, we might discover these things wrong in this picture: Mr. Rutt should not have been in his office at 10:15 in the morning ordinarily (unless it was a period between scheduled visits to classrooms—and even then the office is a dangerous place to go. He might better have gone almost anywhere else). (2) He should have had a scheduled conference period for the janitor at which the janitor could bring up all his troubles. (3) He should either have arranged for the janitor to order oil as he needed it for the furnace or to have the clerk order it. Preferably the latter. (4) Pupils who have been given responsibilities, who are enthusiastic about their work, and who help run the school are not so likely to waste the soap. It seems very difficult to find a substitute in the child's interests for wasting soap—but it has been done. (5) It is apparent that Mr. Rutt did not know very much about what was going on in Miss Bowman's room. That she should have to send for him to see her completed village before they put it away is quite an indictment. He may have been leading the child on when asking her if she knew what the room was going to do next, but we suspect that he did not have even a thumb in the pie when Miss Bowman was making her plans. (6) There should be some system whereby the teachers can get their own supplies. They should get them at a certain time even if the clerk is given full responsibility, and, certainly the clerk should not have the principal O. K. every order for supplies. (7) Accidents will happen to children about the school, and often the principal will necessarily have to take charge—especially when the nurse is not in the building as is the case here apparently. However the clerk can usually handle these cases and if it is a prevailing activity of the school to have accidents it may be well to organize a group of pupils who can be taught to take charge of most of the cases. (8) It may have been the best policy for the principal to have phoned the injured girl's mother himself. Certainly the practice breeds confidence and allows another contact with the parent, but it is perfectly possible to have

these phone calls handled by the clerk or a pupil. The home may appreciate his personal interest in the child, but it will soon learn how sincere his interest in children is by the type of school he runs. (9) Evidently he has had no warning about the disciplinary case, Johnny, and is in for a bad time settling it to the teacher's satisfaction—which should not be the basis for settling problem cases. Think how much simpler it would have been if only he had not been in the office, even if he had not put into effect a plan which called for a conference with the teacher before he saw the pupil. (10) The telephone call by Mrs. Parent served to spare the author of the play the trouble of trying to solve the disciplinarian case, but it also shows that Mr. Rutt probably has no office hours so far as telephone calls are concerned.

We are thankful that we have had but one half-hour of Mr. Rutt's troubles.

II. WHY ORGANIZE THE PRINCIPAL'S TIME?

Many principals will recognize this "half hour with a principal" as a valid sample of what their whole day might be if they did not organize their time. This article will be devoted to plans whereby the principal may so organize his day and his work that he may accomplish the work that he has been hired and is paid to do. We are not given higher salaries than teachers that we may be glorified clerks, which is what the above depicted principal undoubtedly is. A good clerk could do a better job of practically everything that this principal is doing, or than any clerical minded principal.

We might well look at the duties and responsibilities of the elementary school principal before outlining means of organizing his time. This is necessary that we may put first things first. His chief responsibility is that of gaining for the children of his school the greatest possible growth—physically, socially, individually. The values that the elementary principal is anxious to secure for each pupil may be roughly outlined as: (1) necessary skills, (2) development of individuality, and (3) development of group consciousness.

The principal deals for the most part indirectly with the children of his school. He secures the values above listed through the teachers and through such specialists as the school nurse, the visiting teacher, and the supervisors. It is his responsibility to guide the work of the teachers and the specialists in such a manner that their efforts secure the greatest possible good in terms of child growth. This means that in order to secure the "greatest possible good" the principal must organize his time. Leadership and directorship of others necessi-

tates organization of time on the part of the leader in order to make the efforts of the other members of the organization most effective.

Certain it is that only by organization of time will the principal be able to deal directly with any number of children—and at the same time do justice to his duty of leadership of teachers. That he should deal directly with children is not questioned. He can undoubtedly influence the lives of the children with whom he does come in contact. However, it is easy to overestimate the number of pupils thus directly influenced and forget how many are not reached. The point is that the principal is concerned with every child in his school and that if he can so guide and lead his teachers that every child has a larger chance for mental, moral, and social growth, that is his first duty as a principal. By organizing his time, however, the principal can deal directly with a great many more children as individuals and at the same time increase the effectiveness of his corps of teachers.

A third argument for the need of organization of time is that there are so many things for which a principal is responsible that it is imperative that he pick out the more important ones to do first and to so organize them all that he may accomplish them all. The *Seventh Yearbook* lists some 170 activities.¹ As curriculum makers must select the experiences most worthwhile for children, so must the principal select of all his possible activities the ones that will be of most worth in terms of the objectives of the elementary school.

III. HOW ORGANIZE THE PRINCIPAL'S SCHEDULE?

The principal's work may be divided into four or five main types such as administration, supervision, clerical, community service, and professional study. Various studies have been made to discover what percent of the principal's time should be given to each type. Such a study is that of McClure which shows that college professors believe that the division of time in terms of percent should be:

Supervision	40 percent
Administration	20 percent
Clerical	10 percent
Community Service	15 percent
Other	4 percent
Professional Study	11 percent

Each principal should set a goal for himself in terms of percent of time he would like to give to each of these types of activities. The goal will vary to fit the situation of the individual principal. For

¹ National Education Association, Department of Elementary School Principals, *Seventh Yearbook*, 1928, p. 197-201.

example, it may be desirable during a certain semester to spend more than the ideal amount of time on administration or on community work. It should be an attainable goal for the individual principal. He should not set the goal so high that he is unable to be reasonably successful in attaining it and he should set it high enough to insure a gain over his procedure of the year before.

The principal's goal might well be set up in terms of the various parts of the day as follows:

Of the pre-school day: (8-9)

- 50 percent to teachers conferences (including meetings)
- 20 percent to pupils.
- 30 percent to planning day (and directing clerk)

Of the school day: (9-12)-(1-3:30)

- 50-70 percent to supervision
- 10-15 percent to pupil relationships
- 10-20 percent to administration
- 10-20 percent to clerical duties and dealing with visitors and parents

Of the noon hour

- 50 percent to lunch
- 15 percent to teacher relationships
- 15 percent to pupils
- 20 percent to miscellaneous

Of the post-school day: (3:30-4:30)

- 40 percent to pupil relationship
- 40 percent to teacher conferences
- 20 percent to miscellaneous (such as: principals' meetings, school teams, parent conferences, and clerical work)

Such a goal serves as a standard, rough though it is, by which the principal may judge the worth of each task as it arises, and assign to it its proper amount of time and its place on the daily program. The goal serves chiefly as the basis for the making of the principal's daily program.

Translating the above goal into terms of time and of activities we would have the basis for a daily program.

TIME-ACTIVITY PROGRAM

Pre-School-Day

- 8:00-8:30 Conferences with teachers
- 8:30-9:00 In office
 - Free to see any teacher
(or pupils or parents)
 - Organize day's work
 - Direct clerk in her work

School Day, A. M.

- 9:00-9:20 In office
 - Clerical work
 - Reports from teacher
 - Direct clerk
 - See parents
 - Phone calls from central office

- 9: 20-11: 45 Supervision
 Testing
 Visiting classrooms
 Conferences with teachers at recesses
 Pupil adjusting
- 11: 45-12: 00 In office
 Glance at mail
 Telephone calls
 See parents
 Direct clerk
 Take up matters reported to office during morning
- 12: 00-12: 30 Lunch—preferably with the teachers
- 12: 30- 1: 00 Miscellaneous—varies from day to day
 On yard
 Conferences with teachers
 Meeting with teachers
 Conferences with parents
 Service club
 In general, it is a good time to deal with pupils—play on the yard with them; and see pupil committees
- School Day, P. M.
- 1: 00-1: 15 In office
 Conferences with pupils
 Clerical work
- 1: 15-3: 30 Supervision
 Much of this time after two o'clock can be given to conferences with lower grade teachers. This period ordinarily is the better one to break into if necessary.
- 3: 30-5: 00 Miscellaneous
 (Reserve first part for teacher conferences and use latter part for clerical work)
 Teacher, pupil, parent conferences
 On yard with pupils
 Principals' meetings
 Clerical work
 Visit parents
 Conferences with superintendent
- Evening Provision should be made for professional study, and for most of us the best way of insuring this is to schedule certain evenings for study
 Saturdays, too, should often if not always be used for clerical and organization work

In making his daily program the principal will put it down in definite form such as:

- 8: 00- 8: 30 Conference with Miss A—arithmetic
 8: 30- 9: 00 Open to conference with any teacher
 (See Miss B about John D)
 9: 00- 9: 15 Instruct clerk
 1. Copy letter to parents—make stencil
 2. Ditto work for Miss C
 3. Making baseball schedule for boys
 4. Bring addresses of pupils up to date
 5. Put test results on record cards
 (Most of this instead of being put on the principal's program will come from the unfinished business file of his work organizer)

9:15-9:55 Visit Miss A (arithmetic division of fractions)
10:00-10:40 Test L5 Rm. 14 Stanford arithmetic test

Ordinarily the principal will put these items down in a much more abbreviated form, often on his date pad, but it is worth noting that a program such as the one above provides a very definite record of the work of the school. A 5 x 8 card serves very well for this type of program and record. It is possible, though perhaps a poor method, to put down briefly the results of the conference with Miss A., thus making it serve as a more complete record.

A better method of recording the principal's program is the use of a weekly chart (see Chart I). The chart may be divided into hour or half hour periods and may include six or seven days of the week. It is well to have enough charts made for a semester and to bind them together in a binder or with rings. This plan makes it possible to make appointments two or three weeks or more ahead and makes it possible to make a supervisory program for a month at a time.

The first step in filling it out is to put in the engagements that occur regularly such as luncheon club meetings, teachers' or principals' meetings, office hours, and conferences with janitor. One principal makes one day of the week, Wednesday, the day for all the "extras" such as the janitor's conference, the pupil council, the principal's council, the teachers' noon meeting, and the parent-teacher association council. He calls this his day for interruptions and plans to have them all come on that day as far as possible.

The next step is to put on the chart the supervisory program for the week. The principal should plan the supervision for at least a week at a time and putting it on a time chart makes it easier to carry out. Having carried out these two steps the chart will show the periods not yet engaged which may be filled in during the week as the need arises for extra conferences, visitations, or administrative work. It is possible to put the supervisory activities in red ink which would enable the principal to see at a glance what proportion of his time is being given to supervision.

There are some principles that a principal should keep in mind in making a daily and weekly program.

1. The best time to help a teacher discover her difficulties is at the time she is teaching. In other words reserve the school day (while teaching is going on) for classroom visitations and supervision as much as possible.

2. Reserve as much of the time immediately before and after school and during noon for the teachers as is possible. This is the only time they are free to talk with you without other distractions. A

- 9: 20-11: 45 Supervision
 Testing
 Visiting classrooms
 Conferences with teachers at recesses
 Pupil adjusting
- 11: 45-12: 00 In office
 Glance at mail
 Telephone calls
 See parents
 Direct clerk
 Take up matters reported to office during morning
- 12: 00-12: 30 Lunch—preferably with the teachers
- 12: 30- 1: 00 Miscellaneous—varies from day to day
 On yard
 Conferences with teachers
 Meeting with teachers
 Conferences with parents
 Service club
 In general, it is a good time to deal with pupils—play on the yard with them; and see pupil committees
- School Day, P. M.
- 1: 00-1: 15 In office
 Conferences with pupils
 Clerical work
- 1: 15-3: 30 Supervision
 Much of this time after two o'clock can be given to conferences with lower grade teachers. This period ordinarily is the better one to break into if necessary.
- 3: 30-5: 00 Miscellaneous
 (Reserve first part for teacher conferences and use latter part for clerical work)
 Teacher, pupil, parent conferences
 On yard with pupils
 Principals' meetings
 Clerical work
 Visit parents
 Conferences with superintendent
- Evening Provision should be made for professional study, and for most of us the best way of insuring this is to schedule certain evenings for study
 Saturdays, too, should often if not always be used for clerical and organization work

In making his daily program the principal will put it down in definite form such as:

- 8: 00- 8: 30 Conference with Miss A—arithmetic
 8: 30- 9: 00 Open to conference with any teacher
 (See Miss B about John D)
 9: 00- 9: 15 Instruct clerk
 1. Copy letter to parents—make stencil
 2. Ditto work for Miss C
 3. Making baseball schedule for boys
 4. Bring addresses of pupils up to date
 5. Put test results on record cards
 (Most of this instead of being put on the principal's program will come from the unfinished business file of his work organizer)

9:15- 9:55 Visit Miss A (arithmetic division of fractions)
10:00-10:40 Test L5 Rm. 14 Stanford arithmetic test

Ordinarily the principal will put these items down in a much more abbreviated form, often on his date pad, but it is worth noting that a program such as the one above provides a very definite record of the work of the school. A 5 x 8 card serves very well for this type of program and record. It is possible, though perhaps a poor method, to put down briefly the results of the conference with Miss A., thus making it serve as a more complete record.

A better method of recording the principal's program is the use of a weekly chart (see Chart I). The chart may be divided into hour or half hour periods and may include six or seven days of the week. It is well to have enough charts made for a semester and to bind them together in a binder or with rings. This plan makes it possible to make appointments two or three weeks or more ahead and makes it possible to make a supervisory program for a month at a time.

The first step in filling it out is to put in the engagements that occur regularly such as luncheon club meetings, teachers' or principals' meetings, office hours, and conferences with janitor. One principal makes one day of the week, Wednesday, the day for all the "extras" such as the janitor's conference, the pupil council, the principal's council, the teachers' noon meeting, and the parent-teacher association council. He calls this his day for interruptions and plans to have them all come on that day as far as possible.

The next step is to put on the chart the supervisory program for the week. The principal should plan the supervision for at least a week at a time and putting it on a time chart makes it easier to carry out. Having carried out these two steps the chart will show the periods not yet engaged which may be filled in during the week as the need arises for extra conferences, visitations, or administrative work. It is possible to put the supervisory activities in red ink which would enable the principal to see at a glance what proportion of his time is being given to supervision.

There are some principles that a principal should keep in mind in making a daily and weekly program.

1. The best time to help a teacher discover her difficulties is at the time she is teaching. In other words reserve the school day (while teaching is going on) for classroom visitations and supervision as much as possible.

2. Reserve as much of the time immediately before and after school and during noon for the teachers as is possible. This is the only time they are free to talk with you without other distractions. A

CHART I. PRINCIPAL'S TIME CHART (INCOMPLETELY FILLED OUT. THE BLANK SPACES ARE PERIODS LEFT FOR SUPERVISORY ACTIVITIES)

October 5—October 11						
	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday	Saturday
8	Miss A. Arith.	Teachers Meeting (Professional)	Miss B. Arith. Prin. Council meets	Meeting of boys L4-H6-Baseball league organization	Meeting of girls L4-L6-Baseball league.	
9	Office	Office	Conference with janitor	Office		At office org. next week's program. Answer letters. Report on attendance. Make plans for use of institute.
10						
11						
12			Pupil Council meets.			Call Mr. Y., Mrs. T., central office. Visit Mrs. X
	Lunch Boys' games	Lions Club	Teachers' lunch and meeting (Business or visitor)	Lunch Boys' games observe	Lunch Girls' games observe	Lunch
1						
		Central office				
2			P. T. A. Council			
	Miss P. Grouping of pupils.	Miss O. Org. of work		First grade teachers Rm. 4.		
3	Prin. meeting				P. T. A. meeting.	
4						
	Central office	Clerical	On yard with boys and girls games.	Clerical	Boys' and girls' teams play.	
5						
Evening	Study	Musical club program	Class at college	Study	Open	Open

corollary of this is that the principal should avoid conferences with the teacher during the time that the teacher is teaching.

3. Schedule conferences with the janitor, the supervisor, the principal's council, and the student council for as often as you can make them definitely profitable. This allows you to make a note of something you wish to speak to the janitor about, for example, and bring it up at the time of the conference. This saves a good deal of mental wear and tear as well as time. It also allows the janitor to store things up until the time of his conference with you rather than bringing them to you at any time.

4. Schedule clerical work for periods which cannot be used for anything more valuable for the school. Saturday mornings might well be used for this particularly if the task calls for uninterrupted work. Keeping a list of reports due and other record work that you wish to do is helpful in that the principal often has a minute or two which may be used profitably if he knows just what to do with it.

5. Check the weekly program against the ideal program to see if a proper balance of time is being kept. It is valuable to keep a record of the way your time is actually being spent and compare it with your ideal program.

6. Make a yearly program for your school into which your weekly and daily programs fit. The yearly program will serve to guide the growth and activities of your school rather than allowing them to guide you. Such a program will include the school activities for the year: school paper, assemblies, athletic events, programs or community nights, special events such as May Festival. If your yearly program includes a special emphasis on the improvement of teaching of some particular subject, this subject should be emphasized in your daily and weekly program.

A daily and weekly program has very definite advantages some of which may be briefly summarized:

1. The principal will accomplish a great deal more than he otherwise would because he has relegated to the out-of-school-day period the activities that can be done when pupils and teachers are not there and has reserved the time when he can help teachers and pupils for that purpose.

2. His thinking is organized when he takes but one type of activity at a time. This means that by thinking about one type of work for any considerable length of time that he can draw conclusions, map out further growth for his school along that line, or plan his or others' future activities. It also eliminates a good many of the "immediate decisions, 60 percent of which are right."

3. Each type of activity takes less effort when one type of activity is undertaken at a time. The principal is able to give his full attention to the activity at hand. It is true, of course, that it will never be possible to do but one type of activity over any considerable period of time but it is surprising how many interruptions can be eliminated by careful planning and perseverance in carrying out the plan.

4. The principal will be definitely occupied with an activity that he considers of great importance and cannot be easily led or forced into minor activities. In the first place he will not be in the office to be disturbed or interrupted by the telephone, by disciplinary problems, by untimely visits from parents, by requests for supplies or questions of minor importance coming from the teachers, and all the thousand and one things that he must take time for if some one brings them to his attention. In the second place, when the principal has a schedule and follows it, the teachers, pupils, patrons, and central office soon learn to conform to it—thus relieving the principal of many interruptions. The central office should have a definite time to call the principal so that he may include it in his daily program or else it should take account of his program and call him during his office hours.

5. Many of the clerical duties can be done at odd moments if they are well organized and if they are not allowed to take time that had been planned for other activities. For example, in the time that the principal is scheduled to be in his office there will be moments between appointments when clerical work can be taken up and dropped as soon as the teacher comes in. This means, of course, that the principal must be able to so organize his work that this will be possible without undue effort.

6. Minor activities have a way of disappearing when the major activities are taken care of first. Many of them do not occur because the principal has so organized the work of the school that they are eliminated. This is particularly true of disciplinary cases. In a well organized school, which provides for much activity and use of child interests, 50 to 90 percent of the disciplinary problems are eliminated. Other activities are necessarily given to someone else to take care of. There are a good many things that a principal comes to think need his personal attention because he has always done them, but which he discovers can be done by someone with lesser responsibilities just as well or even better. The clerk, if there be one, can take on a good many more responsibilities if her work be carefully organized, and if the principal take a little time to show her how. If there is no clerk, teachers and even pupils are usually very willing and able to do things that take the principal's time.

7. When the principal has a time schedule and follows it as best he can everything about the school takes on a more purposeful, well-regulated atmosphere. This is greatly appreciated by the teachers. If a principal has a well defined time schedule he usually has a well defined philosophy of education and an educational program that is progressive and inspiring. This is partly due to the greater freedom for thinking and for study, and to the more intimate knowledge of his school which a time schedule allows, though for the most part neither is the cause of the other—they merely go together; the time schedule contributing to the educational program and vice versa.

IV. DELEGATING DUTIES TO TEACHERS AND PUPILS

In the ordinary school there are a great many activities which are the responsibility of the principal and which tend to take him away from his chief responsibility of helping to improve the teaching act. Because there is no one else to whom these activities would naturally belong, the principal is likely to spend a great deal of time on them knowing that they are of considerable educational worth and feeling that the teachers have enough to do in teaching in the classroom. The student council (assisting in governing the school), the traffic squads, the school library where there is no librarian, the school shop where

there is no shop teacher, the school cafeteria or lunch room, the school teams (particularly the interclass games), visual education, a work room, a nature study room, or a special music room—these are types of activities which a principal may want to develop and which he knows will take an enormous amount of time if he directs them.

Our reconstructed objectives of elementary education throw a new light on the responsibilities of the teacher of today's elementary school, and consequently on this problem that faces the principal. Subject-matter has lost its position of prime importance. We are concerned with the growth of the whole child now as never before—with his self-confidence, his ability to get along with others, encouraging his creative ability, and developing his group consciousness at the same time that we train him to use the fundamental tools of learning.

This means that the teacher is chiefly concerned with the child rather than the subjectmatter and that therefore such activities as were above listed, if they contribute materially to the education of the child, are his responsibilities as well as those of the principal. It is well, of course, to be sure that the activities are worth the child's time and effort, and that they fit his age interests, but having decided which activities are educationally worthwhile the teacher as well as the principal is responsible. They are no longer extra-curriculum activities.

Such formal arguments are unnecessary as a matter of fact, except for the principal's own ease of mind, for teachers are universally willing and even eager to participate in the administrative functions of the school and to take over the management of such activities. Many principals have what may be called a principal's council which is composed of representatives of the teachers and which, among other administrative problems, helps decide which activities the school shall undertake.

It is possible, therefore, for the principal to provide the activities he finds most desirable for his school and at the same time reserve the greater part of his time for aiding teachers to improve teaching, by asking teachers to organize and run different activities. One teacher, for example, might take charge of the library, one of the shop, one of the school paper, and one of the pupil council. This arrangement usually makes for much more educationally valuable activities than if the principal attempted to manage them himself. They are more likely to be taken over whole-heartedly by the pupils and by the teachers if they are teacher managed, and much more likely to be used to motivate classroom work.

This method of delegating responsibilities can be carried to duties of even lesser educational value if it is necessary, as it often is in the

case of teaching principals or when a large school has no secretary. Such duties as taking care of the supply room, issuing books, weighing and measuring pupils, giving and correcting tests can be given to teachers if absolutely necessary.

It is well for the principal to keep in mind the following principles in asking teachers to sponsor an activity or take over a duty:

1. Do not ask a teacher to take over a purely clerical or administrative duty unless it means that you can do something that you would otherwise be unable to do and which is very worthwhile for the children of your school.
2. Equalize the load of the teachers as far as possible. Relieve teachers who are given special responsibilities from yard duty or some other duty.
3. Choose as sponsor the teacher who is interested and has had experience along the line of the activity. Interest on the part of the teacher is of greater value than experience if you have to choose between them.
4. In some activities the ability to lead and arouse enthusiasm in children is paramount. In others ability to organize and administer is most vital. Analyze the activity or duty to see what characteristics are needed before asking a teacher to take it.
5. Consider the health and outside responsibilities of the teacher before asking him to take over an activity.
6. Allow the teacher a good deal of freedom in carrying out the activity and give him full credit for its success. Remember you are interested in providing the opportunity for the children of your school, not in making a reputation.

V. DEVICES THAT HELP TO SAVE TIME

1. Use the bulletin board in place of teachers meetings and in place of sending notices around to the rooms. This means usually that the bulletin must be written the evening before which insures a carefully planned and written notice. This will take care of 95 percent of the notices to teachers and will save time that the principal would otherwise use during school hours. Notices to be read to pupils should also be carefully written.
2. Let the parents as well as the central office know what your office hours are. This word can be sent with the report cards or by a mimeographed bulletin or by the school newspaper if it reaches enough parents. Parents will usually respect your office hours if you let them know what they are. If you are not easy to locate at other times that will help establish them.
3. Provide a way in which you may easily be called to the office in case of need. A gong or buzzer system is the simplest way. This will save your time by relieving you of the necessity of coming to the office every once in a while to see if you are needed there. If necessary pupil monitors can be left in the office by a system of relays.
4. When there are many problem children in the school it is often best to set aside a certain period of the day to deal with them. This prevents teachers from sending pupils to the office at all times of the

day; prevents them from sending many of them at all since they cannot send them on impulse; allows the teacher to see you and talk with you about the case before you see the pupil which allows you to look up further information about him and lay your plans ahead of time—of inestimable value in getting at the real causes of trouble.

5. Posting your schedule of visits to rooms and conferences with teachers has several advantages. It insures keeping the engagement as would not be the case if only you knew what your program was. It prevents interruptions since all can see that you are engaged at that time. It aids in breaking off lengthy visitations with parents or salesmen. It allows the teachers to make the most of your visit to them and your conference with them, since they can plan what they would like to have you criticise and the questions they wish to ask.

6. Respect the teacher's plans even as you wish your own respected. Avoid interrupting his work as much as possible. Confer with him when he is not teaching. Arrange for a time when bulletins may be sent to the room with least interference to the greatest number of teachers.

7. Reserve a time when teachers may see you informally, without an appointment, and be there where they may find you. The half hour period before school takes up is an admirable period for this purpose. This plan is a big time saver for both the teacher and the principal because there are many questions which need to be asked by teachers which take but a minute to ask and to answer. It also tends to lend to the human atmosphere which the principal is anxious to build up.

8. Organization of the office and its equipment goes a long way toward economy of time. The principal should have some way of organizing the work that is under way and of filing information that he wishes to keep. Work "organizers" and desk baskets are very handy for the former and a filing case is almost necessary for the latter. The filing case can be a home-made affair if necessary or made in the big drawer of the desk. A system of filing should be adopted which is logical and usable by both the principal and the clerk. A calendar pad is almost indispensable. It serves chiefly to record future engagements and to record major school activities of the year, but it may be used as a daily program by marking it off into hours. A separate program as suggested above is better for the latter. The office furniture should be so arranged as to provide the maximum of efficiency in accessibility and usefulness.

9. Poster schedules of intermittent occurrences and activities often save time. Such things as the shop schedule, the playground schedules, teachers meeting schedules, and assemblies might well be drawn up

for a period of time and posted where it can be found without asking someone about it or digging it out of a file.

VI. SUMMARY

Time allotments, work organizers, and schedules are means to an end. Such devices enable the alert principal to contribute something positive to the instructional program. Someone has said: "Plan your work and work your plan."

(1) *Plan your work*—Principals frequently ask teachers to outline courses, to prepare lesson plans, and to set-up definite objectives. Can the principal afford to violate his own preaching?

(2) *Work your plan*—Stay by your program. In the long run it will be right because you have thought it out and given attention to various activities in accordance with their relative values.

THE day will come when the public will learn that a human engineer in charge of a school is a person occupied with investigations that increase the efficiency of schools to such an extent that it is uneconomical for him to be disturbed every few minutes on the telephone or by personal callers. That day will not come, however, so long as principals are willing to be imposed upon, and so long as they live from hour to hour with no more insight into the problems of school management than that which is forced upon them by the emergencies of institutional life.—Charles H. Judd, see Chapter I

STANDARD RECORD FORMS CONSERVE THE PRINCIPAL'S TIME

EARLE D. BENNETT

Principal, Kessler Boulevard School, Longview, Washington

IN AN ELEMENTARY school of twenty-one teachers, I find the daily schedule is one of my most valuable guides. My basic program is as follows:

8:00- 8:30	Building inspection
8:30- 9:30	Office hour
9:30-11:30	Supervision of instruction
11:30-12:15	Lunch
12:15- 1:00	Playground and halls
1:00- 2:00	Office routine
2:00- 3:10	Supervision of instruction
	Monday—Bookroom
	Tuesday—Teachers' meetings
	Wednesday—Office
	Thursday—Bookroom
	Friday—Office
4:30 - 5:00	Organization of next day's work

The morning hours—The 8:30-9:30 office hour is one of necessary routine. Pupil enrolment, classroom transfers, brief conferences with teachers, parents, school nurse, and attendance officer make this a busy period. Many blanks are used in handling these matters with speed and despatch. Form 1 illustrates the enrolment blank for pupils new to the building.

FORM 1—PUPILS' ENROLMENT FORM

What grade are you entering?.....

1. Last name..... First Name.....
2. Address: Street and No..... Tel.....
3. Place of birth: State.....
4. Date of birth: Year..... Month..... Day.....
5. Name of parent or guardian.....
6. Where is parent or guardian employed?.....
7. Are both parents living here?.....
8. School last attended: Name of school..... State.....
9. Grade last attended.....
10. Have you ever failed to be promoted?..... If so, how many times?.....
11. Have you been vaccinated?..... If so, date.....

Form 2 insures every student's reporting to the office for assignment to class on his first day in the building. The stub for this form gives us a record in the office to check against the teachers returning the permanent record cards¹ completely filled out.

At 9:15 each morning the teachers report the names of absentees on Form 3. This blank is accompanied by the information required by the attendance officer in looking up cases of illness and suspected truancy. At the same hour the milk report is sent in an envelope which is printed on the outside as shown in Form 4.

Professional literature stresses the need for more supervision and for less routine work by principals. Yet during administrative activities an alert principal can collect and organize material of interest to the members of his corps. With this objective in mind I use an hour in the classroom and an hour at the library, chamber of commerce, or the workroom collecting materials for teachers, and occasionally part of the time reading professional literature. These materials and references are indexed and filed for future use. Often a visit to homes of problem children will tell me more about my problems than study of method and technic.

The noon hour—My daily visit to the administration building is made at my lunch hour where I eat in the school cafeteria away from the tension and interruptions experienced in one's own building.

The most inspirational and personally valued part of my school hours is the time I spend on the playground during the noon play and relaxation period. My opportunity of meeting and talking with children is best then. I must know children, as children, if I continue to serve them well. My work is supplementary, of course, to the supervised play program as the teachers take turn being on the playground at all times when school is not in session.

FORM 2—PUPIL ASSIGNMENT SLIP WITH OFFICE STUB

..... 192...	Miss..... Room.....
.....	Please admit
Room..... Class.....	To your..... class. O. E. ... T. E.....
O. E..... T. E.....	Please see that the two record cards are on file in this office.
	 Principal.

¹ See Forms 101 and 102A, *Strayer and Engelhardt School Record Series*. Publisher, C. F. Williams and Sons, Albany, New York.

The afternoon hours—Office routine keeps me busy for the first hour of the afternoon. The necessary records, correspondence, and bulletins are prepared with the help of a half-time secretary. Conferences with students are taken care of at this time.

From 2:00 until 3:10, direct supervision is the order of the day, and of course when 1:00 classes are visited, the office routine is during the second hour.

Probably the time from 3:10 until 4:30, on Monday and Thursday, is the principal's most valuable time. For me, it is, because then I meet the teachers about their problems. Most teachers are dead tired

FORM 3—TEACHERS' DAILY ATTENDANCE REPORT

TEACHER..... ROOM..... MONTH ENDING.....

(Please report names of all absentees)

Day	1st Week	2nd Week	3rd Week	4th Week
Mon.				
.....				
.....				
.....				
Tues.				
.....				
.....				
.....				
Wed.				
.....				
.....				
.....				
Thurs.				
.....				
.....				
.....				
Fri.				
.....				
.....				
.....				

Significance of marks: (1) Name only, absent; (2) S, reported sick; (3) T, tardy; (4) Tr, truant; X, excused; (6) an (*) asterisk, see notes on other side.

FORM 4—ENVELOPE USED FOR MILK FUNDS
MILK REPORT

Teacher.....		Room.....		
Week Ending:				
Day	No. @ 3c.	No. @ 4c.	Free	Total
Mon.				
Tues.				
Wed.				
Thurs.				
Fri.				
TOTAL AMOUNT FOR THE WEEK \$.....				
NOTE: 1. First column is for milk paid in advance for the week.				
2. Send this envelope to the office <i>each morning before 9:15</i> .				
3. On the last Friday of the month, enclose money for the entire month. Include also a report on free milk furnished your room, giving <i>names</i> of children and <i>number</i> of bottles furnished each child.				

at the close of class session and often times failure to get books and materials for use, discourages effective preparation for the following day's work. I try to meet this part of my program more than any other, and I find that teachers do respond by planning their work in advance.

Often during conferences I issue books and supplies. I plan to handle this duty myself, as it gives me my best opportunity to know the teacher's problems and the work carried on in the classes. Several forms are used to make the book room records accurate and as economical as possible. Form 5 is a requisition for art supplies and plan of work. Form 6 is a requisition blank in which teachers ask for books. Form 7, on pink paper, is a memorandum of books returned.

FORM 5—REQUISITION FOR ART SUPPLIES AND PLAN OF WORK

For Month Beginning.....		to.....	
Teacher.....		Grade.....	No. Pupils.....
Room.....		School.....	
.....			
Materials		Amount	

FORM 6—BOOK ROOM ORDER

I would like the following textbooks and reference books:				
Author	Title	No.	Ordered	Received
.....				
.....				
.....				
Supplies:				
Name..... Room..... Date.....				

FORM 7—RETURNED TO BOOK ROOM

I am returning the following textbooks and reference books to the Book Room:			
Author	Title	No.	Returned
.....			
.....			
.....			
Name..... Room..... Date.....			

Tuesday from 3:10 to 4:30 is reserved for meetings of the general teaching staff, building groups, and conferences called by supervisors. Teachers' committees also meet at this hour as needs arise. The principal does not plan to attend the above meetings, although he is invited almost every week. When it is advisable for teachers of certain grades to meet, Form 8 gives me a report of the suggestions made and the items discussed.

Wednesday and Friday is conference hour when teachers come for help to talk over their plans and to discuss observation lessons. The last half hour of the day is used in organizing and planning the next day's work.

Summary—For the past two years this plan has been under constant revision and will continue to be flexible as conditions require. I keep it because it helps me. When I first showed the schedule of hours to my superintendent, he said, "It is a good program and every principal needs one, but have the courage to disregard it if necessary." We often hear that particular hours and duties are of most value to the principal. To me, all the functions of the principal's balanced

FORM 8—TEACHERS' MEETING REPORT

Date.....	Grade.....	Room.....
Teachers Present:		
1.	4.	
2.	5.	
3.	6.	
Subjects Discussed:		
.....		
Suggestions:		
1. Organization:		
2. Supplies:		
3. Equipment:		
4. General:		

program of administration and supervision have contributions to make. I know of no better way to eliminate waste and to insure each task its fair place than to have a definite schedule of activities. The cooperative work of teachers and principal depends much upon system and planning.

APPRECIATION of the library as an essential part of the elementary school is rapidly increasing. A thorough consideration of modern educational objectives, and of the nature and aspects of the learning processes places a premium on that agency which provided an attractive environment, abundant reading materials, stimulating social contacts, and facilitates wholesome departmental relationships within the school.—William A. King, see Chapter XIII

TIME ECONOMIES IN THE PRINCIPAL'S DUTIES

IDA V. FLOWERS

Principal, Montebello Demonstration School, Baltimore, Maryland

It is now well-understood that a principal needs to budget his time and systematize his work if he is to devote an adequate amount of time to supervision. Careful planning and thoughtful organizing ought to result in a system of administration which will save time for all concerned and help to produce a more efficient school. If a principal studies carefully what he can do to save time and promote ease of work, it will affect his procedure at many points.

Activities before the semester begins—Before the opening of school in the fall, a principal should have spent several days in his school attending to such matters as the inspection of the building, the inspection of the grounds, the distribution of books and supplies, the preparation of schedules of recess, and the arrangements for corridor control. Where there is departmental work in any part of the school, schedules should all be in readiness for distribution to teachers at the opening faculty meeting.

The first faculty meeting should, by all means, be held before the opening day. Coming together in advance will provide an opportunity for the faculty members to exchange greetings and experiences after the summer vacation, for new members to be welcomed and made to feel at home, for necessary explanations to be given concerning the opening of school, and for a brief outlook on the year's work. With all of these matters attended to, the first day is bound to run more smoothly and actual classroom work to begin more promptly.

Another aid to economical administration is a statement to be prepared primarily for new members of the faculty, but which may well be given to all to serve as a reminder, dealing with many matters such as firedrill, lunchroom, distribution of supplies, roll-books, time of faculty meetings, and use of school library. It not infrequently happens, when such a plan is not followed, that many important regulations are not observed merely because they are not known. The following paragraphs are samples of some twenty or more contained in such a bulletin. They are quoted to illustrate clearly the type of directions and information provided.

Firedrill

Automatic signal by fire gong, four twos.

Pupils must move promptly, in single file, without running or talking, with the teacher at the head of line.

Before first firedrill, each teacher will be told what route her class takes.

All teachers must observe firedrills, whether they are teaching or not.

Distribution of supplies

Supplies will be distributed on Monday and Thursday. Requests for supplies should be recorded on a slip of paper and placed on a file on the desk outside the office door by 12:10 P. M. Please be specific in your statements. (See special sheet on "Supplies.")

Attendance of pupils

Every teacher is expected to do everything within her power to maintain a good attendance. All absentee pupils and all tardy pupils are required to bring a note of explanation.

The attendance cards, the nurse's book, and the duplicate roll will be explained shortly.

Your percentage of attendance for the week (Friday to Thursday) is reported by a selected pupil at the weekly assembly.

You will make out an attendance slip each day on form supplied to you and have it in readiness when a child comes to you during the afternoon recess.

Roll books

All teachers are expected to keep an accurate and neat register in ink. These roll books are to be sent to the office for examination monthly, between the first and the tenth of the month.

Please complete all items, including "estimate of studies" and "standing in class."

Cards

There are provided for your convenience cards notifying parents of lateness of children, of failure to do homework, and of misconduct. You may order a quantity as you need them.

Faculty meetings

Faculty meetings will be held regularly every Monday at 12:40 in the library unless you are notified to the contrary. Every teacher is expected to be present on time.

Either the vice-principal or the principal may meet with new faculty members a day or two after school opens and talk over this bulletin so that it may be clearly understood.

Faculty meetings and office hours—In order to run a school systematically, a principal should have a regular time for holding faculty meetings, which should be for a stated period, no longer. It is highly important both to begin and to close faculty or committee meetings on time. The principal should also tell his teachers when he will be free to see them in his office and should make them feel that he will be glad to confer with them. Whenever such arrangements have to be changed, owing to special occurrences, advance notice should be sent, if it is at all possible to do so.

Delegation of duties—Another important aid to economical administration is the delegating of certain duties to other faculty members. When there is a vice-principal, certain important responsibilities can be entrusted to him. These may include definite assistance with the clerical work, leadership of some pupil organization, coach of some of the athletic teams, preparation of a departmental schedule, oversight of school movements, and control of recesses. If a city-wide

testing program is carried on, or if objective tests are given systematically, the vice-principal may serve as a local examiner and also explain fully the findings and significance of the tests. Other duties of a vice-principal deal with the supervisory phases of a principal's work and hence will not be discussed here.¹

Assignments to regular teachers might include the directing of the junior safety council, the oversight of the school bank, the coaching of athletic teams, the distribution and recording of supplies, the preparation of the order for milk where a school has a mid-morning lunch period in the primary grades, and the keeping of a school attendance chart for weekly records. Whenever possible, a teacher who has such responsibilities as those listed above should be allowed some time for it on her schedule. She should be fully recognized in her position and well supported by the principal. If a principal will study his faculty before selecting the teachers for such posts and will discuss with them wise methods of handling the assignment, he will be relieved of many responsibilities and saved much time. He should, however, confer with the teachers in charge as needs arise and in every way support the teacher and promote the activity.

Efficient methods of work—Time and effort can both be saved by economical methods of work. A principal who has a clerk should teach her good and quick ways of handling the mass of details which must be dealt with. When there is no clerk, a principal must study the details even more carefully and adopt as many short cuts as are consistent with accuracy. While it is very important to train teachers to be prompt and accurate in all their reports, it is equally wise to relieve them of unnecessary clerical work. Frequently, copying lists of names and books can be avoided by good management and full office records.

Certain very significant items in the year's work concern the preparation of the annual book requisition and the subsequent distribution of these books when they are delivered. If a chairman be selected for each grade (or subject in departmental work), the principal need confer only with the chairmen before and after the teachers make their needs and requests known. The teachers then may take time to examine samples of new books which the principal should have been accumulating, and, knowing the amount of money apportioned, they can make up their requisition. While this order is more than likely to need some revision by the principal and chairman, time will be saved and a better requisition prepared than if the principal did it

¹See *Baltimore Bulletin of Education*, May 1929, "The Best Use of the Vice-Principal's Time."

alone. The lists prepared by the chairmen should show grade, teacher, or room number for which books are intended. These lists then greatly facilitate the distribution of the books when they are received at the school.

Another important part of the year's work deals with the preparation of the semi-annual or annual statistical reports, and the reorganization of the school. Here, too, a mimeographed statement giving specific directions, with dates when the several items are due in the principal's office, should be supplied to the teachers. If this statement is then explained to those concerned, a more punctual and accurate report will thus be obtained, and time and annoyance thereby be saved for both principal and teachers.

A principal can also save time for supervision in several other ways. By arriving early he can attend to certain routine matters before nine o'clock and he can reserve certain others until after dismissal in the afternoon. Moreover, he can regulate parental visits to a considerable extent at least by making known to parents when he will be free to see them. He can transact most of the important business with his parent-teacher association through holding monthly meetings of the executive board at night and through careful planning for work with committees.

School administration requires study—Administering a school has many aspects and must be viewed from many angles. It cannot be relegated to a minor place nor pushed into the background. It is absolutely necessary to have good administration if there is to be good supervision. In spite of the many administrative duties devolving upon a principal, however, he can save time for supervision and also make his school a more comfortable, happy place in which to work by using systematic methods. Among these carefully thought out and flexible methods are careful planning for the opening and closing of school, organization of his personal daily schedule, delegation of certain responsibilities to his assistants. In short, efficient school management is the product of an intelligent study of the entire situation.

THE résumé of the yearbook will be found immediately preceding Chapter I. This brief summary offers the reader a bird's-eye view of the various chapters and raises critical questions.—Editorial Committee

CHAPTER V

THE ADMINISTRATIVE ASSISTANTS

ORGANIZING THE WORK OF THE OFFICE STAFF

GEORGE D. TAYLOR

Principal, Susan B. Anthony School, Rochester, New York

IN A RECENT bulletin published by the National Education Association¹ it was shown from returns from the field that the principals' time allotments ranged as follows:

Supervision	15 to 36 percent
Administration	16 to 65 percent
Clerical ..	6 to 31 percent
Teaching	0 to 52 percent
Miscellaneous	2 to 13 percent

The above figures give some index as to the variety and relative importance in practice, at least, of the various functions of the school principal. Regardless of the size of the school, its type of organization, facilities, and community needs, the five items mentioned above practically cover the job of the school principal.

The principal's need and responsibility for assistants—Even to hope to cope successfully with the situation requires that the principal shall carefully analyze the needs and determine upon the best way of dividing time and energy so as to most effectively meet the various duties. This job analysis should take into consideration the specific duties and obligations which the principal has to perform. These should be arranged according to their frequency, periodicity, and length of time required. From a study of these values the principal should work out a practical time schedule and try to adjust his work and habits so as to permit him to at least approximate the schedule. Planning a program is essential regardless of the size of the school or the lack of amount of additional help and service provided by the Board of Education.

In many localities it is becoming more and more the policy of the Board of Education to provide additional help in larger schools. These helpers, in every case, should be considered as aids to the principal and do not relieve him of the responsibility for their work. In fact, to a certain extent increased assistance in a school increases

¹ National Education Association, Research Division. "The Principal Studies His Job." *Research Bulletin*, 6: 89; March, 1928.

the principal's responsibility as he must now function through these assistants and he has the duty of directing their work, coordinating all special service agencies, and seeing to it that as far as possible all work in harmony.

Our school and its program—The school in which the writer is principal is one of the larger schools in the system. It consists of the main building in which are 45 classrooms, the offices, rest room and lunch room. There is also one temporary addition used for classroom purposes in which are eight classes and the auditorium. A two-story dwelling house has been remodeled for school purposes; the lower floor being used for the school nurses and the classes for foreign women; the upper floor, as a practice house for the classes in home economics.

The school is just two blocks from the public market and the New York Central Railroad, and is without playground or park advantages. Land has been leased for playground purposes and it is hoped that this asset will soon be established. The people of the community are thrifty, hardworking, and desirous of improving their opportunities. While a large percentage of the children are American born, over 95 percent are of Sicilian-Italian ancestry. Many children come from homes where the seasonal occupation problem and the size of family has forced the mother into industry. In fact, the economic pressure in many families is so great that a very high percentage of the pupils withdraw from school as soon as the compulsory education law will permit.

These factors of race, language, home environment and living conditions, economic pressure and lack of adequate recreational facilities place a heavy burden and responsibility upon the school. Health habits, nutrition, thrift, citizenship, moral welfare, right use of leisure time, all contend with the courses of study for a full share of the time and attention of teacher and school.

Susan B. Anthony School is classified as an elementary school. It is one of the contributing schools to Washington School, the pioneer junior high school in Rochester. When Washington Junior High was opened, our school, as well as the other contributing schools, transferred their seventh and eighth grades, and became an elementary six-grade school. However, due to the growth in numbers and the inadequate housing conditions at Washington, it became necessary for our school to retain its seventh grade. So that while still classified as an elementary school, we have a number of junior high classes in our organization. The age and physical development of the upper grade girls and boys has added a great variety of the problems and conditions peculiar to regular grammar schools.

On account of the extent, variety, and nature of the school community needs, our school organization is more complete than is usually found in elementary schools. The school is organized on the semi-departmental or platoon basis in certain grades. There are also the non-departmental grades, as well as various special types of classes for the slow-moving pupils, and there are the regular special classes organized according to the state plan for subnormal children.

The extra-curriculum activities provided to meet the educational needs of the school community include:

- a. Two special part-time classes for mothers which meet in the afternoon.
- b. Three violin classes during the school hours, a school band and school orchestra.
- c. A glee club.
- d. Seven after-school recreational clubs.
- e. A Boy Scout troop, which meets in the evening.

Other special features included in the regular program are the music, art, shop work, home economics program, auditorium program of visual instruction, art appreciation, music appreciation, and dramatics, for which special subject teachers are provided, some of them serving as homeroom teachers as is the general practice in the semi-departmental or platoon type school.

From this brief description of the school community and the type of school organization, it will be readily understood that because of the number of children enrolled, the number and variety of types of work and departments in the school program, and the number of teachers and the variety of groups of teachers included in the faculty, that it would be an exceptional principal who could administer and supervise the work of such an organization without assistants.

Problems in the coordination of the staff's duties—Realizing the importance and difficulty of the problem in our school, the superintendent and the Board of Education have provided a little more assistance than is usually allowed a public school in the Rochester system. These assistants include the assistant principal, a primary supervisor, a kindergarten directress, a psychological examiner (part-time), a visiting teacher, a remedial teacher, two full time nurses (work in the school and the community twelve months of the year), a school secretary, and an assistant secretary. On paper this looks like a splendid set-up and it might be supposed that the principal had nothing to do but watch the wheels go around.

Please keep in mind the facts that these various assistants are provided to aid the principal and that he is not relieved of responsibility, but is expected to function more effectively through these agencies. It follows that just as the principal in the small school has to make

a job analysis and distribute his time and energy to most effectively meet the various responsibilities, so in a large school the principal must make a job analysis of all that has to be done and then determine how these various duties and responsibilities can be allotted to the various assistants. This allotment is not a mere problem in mathematics of determining the sum total of work to be done and then dividing that by the number of assistants provided. While the question in simple terms is one of what work is to be done and what duties are to be performed and how can they be fairly and effectively allotted, yet this involves several other very important questions such as:

1. What type of work are these various assistants best fitted to perform, taking into account experience, training, attitude, and temperament? It may be argued that these questions should be considered and settled at the time that each particular assistant is selected for the job. In general this is true, but allowance must be made for individual differences, even in the same group.

2. How can the work of each assistant be most effectively planned and coordinated so that there will not be unnecessary repetition of service, undesirable conflict of authority and responsibility?

3. How can such a staff be permitted to function as a smooth running, cooperative group, each member having an understanding and appreciation of the importance and value of the work of the others, and a willingness and ability to make the necessary adjustments in a friendly give and take manner according to variations in the work, emergency situations and fluctuations in peak loads?

4. How can the distribution of the work and the scope of the work of each assistant be made clear to the teachers so that they can utilize the services of the various assistants without loss of time, confusion, and dissatisfaction?

Studying the office staff at work—When the writer was assigned to the school, he found that the policy of relationships and the functions of the various assistants had been well worked out. But as additional assistants and service were provided, it seemed very desirable to make a job analysis and from the results obtained reevaluate the functions of each worker and make clear to the teachers the policy and procedures designed to promote effective relationship between all concerned. The steps in the analysis of duties and reallocation were as follows:

1. The principal carefully spent some time in observing the work of the various assistants, conferring with them with regard to their work and difficulties and their desires.

2. Attempts were made to find out what features of each helper's work were heaviest in the daily and weekly schedules.

3. Each assistant was asked to make a list of various types of work or activities connected with his particular job. At the same time the principal made a list of all of the duties and types of activities which had to be taken care of by the principal and the various assistants.

4. These lists were compared and carefully checked for overlapping or apparent duplication. The principal's complete list was checked with the several separate lists to make sure that all functions and responsibilities were specifically assigned.

5. Where the analyses indicated apparent overlapping or duplication involving two or more workers, the matter was discussed with the purpose of determining whether there was a real overlapping or whether there was a natural division of responsibility in the matter.

6. The duties of each worker were then evaluated as to the quality and quantity of the work and its relative importance. An effort was made to take into consideration such factors as the frequency or infrequency, regularity or irregularity of each duty.

7. An attempt was made to group similar functions, duties, and responsibilities.

From the above study it was apparent that certain activities or duties were spread regularly over the school day, week, and month; that other duties occurred regularly at certain intervals such as preparing the monthly report, making out the payroll, reporting on teacher nominations, and preparing the school organization. Other types of activity came at irregular intervals and required a varied amount of time. It was found that the peak load in certain activities came at the same time of the week or month and that peak loads for other activities were on a less definite time schedule.

The analysis also disclosed that certain assistants were performing duties or assuming responsibilities which apparently had little relation to their title or office. In some cases this was due to the fact that no definite assistants had been provided for these activities and they had been allotted to the others in as equitable fashion as possible. In other instances the assumption of responsibility had just grown up or developed without the fact being realized or intended.

In the case of the office administration, the study disclosed the fact that each worker did what seemed to be most necessary or what was called for by the principal. Frequently both the secretary and the assistant secretary would be performing the same duty such as one make out the payroll one month and the other make it out the next so that neither one knew just what was expected of them and neither one felt a definite responsibility for any of the office duties. The same

plan of job analysis and study was followed in the case of the office force as in the case of the administrative assistants.

Redistribution duties after a study of functions—Following the analysis and the studies outlined above, a tentative redistribution of duties and responsibilities was worked out. This plan was tried out for a period of time for the purpose of ascertaining the fairness of the load for each individual, the grouping of these duties, and the fitness of each assistant to effectively take care of the particular assignments. After the try-out period, the matter was again considered and an effort made to correct undesirable phases of the assignments.

The analysis and experimental adjustment was spread over one term so that the relative importance and time requirements for certain activities which are most pressing at the opening of the term or the closing of the term could be fairly evaluated with activities which have a longer spread of time. At the close of the term the matter was again gone over and a definite allotment of duties, responsibilities, and procedures for relationship and cooperation established.

It should be stated that while each assistant had certain specific and definite duties and responsibilities that all were made to understand that no selfish or uncooperative attitude could be allowed. Where one assistant was working to a peak load, that one could ask for assistance from others and this favor would be later reciprocated. In other words, while the plan provided for a definite assignment with the corresponding definite responsibility, it is also provided for team work and the mutual sharing of temporary overloads or emergency situations.

Provision also had to be made to take care of cases which involved a possible or even desirable overlapping. An illustration of this is the problem pupil who might be referred to the principal or visiting teacher or both, depending upon whether the problem arose over some infraction of the school procedure or whether it involved making contacts with the parents, securing their understanding and cooperation. It might be a case of unsatisfactory grade placement and assigned to the assistant principal, primary supervisor, and psychological examiner. It might be a problem of inability of the pupil to successfully cope with the school program in which case it might be assigned to both the school psychologist and the remedial teacher. While these illustrations are incomplete and only a few out of many, they will serve to illustrate this phase of the problem.

It was necessary to establish some method for handling the many and varied problems and assign them to the proper assistant or assistants. Only in this way could we obtain the quickest and most effective results consistent with the importance and needs of the situation. It

was necessary to prevent undesirable overlapping of action with the possible irritation and dissatisfaction with parents and teachers. How easily a well-meaning assistant worker might aggravate the problem through misunderstandings and inharmonious decisions!

Since these various assistants were deputies for the principal it was felt that he should act as the central clearing house and should be responsible for the assignment of problems involving two or more assistants. Also, he should be finally responsible for a decision where differences of opinion and action existed. One difficulty that was kept constantly in mind was that of avoiding a situation so cumbersome and so tied up with red tape as to actually interfere with the purpose for which the assistants and this policy had been devised.

Giving publicity to the distribution of functions—Every effort was made to keep in mind that all procedures were intended to promote the educational and administrative program within the school. The work of the teachers and the principal's office should be facilitated, not hampered. To insure this a necessary coordination of the work of all assistants, and teachers, was required, and the line of responsibility clearly established. In order to bring this about the matter was presented at faculty conferences, discussed by the teachers, and again considered in a faculty meeting. Every effort was made to have teachers and assistants understand the spirit and purpose of the plan as well as the specific details of the different relationships.

As one means of bringing about a clearer understanding of the matter, the principal prepared a series of school bulletins of general information dealing with the work of the various assistants. A few bulletin titles are as follows: the semi-departmental system, health education, work of school nurses, boys' shop work—manual training, drawing, printing, girls' shop work, sewing, cooking, laundry, practice house, the auditorium, the visiting teacher, the school psychological examiner, the field of the study coach or remedial teacher. Perhaps the bulletins can be illustrated by a copy of Bulletin 12 (next page).

In order to promote the ease and definiteness in following procedures on the part of teachers and administrative assistants, a number of printed forms have been devised. These are not just so much additional red tape. They have been prepared in every case, to meet a definite need and are discarded as soon as that need has ceased to exist. Many of the best and most useful forms have been suggested by the teachers themselves. In every case the items represent the actual, factual information necessary for successful treatment or action. Most of the forms are 3 x 5 inches in size. Where the nature of the information or report requires that it be kept on file for a term or more, the form is printed on a regular 3 x 5 inch card. Where there

BULLETIN NO. 12—VISITING TEACHER

The visiting teacher will be glad to have referred to her any of the following types of problems:

1. Classroom problems
 - (a) Poor work
 - (b) Lack of interest and progress in school work
 - (c) Repeatedly troublesome conduct
 - (d) Excessively nervous or erratic behavior
 - (e) Children of superior ability who would profit by special training
2. Cases of apparently adverse home conditions or neglect
3. Cases of suspected delinquency
4. Children known to lack wholesome recreation
5. Children leaving school prematurely whose ability is sufficient to warrant their continuing

After cases have been referred to her, the visiting teacher would like very much to have the teachers keep her informed of any new developments. If you have students whom you would like to refer to the visiting teacher, will you please send to her their names with a statement of the problems, using the attached slips in duplicate with the information asked for thereon.

NAME..... DATE.....

ADDRESS.....DATE OF BIRTH.....

FATHER'S NAME.....

GRADE..... ROOM No..... TEACHER.....

Reason for referring to visiting teacher

Scholarship

Conduct..... Health.....

A. M.....

Absence..... Half Days..... Date P. M.....

A. M.....

Tardiness..... No. of Times..... Date P. M.....

Home Conditions

.....

Remarks

.....

Conditions Found

.....

..... School.....

N. B.—Whenever the teacher uses this blank, "Visiting Teacher Form I," to report absence she should also send the regular "Illegal Absence Report" form to the school secretary.

is no need of keeping the information after action has been taken, the form is printed on paper and can be destroyed when no longer needed. Among the cards most frequently used are: pupil's grade assignment card, application card for free books, family book rental card, information for procuring birth certificate, book rental card, new pupil's card, health bureau card, illegal absence report, pupil information card, and visiting teacher reference card. Figures 1, 2, 3, and 4 illustrate some of these forms.

FIGURE 1—HEALTH BUREAU CARD

HEALTH BUREAU	
Pupil's Name.....	
Address	
Teacher.....	Grade.....
Date.....	Time sent.....
Reason for referring to nurse.....	
.....	
Nurse's disposition of case.....	
.....	
Time.....	
Dental Dispensary, Thursday at 1 o'clock.	
Nurse's Hours: A. M., 9-10; P. M., 1-2.	

Teachers' relation to school management—It was believed that no system could function effectively unless the teachers had a clear understanding of the policy and the various procedures and were in sympathy with the plan. It was furthermore realized that some way would have to be devised in order to provide definite information on the various procedures and relationships for the teachers at the time when they needed such information.

A mere presentation of all the minute details of the many procedures at a teachers' meeting would be worse than useless. Such an action would overload the mind of the teacher with a great amount of useless information with the usual result that she would probably remember the things for which she had no use and would forget the necessary details or procedure for which she might have use. Only much confusion and inefficiency could result from such cramming.

Notices posted on the bulletin board would be little better than the oral presentation as in most cases when the emergency arises the

teacher has not the time to run to the bulletin board to find out what she should do. To meet the needs of this situation, a series of teachers' bulletins of information were prepared, each one discussing the policy

FIGURE 2—VISITING TEACHER RECORD

NAME.....	DATE.....
ADDRESS.....	DATE OF BIRTH.....
FATHER'S NAME	
GRADE.....	ROOM No.....
TEACHER.....	
Reason for referring to visiting teacher	
Scholarship	
Conduct.....	Health.....
	A. M.....
Absence.....	Half Days.....
	Date P. M.....
	A. M.....
Tardiness, No. of Times.....	Date P. M.....
Home Conditions.....	
Remarks:	
CONDITIONS FOUND	
SCHOOL.....	

FIGURE 3—OFFICE RECORD OF NEW PUPILS

NEW PUPIL'S CARD	
Name.....	Date.....
(Directory Style)	
Parent's Name.....	Birth Date.....
Address.....	Vaccinated.....
Received from.....	Green, Blue Card
Trial assigned to.....	Grade.....
Approved by.....	Room.....
	Tested.....
Remarks	
.....	

and steps for a specific procedure.¹ These bulletins which are now 30 in number, are placed in a folder with an introductory sheet and a list of the bulletins. These folders are placed in the hands of each teacher at the opening of school in September and are given to any teacher who may be added to the staff during the school year. As many of these bulletins are revised to a more or less extent each year and as many of them become worn out with use during the school year, a complete new set is given to each teacher in the fall and the old set destroyed. This apparent wasteful procedure was found necessary because in so many cases a teacher was following the procedure outlined in a discarded bulletin instead of the latest revision.

As in the case of the bulletins relating to the work of the various assistants, so in the case of the teachers' bulletins of information an effort was made to so organize the matter that in most cases it could be confined to one sheet although in a few instances two or three pages were required. In the introductory sheet an effort was made to explain

FIGURE 4—GENERAL INFORMATION RECORD

PUPIL INFORMATION CARD				
Name.....	Birth Date.....			
Address.....	Parent.....			
Own books.....	Rents books.....	Free books.....		
Amount paid.....	Paid in full.....			
From.....	Grade.....			
Date Entered	Teacher	Grade	Room	Days Attendance
.....				
.....				
Kind of Promotion (P., N. P., T. P., U. P., D. P.).....				
Term: Reading..... Arithmetic..... Geography.....				
Marks: Language..... Spelling..... History.....				
Attendance	A. M.			
	P. M.			
Tardiness	A. M.			
	P. M.			

¹ These teacher bulletins are similar to Bulletin 12, but constitute a special teachers' handbook in themselves.

and justify the bulletins and secure the teachers' friendly attitude. The table of contents of this teachers' handbook is as follows:

TEACHERS' BULLETINS OF INFORMATION

Introduction

1. Plans for opening of term
 - (a) Organization, (b) Supplies, (c) Supplementary Books
2. Pupil transfers and change of address
3. Bulletin board, mail boxes
4. Teacher's daily program—telephone service
5. Number twenty-seven school district—list of streets
6. Plan for book rental and free books
7. Milk service
8. Firedrill regulations
9. Accidents and emergency situations
10. Attendance
11. Supply teacher's folder
12. Visiting teacher
13. Detention room—purpose and plan
14. School nurses—regular and special schedules
15. Toilet period procedure
16. Teachers' dues and school funds
17. Teacher's abstract and monthly report
18. Procedure in problem cases, school psychologist—remedial teacher
19. The marking system and report cards
20. Faculty council
21. Work permits and losses to system
22. Honor club
23. School banking
24. Religious education
25. Absence of teachers—sickness, visiting—other causes
26. Duties and responsibilities of home room teacher
27. Prevention and reduction of interruptions to classroom work
28. Pupil training—habits, attitudes, conduct, character
29. Things to be done closing week of term, including list of reports, records due
30. Information and schedule for closing day of term

Conclusion—No administrative procedure however carefully worked out can be expected to function without guidance and supervision on the part of the principal. It has been found desirable to bring to the attention of the faculty from time to time by means of a bulletin board notice, or by word in the faculty meeting, the necessity for the faculty as a group following up some specific procedure. The faculty have been encouraged to bring in criticisms and suggestions and some of our most effective and practical bulletins have resulted from these suggestions.

Our faculty council is alive to the problem and constitutes an effective discussion group as the principal has endeavored to have them understand that only as policies and procedures are understood and genuinely supported by the faculty can they function effectively.

New developments and changing situations make it not only impossible but undesirable to have procedures, bulletins, and administrative policies remain fixed. With the changing needs and advancing school program there should be a corresponding growth and development in the administrative and executive policies of the school. In this growth and development, all should have a part.

In our school we have made every effort to have each teacher and each assistant feel that their criticisms, suggestions, and opinions are valued and desired and that only as a school has this democratic relationship and the good will, cooperation, and loyal service of all, can the school organization hope to cope with its many varied problems. While the plan is far from perfect, it has two redeeming features, one its flexibility, and the other, its reliability.

IN COMMON with industries and business, the professions are learning that it is wise economy to delegate routine work to low-salaried workers. That principals are being relieved of tasks that a well-trained clerk can often perform more economically is shown by the fact that in 1926 school boards in 516 cities were providing clerical help for principals.—Worth McClure, see Chapter VI

LET US MAGNIFY THE ASSISTANT PRINCIPALSHIP

SAMUEL KATZ

Principal, Public School 156, Brooklyn, New York

WHAT ARE the purposes of supervision? Most modern writers agree that supervision aims to improve instruction and to provide favorable conditions for teaching. Inspection, the original purpose of old-time supervision, is still the main business of principals. With notebook and fountain pen, they hurry from one classroom to another, breezing in, standing for a few moments, trying to look wise and all-knowing before breezing out again.

Inspection is not supervision—Occasionally there is some historic and outstanding principal who inspects *all* the records and work of each teacher at each visit, devoting 40 or more minutes to one classroom inspection. What does he not inspect? Roll book, plan book, written work of all sorts, the teacher's own personal record of lateness and absence, and teaching ability as demonstrated in teaching some assigned lesson before him. Such a principal might without question state that he had made a thorough and searching inspection of the teacher's work and found her satisfactory. Inspections however, even the most thorough-going, do not result in the *improvement* of instruction. They may prevent matters from becoming worse; they may halt the ravages of the "disease," but they are not forward-looking. Inspections are negative and restrictive rather than positive and constructive.

A principal alone without assistance can no more supervise the instruction in a large school of 50 or more teachers with a view to improvement of instruction than a city superintendent can supervise the instruction in each of his schools. At this point, several wiseacres will shake their heads disapprovingly, asserting that *they* do. But this article is written for principals who believe in getting down to brass tacks and nailing them in securely. Such mortals realize that a principal of a large school cannot come into intimate personal supervisory contact with each of his teachers. Unless the principal is in charge of a junior high school where the work is relatively homogeneous, the supervision of a school, pre-supposes that this one poor mortal shall be a specialist in all methods from kindergarten to eighth grade. Perhaps there are some principals who make such a claim for their supervision, without seeing that they lay themselves open to the criticism of being "Jacks of all trades and masters of none." Supervision that is capable of extending through eight school years must be spread out pretty thin. Such supervisors probably contribute little to the profession and are not missed professionally when they leave.

Supervision requires specialization—The present workaday world needs specialists. The general practitioner in medicine no longer exists outside of small country cities and towns. Even the rural practitioner hurries his critical cases to a city where the services of a specialist can be obtained. No more can a general practitioner of pedagogy hope to succeed in the management of a city school. Long ago Boards of Education gave up expecting the classroom teacher to be a specialist in drawing, music, shop, and cooking, and appointed specialists to assist her. So the principal needs specialists to assist him in his work of supervision, just as much as the class teacher does.

Any principal who lays claim to being a general practitioner in all the fields of teaching is a mere quack offering a nostrum to the public. And how some folks do like nostrums! They are cheap, they tickle the palate, and they contain enough spirituous liquor to make one feel quite "pepped" up for a while. "Away with your specialists!" cries the layman, after imbibing a bottle of Principal So-and-So's Patented Syrup of Pedagogy. "I don't want any specialists for my son. Just common everyday teaching is what he needs." Notice the spirituous liquor that made him feel so good.

Of course the amount of liquor in this refreshment is not enough to attract the attention of a prohibition officer. It is just a touch, a faint trace, and this is the essence of quackery of nostrums—that faint trace of something resembling medicine. So this important person patronizes the school whose principal advertises! "My school is a good allround school. We don't pretend to specialize in anything. We do all the tool subjects equally well." What joy is there in such a school for any of its poor little victims?

Why should the so-called tool subjects, which children are expected to use all their lives, be left to the mercies of a general practitioner? Are shopwork and cooking any less *tools* than reading and spelling? Yet the latter subjects are taught by specialists. While no principal would claim to be a competent supervisor of carpentry and cooking, the same man will not hesitate to supervise with ruthless hand the English work in his school. The idea seems to be that any one who can use punctuation and spell correctly is thereby qualified to supervise English in all of its ramifications.

Where can the principal get specialized supervisory help?—The expense is too great to provide specialists for all public schools. How can a principal obtain the specialists he needs to improve the instruction in his school? My answer is: He must *create* them himself!

Not long ago, when one of my assistants was conducting some oral reading tests in her department, a second-grade teacher said proudly

to her, concerning the reading of a certain boy, "I created that reader. When I got him, he was zero. He couldn't read one word. Now he is worth 70 percent."

The principal must take his zeros in the assistant-principalship and create the specialists he needs. It is his inestimable privilege to "so inform the mind that is within his assistant, so impress with lofty thoughts"—to paraphrase Wordsworth—that she may be inspired to leave the old chrysalis of conventional work and become a new creature.

Studying one's assistants with a view to inspiring them is the first step toward inspiring one's entire teaching force. When I came to my present school, I put in the hands of one of my three assistants, a book on silent reading, written by Superintendent Hughes of Toronto. Her surprise at having the principal offer her a book on pedagogy was quite evident. Such a thing was outside the bounds of her experience. She "devoured" the book and made such a lively report on it to me that I recommended several magazine articles by Gray. Presently she came to me with a proposition for trying a silent reading test in her grades. Later she spoke learnedly to a group of mystified teachers concerning rate and comprehension. These terms were new in those days.

Then I put into the hands of this same assistant Bernard M. Sheridan's *Speaking and Writing English* to see what her reaction would be. She reacted vigorously with the proposition that we try out his scheme for written composition in the middle grades of our school. She spent her entire summer vacation preparing an elaborate English plan to be used the next year. Her plans resulted in the launching of an uptodate drive in composition, the like of which had never been seen before in that school. Let me repeat, the most important business of the principal in the way of supervision is to create 70 or 100 percent assistant principals from the zeros on his staff.

How can the principal galvanize a Frankenstein into real flesh and blood? What can a principal do with his assistant who has become a supernumerary clerk? Breathe into the robot the living fire of inspiration and see if it will not stand and walk by itself! "But how can I inspire any one?" says this mere man, with a passing thought of the mirror. Let us not forget that inspiration is caught oftentimes from very insignificant looking persons and from very small circumstances. One does not need the big, booming, imposing, hearty personality that is supposed to be inspiring in leadership.

Praise, unstinted and without reservation, is one means of inspiration. Be big enough in your job of principalship to forget your-

self. Do not be jealous of the influence or success of your assistants. What they do is done for the glory of the school and rebounds to the principal's credit. Only an intellectual midget in the principal's chair needs to fear that others will tower over him!

How the assistant principal functions as a specialist—Make each of your assistant principals specialists in some line. Suggest books, praise accomplishments, and wait for results. Do not try to be a specialist in every line yourself. It is not humanly possible. Either you will cleave to primary work and reject the middle grades, or you will make a fetish of English and neglect arithmetic. No man can serve two masters in school anymore than he can out of school. Let your assistants become the specialists.

At Public School 156, one of my assistants has charge of the arithmetic throughout the school. Another takes the work in composition, and a third devotes all her time to primary supervision. Not one of these three assistants, however, had more than a smattering of their present specialties when they were made assistants to the principal. Now I look up to each one of them as a specialist in her line and often go to them for advice in mooted points. My primary supervisor has the entire say in deciding the reading method we shall use. I am convinced that she will gravely weigh the relative merits of the various methods on the market with far deeper concern than I should give to it, calling in the assistance of her most trusted and experienced teachers, and whatever she recommends I should accept. Why question the opinion of a woman who has made herself familiar with every book on reading that has been published in recent years? I may recommend a book to my arithmetic supervisor, but the final decision is left entirely with her, and I feel confident that her decision will be made with rare good judgment.

In order to bring about this happy state of affairs, when teachers look up to the assistant principal as a specialist in her lines and go to her for advice, *delegate to her the authority necessary to bring it about*. Give your assistants authority. Do not encourage teachers to appeal to you for decisions. Let your teacher feel that the assistant stands in *loco principalis*. Let her be the law-giver to her little flock. There is no more unhappy school than one in which the teachers are always going over the heads of the assistant principal and winning their cases. There is no more likelihood that the decision of your assistant was motivated by spite and favoritism than that your own decision will be motivated by the same impulses. The principal and his assistants should show an undivided front. Nothing is so disintegrating in its effect upon the morale of a school as for its principal to

act as a higher court of appeals reversing the decisions of his lower court.

What would a teacher think of a principal who sided with the children against her authority and always put her on the defensive in every case of discipline? If this same teacher is fair-minded at all, what must she in turn think of a principal who sides with her against his assistant principal? Of course, the boot would be on the other foot, in this case, and it might pinch a little.

If, for the sake of personal gratification, a principal encourages appeals to his authority, he will be deluged with them. The dikes of his assistants' authority will be completely swept away, and his office will be inundated with a Mississippi of complaints. A small leak, *i. e.*, one successful appeal, rapidly becomes a devastating flood. When I came to my present school, I found the authority of the assistant principals was somewhat like that of the authority of Congress under the Articles of Confederation; they could request teachers to arrive on time, but they could not enforce such regulations; they could advise teachers that they should meet their lines at a certain time in the basements, but they could not enforce this as a rule; they could prohibit the writing of planbooks in class time, but their prohibitions were not enforceable. A more supine set of women was never seen. I at once clothed them with the authority needed to put their departments in order. They immediately sought me to inquire what I wanted. My answer was that I wanted what they wanted, and from that day to this, that has been our policy—mutual agreement on all matters of general school policy. No principal should be an autocrat, the sole law-giver. Laws should be made by the principal and his assistants working together.

It is my firm belief, moreover, that the rating of teachers should be partly the work of the assistant principals. Of course, I keep in touch with the matter in order to see that there is a general consistency in the ratings throughout the school. I reserve the right to alter a rating if I see fit, but not until the assistant principal has given her viewpoint and I have given her mine. Thus the ratings are the result of mutual agreement and understanding. In this way teachers feel that they must convince the assistant under whom they work most directly that they have rendered exceptional service.

My assistants see their teachers at work in playground, in basements, at assembly, in the halls, on duty, off duty, early in the morning, late in the afternoon, besides making more frequent and longer visits in their classrooms than I can. They go to every class in a grade giving uniform tests. My assistant in charge of primary classes

hears every one of her 1200 little charges read twice every year. Who could be a better judge of the relative teaching abilities of her teachers than she?

Moreover, I am convinced that young women teachers between the ages of 20 and 25 should be supervised in details of instruction by an older woman, and not by a man. Fully half the teachers of my primary and intermediate classes are between the above ages. Their immediate supervisors are two women, old enough to be looked up to by young people. Whenever I see one of these assistants holding a private personal conference in her office with one of these budding teachers, I smile approvingly. I believe in the individual after-teaching conference held by the principal with teachers whose work he has just observed in class, but I believe that in the case of these young women this individual conference should be held with one of my assistants and not with myself. If, in my rounds, I see some inefficient method that should be corrected, I ask my assistant to call the teacher's attention to it and set her right. I can think of no more unfortunate predicament for a young man as principal than to be put over a bevy of young ladies. Unless he is possessed of a colossal bump of conceit, every method these attractive persons use must seem to him to embody all laws of learning and all principles of teaching. How difficult to approach a young woman, and tell her in dispassionate terms and properly scientific manner that her lesson was lacking in a particular detail!

It was my good fortune as a young principal to be put in charge of a school in which the average teaching age was almost 20 years of service. I looked up to some of these experienced teachers with the deference due from a son toward his mother. It is still an inestimable privilege to correspond with one of them now retired. She was a daily source of comfort and inspiration to me. Yet, although I have now myself arrived at the age where my daughters themselves are joining the ranks of teachers, I still feel that it is my assistant principals, and not myself, who should come into closest school contact with teachers of my daughters' ages. Therefore, in my school, I clothe the office of assistant to principal with such dignity and authority that the teachers look up to my assistants with respect and bring their problems to them.

Clerical work and the assistant principal—Do I assign any clerical duties to my three assistants? A thousand times, no! Each assistant either has a B. A. degree or is now studying for such a degree. One assistant has two university degrees beyond the B. A. Make them clerks? The bare suggestion is unthinkable. I do not assign the

payroll, the attendance sheet, the stockroom, supplies, or the multitudinous reports required at the present day to my assistant principals. They did not leave highly paid classroom duties to take up clerical details. Should they, now that they are in even higher salaried positions, be turned into highgrade clerks? Well, not in my school.

During the last term, one assistant has been spending several hours a week, conducting the writing of a short story in an eighth grade. I could have assigned her to the stockroom for these hours and busied her with counting and disbursing penholders and paper. No private school management would entertain for a moment the idea of paying a high salary to an English specialist and then set her to work counting school supplies. Officials would justly demand that the principal employ a cheaper person to take charge of supplies.

Summary—The above discussion does not exhaust the topic. However, the writer has indicated the outlines of an acceptable philosophy to govern the delegation of responsibility to an assistant principal. Briefly, the plan means: (1) The recognition of specialization in supervision, (2) the encouragement of the assistant's professional skill and self-respect, (3) the delegation of necessary authority to assistants, and (4) the elimination of petty routine responsibilities. The principal who magnifies the work of his assistants will reap the benefits of high faculty morale!

MUCH of the restlessness of members of the teaching profession about their relations to administrative officers can be traced to a lack of clear allotment of responsibilities. The teacher will attribute failures to the system whenever failures appear, and the system cannot answer the charge of the teacher in any arbitrary fashion. Responsibility and authority must be recognized as coextensive.—Charles H. Judd, see Chapter I

ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANIZATION AND DUTIES IN A SMALL SCHOOL SYSTEM

JAKE J. HENDRICKS

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AN ATTEMPT will be made in this short paper to present the relations existing between the members of the staff in a typical small school system. The duties assigned each officer are not theoretical. They are actually functioning and they have been evolved through a period of several years. The writer hopes that the suggestions given may prove helpful to administrative officers, particularly those in charge of the smaller school systems.¹

The school system—The Kerens community has a population of approximately 5000 people. The high school for whites has an enrolment of 200 pupils. The elementary school for whites has an enrolment of about 375 pupils. The high school for colored has an enrolment of 100 pupils, and the enrolment in the elementary grades for colored is about 275. Twenty-three teachers are employed in all the schools of the district. The school for whites is divided on the 4-3-4 basis, there being 11 grades offered. The school for colored is divided on the 6-4 basis, there being 10 grades offered.

The members of the staff in the Kerens schools have grown into their present positions. Each year additional duties and responsibilities were assumed according to the ability of the particular officer to meet the added responsibilities. The present relations have been reached through a process of evolution.

Figure 1 presents the type of organization in the Kerens Schools. The organization resembles the divisional-coordinate type in practice. It is really a cooperative procedure where the superintendent is essentially the leading spirit in almost every activity. While this may not fit some theoretical principles the outcomes indicate that it is satisfactory in a small school system.²

The line and staff plan of organization is followed in the schools for colored, *i. e.*, so far as the superintendent's relations are con-

¹ Many readers of this chapter may not be aware that about fifty percent of the total elementary school enrolment of the United States is in rural schools. Rural schools employ about sixty percent of all public elementary school teachers. Conditions in rural areas may not be such as to encourage the administrative and supervisory schemes suggested by current professional textbooks on education. Hence, the value of this chapter from a practical school worker.—*Editorial Committee.*

² Compare with the principles and practices in the *Organization of Supervision* by Ayer and Barr, Appleton, 1928.—*Editorial Committee.*

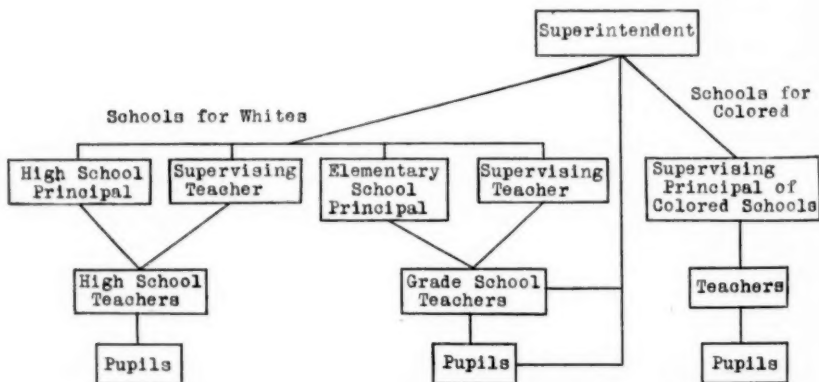
cerned. The principal of colored schools is really an assistant superintendent. He is the leading spirit of the entire system of schools for colored.

It is obvious from Figure 1 that there exist in the system three types of supervisory officers, namely: the supervising superintendent, the supervising principal and the supervising teacher.

The supervising teacher—In the elementary school for whites the supervising teacher has responsibilities under the direction of the superintendent. She directs the work of the first four grades in the elementary school. This teacher has had several years' experience of successful teaching in these grades, including four years in the Kerens schools. Under the present plan, she is relieved of her teaching duties a portion of her time for the purpose of visiting other teachers. Fortunately, the person holding the position has a splendid personality, is sympathetic, kind, resourceful, and has the tact of criticizing without offending. Her duties are:

1. To teach the second grade except when excused to visit other teachers
2. To visit other teachers and observe instruction
3. To criticise instruction, confer with teachers, and offer suggestions for improvement
4. To make written reports to the superintendent of all planned visits
5. To visit other school systems in obtaining suggestions for improvement
6. To help select, purchase, and distribute instructional materials for the first four grades
7. To administer diagnostic testing programs
8. To confer freely with the superintendent relative to all matters concerning the betterment of the school work
9. To suggest professional reading to teachers
10. To help teachers plan their work
11. To suggest ways to put over projects in regular subjects, fire prevention, safety first, health, citizenship, and the other school studies

FIGURE 1—THE ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANIZATION FOR SUPERVISION



12. To provide demonstration lessons as needed
13. To help select textbooks
14. To prepare lists of instructional supplies
15. To develop educational exhibits
16. To discuss topics in teachers' meetings
17. To follow the instructions and suggestions of the superintendent in matters pertaining to the improvement of instruction
18. To assist the principal in planning and supervising the playground activities of the pupils
19. To instruct teachers in the use of duplicating machines
20. To call and conduct teachers' meetings of the teachers under her supervision as she feels the need of it, and at the will and pleasure of the superintendent
21. To inspect girls' toilet daily or cause it to be done by other teachers
22. To cooperate with the superintendent and principal in all matters to the end that desirable attitudes may be developed in the children

In the high school the supervising teacher has been employed chiefly to further the English instruction. She is primarily responsible to the superintendent of schools. However, her duties have been assigned on the basis of conferences with the high school principal. Briefly, the high school supervisor's duties are:

1. To plan her work in each of the grades by calendar
2. To develop a supplementary course of study to fit the local needs
 - a. To prepare a list of the words most commonly mis-spelled by pupils of the local high school
 - b. To prepare a list of the errors in both oral and written English most commonly made by local pupils
 - c. To prepare a list of minimum essentials in English by grades
3. To prepare a reading list by grades of classics, poems and fiction, both for careful and cursory reading
4. To organize and supervise the high-school library
 - a. To make regulations concerning the use of books
 - b. To select student assistants and assign duties
 - c. To assist in selecting new books
 - d. To keep an inventory of all materials kept in the library
 - e. To properly catalog all new books
 - f. To collect fines and to see that all books are returned
 - g. To encourage donations of good books by pupils and parents
 - h. To notify departmental teachers of the arrival of magazines and periodicals which the school provides for their respective departments
 - i. To assist in the preparation of bibliographies
5. To keep on file specimens of her work as required by the State Department of Education
6. To require "fire prevention" themes to be written according to the requirements in the course of study
7. To act as sponsor of the senior class
8. To select and order senior plays
9. To direct the senior plays each year unless otherwise provided for
10. To act as dean of girls for the high school
11. To offer suggestions to other high school teachers in enlisting their cooperation in instructing pupils in the fundamentals of punctuation, capitalization, grammar, composition, neatness and form
12. To arrange and direct the program for high school graduation—baccalaureate, commencement, and senior night

13. To direct the planning for these special programs
14. To see that all articles that may be borrowed in connection with these programs are returned to the owner

The supervising principals—As shown in Figure 1 there are three supervising principals in charge of: the grammar school, the high school, and the colored schools. All of these officers are in complete control of their fields except as duties have been assigned to the supervising teachers. Inarticulations are avoided by close cooperation with the superintendent of schools.

The duties of the grammar school principal are as follows:

1. To help teachers solve problems of discipline in the grammar school
2. To teach the seventh grade six periods of the school day
3. To hold teachers meetings for routine purposes, for discussion of test results, and for such other purposes as the superintendent may suggest
4. To help plan a playground program
5. To assist in executing any plan presented by the superintendent
6. To confer with parents concerning the progress of their children, especially when the pupil is failing in part of his or her work
7. To help administer diagnostic testing programs
8. To inspect toilets daily
9. To report all needed repairs to superintendent
10. To supervise the teaching of handwriting in the intermediate grades
11. To provide for fire drills, theme writing, and the making of posters to meet the requirements of the State fire marshal in order that the city may receive the key-rate reduction in premiums
12. To assist the teachers in preparing for Parents' Day program
13. To make such reports to the superintendent as he may request
14. To check, study, and improve attendance
15. To suspend children from school when necessary
16. To make daily schedule for the seventh grade and assist other teachers in making schedules
17. To drive the school bus for the transportation of children of the Elm Flat community
18. To encourage and stimulate interest in interscholastic activities
19. To distribute textbooks and keep record of same
20. To make requisitions for supplies to the superintendent
21. To supervise the children as they pass in and out of the building
22. To select boys for playground care and control
23. To do all within his power to create an atmosphere of school loyalty and school pride on the part of all the children to the end that school property may be well cared for, the janitor's burdens lightened, and the buildings and campus may be the more easily beautified

The responsibilities of the high school principal:

1. To study and solve problems of discipline, particularly among high school boys
2. To see that reports of pupils are placed on cards at proper time
3. To distribute report cards at the end of each six-week period
4. To see that report cards are returned promptly with parents' signatures
5. To make out regular monthly attendance reports of pupils and teachers
6. To call teachers' meetings for routine purposes as the needs may require
7. To delegate routine duties to teachers

8. To make out daily schedule of teachers and pupils with the assistance of the superintendent
9. To confer with pupils who are failing
10. To study causes of failure and suggest remedial measures to both teachers and pupils
11. To conduct assembly meetings in the absence of the superintendent
12. To check, study, and improve attendance
13. To coach athletics for boys
14. To arrange athletic schedule (inter- and intra-)
15. To purchase athletic supplies
16. To care for and be responsible for all athletic supplies
17. To keep an itemized record of all extra-curriculum activity fees
18. To teach four classes in history
19. To arrange for transportation of athletic tours
20. To receive visiting athletic teams
21. To help in taking the school census
22. To help organize discipline for halls, playgrounds, and assemblies
23. Help administer diagnostic tests in the high school
24. To visit other school systems for suggestions of improvement
25. Discuss topics in teachers' meetings
26. To issue textbooks and keep records of them or cause it to be done
27. To make out term reports
28. To make out transcripts for pupils
29. To suspend pupils from school when the offense justifies, the principal to be the judge
30. To confer with the superintendent on changes in regulations, or on any other matter, if in his judgment he deems it necessary

The supervising principal of colored schools has the following duties:

1. To arrange daily schedule
2. To assign duties to teachers
3. To select his teachers
4. To rate his teachers
5. To administer tests for diagnostic purposes
6. To suggest remedial measures
7. To visit teachers at work
8. To supervise school work in general
9. To teach two classes per day
10. To help select textbooks
11. To make requests for instructional materials
12. To distribute instructional materials
13. To hold teachers' meetings
14. To plan for demonstration teaching
15. To develop educational exhibits
16. To attend educational meetings
17. To attend social and community gatherings among his colored people
18. To hold conferences with teachers, both individual and group
19. To sell the school systems to the general public under the direction of the superintendent
20. To address various community gatherings among his people
21. To prepare news articles (reviewed by the superintendent)
22. To direct all things pertaining to inter-school contests
23. To care for buildings and property of school
24. To direct all disciplinary problems of his school
25. To prepare school programs

26. To help prepare budget of his school
27. To prepare special and general reports to the superintendent
28. To make suggestions for the building program
29. To check, study, and improve attendance
30. To take the school census among the colored people
31. To employ, assign duties to, inspect, supervise, and dismiss janitors
32. To meet all the requirements of the Vocational Department of the State Department of Education at Austin
33. To encourage, stimulate, and develop school loyalty, civic pride, right attitudes, etc., in the pupils to the end that public property may be well cared for, the campus beautified, and a wholesome atmosphere may prevail
34. To follow the directions and suggestions of the superintendent in all things for the general improvement of the educational, social, and moral development of the colored people of the community

The superintendent of schools—It is impractical to list in this paper all of the duties of the superintendent. The reader is referred to *A Checking List of One Thousand Duties of School Administrators* prepared by Dr. Fred C. Ayer, Department of Educational Administration, University of Texas, Austin, Texas.¹ The superintendent of the Kerens School performs or has performed every duty listed. His present status has been one of evolution. Several years ago when he began his work, not so very many duties were performed by him, nor was so much expected. About the only duty which the schoolboard has not delegated to the superintendent at present is the determining his own salary. A few of the major duties of the superintendent are here listed:

1. Purchase materials for operation, instruction, repairs, and in many instances for capital outlay
2. Pay current bills
3. Prepare the annual budget
4. Adopt an accounting system and keep records for all school properties
5. Look after all other business interests of the school
6. Act as secretary of the board
7. Employ teachers, setting-up standards of scholarship, etc.
8. Assign duties to all school officers
9. Determine the aims and objectives of the school and of each activity which the school fosters
10. Hold community meetings
11. Keep records of all school activities and all school transactions
12. Inspect buildings, janitor service, teachers, and suggest improvements
13. Employ janitors and set standards for them
14. Care for all properties and have repairs made when and where needed
15. Determine all needs of school and plan building programs
16. Take school census and solve attendance problems
17. Prepare the course of study
18. Select textbooks and act as custodian of books
19. Prepare all printed forms which the school uses
20. Make school surveys
21. Look after all things connected with transportation of pupils

¹See articles in the *American School Board Journal* for February, March, April, May and June, 1929.

22. Teach part of time as needed
23. Supervise instruction
 - (1) Hold teachers' meetings
 - (2) Hold conferences with teachers
 - (3) Assist the teachers in finding the specific aims and objectives
 - (4) Aid the teachers in interpreting courses of study
 - (5) Encourage educational growth of teachers
 - (6) Visit teachers at work, following with a personal conference
 - (7) Arrange for demonstration teaching
 - (8) Arrange for inter-visitation of teachers in the local school and in neighboring schools
 - (9) Help teachers make a progress study
 - (10) Study with the teachers the question of failure and work out a list of remedies
 - (11) Encourage teachers in undertaking new experiments
 - (12) Analyze teaching difficulties
 - (13) Prepare bibliographies and acquaint teachers with helpful devices
 - (14) Set up standards for pupil marks and help teachers use same
 - (15) Administer standardized tests and measurements for diagnostic purposes and follow the diagnosis with remedial treatment
 - (16) Direct the teachers in making and using objective tests. Show them the value experimentally of the use of the modernized test
 - (17) Act as a balance-wheel for the whole system

Summary—The above paragraphs indicate the administrative organization and duties of officers in a small school system. List of duties have been given to show how the various officers function. If space had permitted the responsibilities of teachers might also have been included.

It should be obvious to the reader that the problems of a small school system are not the same as those found in large city systems. The work of principals and superintendent must be adapted to the local demands. In Kerens the program and organization described above have worked satisfactorily. Efficient performance in small systems requires that the superintendent assume an intimate responsibility for the details of the instructional program.¹

¹ Barr, A. S., and Burton, W. H. *The Supervision of Instruction*. D. Appleton and Company, 1926, p. 66.

HAVE you filled out the questionnaire on page 135? The Editorial Committee requests your careful attention to this matter

CHAPTER VI

THE SCHOOL CLERK

HOW TO MAKE THE OFFICE EFFICIENT

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TODAY in educational fields we are hearing much about the principal as a supervisor. "Get away from petty details" is the advice given principals, but few suggestions are made as to how to get away from them. Some principals, because of inefficient school organization, must continually work on details. Other principals lack the supervisory vision and will probably continue to "putter" about. There are still others, however, who are ingenious enough to become good supervisors, but are unable to do so because of organization detail over which they exercise little control.

No school man is so narrow-minded as to even think that school organization is non-essential. Broken down machinery, whether on the farm, in the shop, or in the school, is not only unproductive of result getting, but it is exasperating to those who are in any way connected with the concern. Good organization is a prerequisite to good supervision.

School organization is the work of the school superintendent for the system and of the principal for the building. The organization policies for the school plant must be worked out by these two individuals, but the actual carrying out of these policies can be delegated to others. Because these policies can be as efficiently carried out by other individuals, this plan should be adopted, thus giving the principal time for his major duty, that of supervision.

The individuals, who most nearly carry on this delegated organization, are the office secretaries or clerks. Their place of work centers in the building and principal's office. To get the best from this organization two phases must be studied, the physical layout of the office proper, and the personnel of the individuals who work in this office.

There is a dearth of printed material, even in our college of education libraries, on the subject dealing with school clerical workers. When one goes to the college of commerce libraries, more information relating to office routine and secretarial duties is found, but much of the material refers to big business, no attention being paid to the school principal and his office problems.

The office and its equipment—From a survey of the limited amount of literature, however, it is safe to set up these theoretical bases in the allocation of school clerical work. The office room itself must be a working place for secretaries. To be the most efficient it should be located near the main entrance of the building. The office of the principal should be private and separate from the main or outer office. Workable and necessary equipment such as desks, machines, supplies, telephones, and files must be present and arranged to obtain the maximum service. The office must be adequate in size, pleasant, well-lighted, and ventilated.

It is difficult to know just what type of room and what equipment should be included in the standard school office.¹ These, of course, will differ with each school system and in each school within the system. Strayer, Engelhardt, and Elsbree² have published a score card to use in checking school administration buildings. This score card has been compiled with the superintendent's office in mind, but may be applied with some success to a principal's office in a school building. The standard point allotments for the private office and the outer office, are 75 and 80 points respectively out of a total score of 1000 points for the entire administrative building. This score card will serve as a guide in determining how efficient an office layout the principal has, irrespective of the clerical help.

TABLE 1—SECTION FROM THE STRAYER, ENGELHARDT, AND ELSBREE SCORE CARD FOR ADMINISTRATION BUILDINGS

Items	Standard Scores
A. Superintendent's office (Principal's office).....	75
A. Size	15
B. Arrangement	15
Outer office	6
Private office	9
C. Furnishings	15
D. Filing cases	20
Adaptability	7
Provision for correspondence.....	5
Provision for active material.....	4
Provision for teachers' records.....	4
E. Provision for stenographer.....	10

¹ See Chapter XII of the *Seventh Yearbook*, Department Elementary School Principals, 1928.

² Strayer, G. D., Engelhardt, N. L., and Elsbree, W. S. *Standards for the Administration Building of a School System*, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1927.

Items	Standard Scores
B. Administrative work room (Outer office).....	80
A. Space and desk room.....	25
B. Furnishings	15
C. Filing cases	25
Suitability	8
Cumulative files of pupils.....	6
Files of pupils left school.....	4
Courses of study and research.....	4
Ground plan of school, maps.....	3
D. Provision for stenographer.....	5
E. Vault	10

The clerical personnel—When the principal has arranged his office room with its equipment and materials as efficiently as possible, he then may turn to his personnel. The personnel assignment of work may be made arbitrarily by the principal, or the individuals concerned may be consulted and a plan for work outlined. The latter is the better way, for often it not only means good suggestions from the secretaries involved, but a spirit of cooperation is created which raises the morale of the office group.

Last year, the writer with his four office workers sensed that some deficiencies existed in the work of the principal's office. An informal meeting was held in which the existing conditions were discussed, and the situation analyzed. As a result these criticisms were made: the working assignments of the different members of the office force were not specific, the work was not definitely planned for the term or for each day, routine matters were not scheduled, and teachers were confused as to clerical assignments of secretaries.

Knowledge of existing conditions is the first step to solution. After analyzing the situation in this conference, the next step was toward some definite solution. An *Information Book*, consisting of some 30 mimeographed pages, was prepared for teachers. This book contained answers to questions which, new as well as old, teachers ask of the principal and members of the office staff. Policies of school organization relating to principal's visitation, use of equipment, fire drill, pupil conduct, substitute teachers, school library, pupil helpers, and examples of all school forms and blanks properly made out with explanations were included. A chart showing the assigned duties of each secretary appeared so that teachers might go directly to the secretary in charge.

Definite work for each secretary was decided upon, and assignments were compiled as shown in Table 2. This table, of course, does not care for the unexpected duties which arise daily, but it does list much of the work which is regular and routine. Periodical duties are starred with an asterisk, *e. g.*, those which come weekly, monthly,

yearly, or at stated intervals. This schedule helped to make each assignment definite, teachers knew to whom to go for assistance, and the principal was better able to place responsibility on specific individuals.

TABLE 2—ASSIGNED DUTIES OF EACH SCHOOL SECRETARY

Record Clerk	Secretary	Book Custodian	Mimeograph Clerk
Reports—State	Dictation	Information desk	Mimeographing
Financial records	Transcribing	Meeting callers	Office plants
Cafeteria	Typing	(Pupils)	Teachers'
Resells	Filing	Answering phone	materials
Specials	Storehouse orders	(Teachers, pupils)	reading
Reports—Daily	compiled	Issuing supplies	plays
attendance	Making appoint-	Issuing test	seat work
*Monthly atten-	ments	materials	tests
dance	Meeting callers of	Issuing passes	Bulletins
Kardex file	principal	Charge of State	Reports
*Record grades	Answering phone	adopted books	Storehouse orders
*Summary grade	Outgoing mail	Temporary enrol-	issued
sheets	School announce-	ment of pupils	Distributing mail
Direct messengers	ments	Lost and found	Issuing passes
	Calling substitute	articles	Temporary enrol-
	teachers		ment of pupils
	Report at teachers'		*Permanent
	meetings		records
	*Principal's daily		*Good Spirit Ban-
	situation report		ner
	*Principal's month-		
	ly situation		
	report		
	*Principal's yearly		
	situation report		
	*Time sheets		
	*Requisitions		
	*Inventories		

*Periodical duties.

Table 3 is a time budget worked out for each secretary. Like all time budgets, it cannot be worked exactly, but it is a helpful check in keeping up with the day's work.

Summary—The efficiency of the elementary school office depends mainly upon (1) the office and its equipment, and (2) the clerical personnel. Unless the principal is planning a new building he has little to say on the matter of the physical arrangements of the office. But in regard to the office equipment and the use of the various rooms he alone is primarily responsible. In this connection standard score cards may be suggestive of useful equipment and systems.

Probably more important for most principals is the problem of the office personnel and its duties. Before assignment to duties, the individual's abilities and aptitudes must be considered. The work of each individual should be recorded and classified so that the work of associates do not overlap. The personnel must work together, harmoniously, and occasionally one member of the office force will have to assist another member because of special work that must be finished. Work should be scheduled with a reasonable time limit allowed, and responsibility for duties should rest on specific individuals. Arrangements should be made so that some member of the staff will always be on duty at the office during working hours.

TABLE 3—ASSIGNED HOURS FOR DAILY DUTIES

Hours	Record Clerk	Secretary	Book Custodian	Mimeograph Clerk
8:00	Reports	Announcements	Pupil enrolment	Pupil enrolment
9:00		Dictation	Pupil readmittance	Stencil cutting
9:30	A. M. absences			
10:00		Typing		
10:30	A. M. absences	Outgoing mail	Issuing supplies	
11:00	Reporting absences to principal	Typing		
11:15		Lunch	Issuing passes	Lunch
12:15	Lunch	Typing	Lunch	Issuing passes
1:15	Checking cafeteria money		Typing for teachers	Running mimeograph
1:30	P. M. absences			
2:00	Posting			
2:30		Outgoing mail		
3:00		Filing	Book accounting	
4:00		Dictation	Information desk	

It is essential that courtesy, truthfulness, honesty, industry, and accuracy be characteristics required of each member in the office. Courtesy, both personal and over the telephone, is essential, for often the only impression outsiders have of the school is the impression received from members of the office staff. School authorities must know conditions as they actually exist, so truthfulness and honesty, whether complimentary or critical, must be given. Secretaries must sense their responsibilities, be industrious, and be able to direct their own work without requiring the immediate direction of the principal every hour of the day. The work of clerks must be accurate, or it is useless. An inaccurate report, or a misdirected guidance, means base inefficiency.

The day's happenings, private conferences, and contents of letters must be confidential. Loyalty to the organization is paramount, and only a high type of individual, in keeping with the high standards set for teachers, should be employed in the school office.

The school principal is indeed fortunate when he has a competent corps of office workers. Details can be taken care of effectively, office routine can be managed intelligently, and the principal can take the time necessary to do the big important task of school supervision.

THERE are many variations of successful practice in the delegation of extra-classroom duties. Principals agree that pupils should ring the bells and clean up the grounds, and that the clerk with occasional assistance from the pupils should operate the typewriter and mimeograph. Beyond this accurate generalizations are difficult or impossible.—Edgar A. Stanton, see Chapter VIII

THE DUTIES OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL CLERKS IN SEATTLE

WORTH MCCLURE

Former Assistant Superintendent of Schools, Seattle, Washington

THE PROFESSIONAL burgeoning of the elementary school principalship has brought with it many problems of a reconstructive nature. Perhaps none of these is more crucial than that of hewing the principal's desk clear of its long accumulated wreckage of reports, routine, and red tape, so that the time and talents of the principal may be released for professional leadership.

A study recently completed of the duties of 62 clerks in Seattle elementary schools offers convincing evidence that the office burden of which principals have long been complaining is by no means a creature of the imagination. Table 1 classifies under six headings the list of 92 duties reported as regularly performed by at least 10 percent of the clerks:

TABLE 1—CLASSIFIED LIST OF DUTIES OF SCHOOL CLERKS

Group	Number of Duties in Each Group
Clerical	41
Meeting and handling people.....	15
Mimeographing, typing, and dictation.....	14
Filing, indexing	9
U. S. and school mail.....	1
Miscellaneous	3

It is obvious from the foregoing summary that without clerical help the principal could entertain small hope of escape from the fatal dead-level of office routine.

In common with industries and business, the professions are learning that it is wise economy to delegate routine work to low-salaried workers. That principals are being relieved of tasks that a well-trained clerk can often perform more economically is proved by the fact that in 1926 school boards in 516 cities were providing clerical help for principals.

The mere provision of clerical assistance, however, is not necessarily an emergency recipe enabling its possessor to solve the office problems of an elementary school principal. The very multiplicity of duties reported by the clerks suggests the necessity for system and organization in the school office if the principal is to add more business minutes to his hour. After clerical help has been provided there still remains the twofold need for training the clerk on the job and

for assistance to the principal in reorganizing his office routine so as to eliminate waste motion and utilize the new resource to the fullest extent.

In Seattle, the superintendent's staff has taken the initiative in aiding elementary school principals to salvage office time previously devoted to the routine aspects of school management. This study, then, may be considered a part of a general program of standardization of elementary school office practice in Seattle. Companion projects already completed include, the revision of routine reports, records, and requisitions, budgeting of textbooks and supplies, and the installation of a uniform filing system for all elementary school offices. The purpose of this report is to analyze the duties most frequently performed by principals' clerks in Seattle elementary schools. The investigation of this problem was begun in 1926, although Tables 1 and 2 have been compiled only recently.

The procedure—Acknowledgment for guidance as to procedure and organization of the job analysis is made to the premier study of secretarial traits and duties by W. W. Charters and I. B. Whitley, of the University of Pittsburgh in 1924.¹

The method pursued was similar in general to that followed in the Charters analysis:

1. By conferences with eight full-time clerks a preliminary extensive list of duties was secured.
2. This list was then submitted to ten part-time clerks selected at random for the purpose of adding additional items. In this way a check list of 92 items was compiled.
3. Frequency of performance of these items was then secured by a check list which was returned by 62 full-time and part-time clerks serving 73 schools.

The wide range of duties which clerks are called upon to perform is indicated in Table 2.

TABLE 2—FREQUENCY OF CLASSIFIED DUTIES OF SIXTY TWO ELEMENTARY SCHOOL CLERKS

Number Per- forming	Duty
I. CLERICAL DUTIES	
51	Compiling monthly classification record
48	Compiling monthly payroll report
46	Showing all reports to principal for verification
46	Sending to other schools for pink index cumulative record cards
44	Sending pink index cumulative record cards to other schools
40	Check of teachers' reports
40	Going around to rooms to secure information for stated reports
30	Checking off deliveries against office duplicate

¹ W. W. Charters and I. B. Whitley. *Analysis of Secretarial Duties and Traits*. Williams and Wilkins Co., 1924.

TABLE 2—FREQUENCY OF CLASSIFIED DUTIES OF SIXTY TWO ELEMENTARY SCHOOL CLERKS—Continued

Number Per- forming	Duty
30	Keeping teachers' bulletin board up-to-date
30	Correcting intelligence test papers
29	Checking out materials from office: scissors, paper cutters, etc.
28	Writing out transfers of pupils
28	Compiling principal's annual report
26	Compiling age-grade report
25	Taking annual inventory of stock
25	Compiling promotion summary for the building
24	Keeping books and supplies in order
24	Making out list of things needed for monthly requisition
23	Checking of Illinois General Intelligence Test data in special cases
23	Compiling building summary of standardized test results
23	Checking teachers' semi-annual promotion summaries
21	Making out lunchroom report
21	Filling of teachers' requisitions for supplies
20	Sending in changes of addresses of the teachers to the superintendent's office
19	Making out pink and white index cards after first two weeks of school
19	Caring for extra bank materials, envelopes and blanks
19	Checking teachers' attendance
19	Checking teachers' reports on standardized test results
17	Making out reports for Child Study Laboratory on individual pupils
16	Helping principal and census taker in checking May census
12	Making graphs of test results
11	Making out monthly and annual requisitions for principal's inspection
9	Taking charge of school library and teachers' reference books
7	Writing out reports on accidents for principal's signature
6	Writing out tardy and absence blanks
6	Figuring bank percentage for each room
6	Looking up phone numbers and addresses of absent children
6	Assisting in taking height and weight of children for the height and weight survey
5	Securing information from registers (teachers') of two years, from grades IV to VIII
5	Checking teachers' activities reports
5	Compiling corporal punishment report
5	Making out a banking report each week for each room
II. DUTIES RELATING TO DICTATION, TYPING, AND MIMEOGRAPHING	
53	Typing stencils for tests, drill, outlines, etc., prepared by teachers and principal for pupils' use
49	Typing stencils of notices to take home
47	Taking dictation and typing letters
46	Operating mimeograph
42	Typing bulletins, notices, etc.
40	Caring for typewriter—cleaning, dusting, and oiling
30	Typing stencils for bulletins, etc.
28	Cleaning mimeograph
25	Typing stencils for mothers' club and parent-teacher association
20	Typing stencils for school paper
17	Typing two copies of annual inventory and requisition
15	Tracing of stencils with mimeoscope or otherwise
11	Tracing with mimeoscope for primary grades
6	Mimeographing attendance cards for each month

TABLE 2—FREQUENCY OF CLASSIFIED DUTIES OF SIXTY TWO ELEMENTARY SCHOOL CLERKS—Continued

Number Per- forming	Duty
III. DUTIES INVOLVING MEETING AND HANDLING PEOPLE	
57	Answering the telephone
50	Meeting visitors and answering their inquiries
45	Delivering messages of all descriptions either to teachers or principal
38	Managing lost and found articles
36	Escorting parents and visitors to rooms
26	Giving first aid in principal's and nurse's absence
23	Handling minor cases of discipline when principal is out of the office, always reserving final judgment for him
22	Giving out street car identification cards
20	Assigning rooms to those entering in absence of principal, and calling such assignments to his attention when he returns
19	In case of emergency, taking charge of classrooms
17	Writing out admission slips for entering pupils
14	Supervising children who ring bells
8	Signing excuses, tardy and absence, for principal's O. K.
7	Notifying teachers when they are assigned to lunchroom duty
5	Telephoning homes to help nurse
IV. DUTIES RELATING TO FILING, INDEXING, ETC.	
49	Filing white index cards
48	Filing white index cards—gone file
43	Filing pink index cards—gone file
41	General filing—care of the standardized vertical file
38	Keeping index cards in shape
20	Filing teaching materials loaned and returned
13	Filing library cards for teachers' reference books
6	Filing National Geographic pictures—in sets
5	Filing Child Study Laboratory reports—on small tagboard cards
V. FINANCIAL DUTIES	
23	Counting and wrapping the lunchroom money
21	Selling car tokens
15	Receipting all moneys: a record of all money received is kept by the clerk
14	Checking bank deposits of lunchroom and other school funds
13	Receiving and caring for money until bank messenger arrives
5	Selling of tickets for concerts, etc.
VI. DUTIES INVOLVING MAIL	
31	Handling United States and school mail
VII. MISCELLANEOUS DUTIES	
43	Keeping desks and office furniture in order
33	Planning to avoid classroom interruptions
21	Cleaning and dusting of office files and furniture

Some implications of this study—The very wide range and multiplicity of duties reported above suggests the possibility, unless he deliberately and carefully guards himself against it, of the principal's getting out of touch with his school because he has relinquished to another the formulation of important data and the making of many human contacts. This isolation will not happen if the principal realizes his full responsibility for every thing that goes on in his school

and uncompromisingly insists upon knowing his school thoroughly at all times. If this remains his attitude then the fact that a clerk compiles his summary of promotions, for example, will not be the means of his losing contact with a valuable index of school efficiency, but will enable him instead to devote more attention to a critical analysis of promotion figures. Principals must not lose their perspective under this new situation.

An interesting sidelight is thrown upon changing methods of teaching by the large amount of mimeographing of instructional materials (Subhead II of Table 2) reported by the clerks. Teachers are evidently supplementing widely the regular textbooks and utilizing informal tests and drills in their effort toward greater individualization.

The strategic position of the school clerk as an interpreter of the schools to the public is emphasized by the importance of the clerk's contacts in meeting and handling people. Here is certainly one point at which training, both preliminary and in service, should be directed, and to which the principal must give constant supervision.

The study also reveals the fact that preparation for the performance of certain duties should be included in the school training, that some of these must be followed up "upon the job" and that still others are peculiarly a part of training in service.

Administrative follow-up—The predominance of the clerical list has already furnished some reason for administrative attention in Seattle to certain crucial problems. For example, standardized procedures based upon practice of experienced clerks for compilation of such reports as classification records and payrolls, have been discussed in instructional meetings with clerks and each clerk has been provided with a mimeographed statement of the procedure to be followed.

Some of the duties involved in meeting and handling people are also recognized as of a crucial nature. Special instruction is also given in meetings each year concerning the appropriate manner of answering the telephones and of "meeting visitors and answering their inquiries."

Attention of principals has been directed to the necessity of caution in delegating to clerks certain responsibilities such as "handling minor cases of discipline when principal is out of the office," and "in cases of emergency taking charge of classroom." Not every clerk can discharge such responsibilities acceptably and some cannot draw the line between desirable initiative and the undue assumption of authority.

Copies of the classified list of duties have been provided to high-school principals and heads of commercial departments and attention has been called to the importance of adequate school training for such services as mimeographing, filing, taking dictation, and typing letters.

The status of clerical help in Seattle—A brief description of the Seattle organization of clerical help to elementary schools has a direct bearing upon the problem. The policy of providing clerical assistance to elementary school principals in Seattle was inaugurated in 1920, when the larger schools were given part-time clerks.

At present, every elementary school principal in Seattle is receiving some clerical assistance. The amount depends basically upon the number of pupils supervised with special recognition to other important factors, such as the special demands arising out of local conditions at the school, and special service to the system like chairmanship of curriculum committees. The schedule of clerical help now in effect is as follows:

THE SEATTLE SCHEDULE OF CLERICAL SERVICE TO ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

This schedule is subject to individual adjustments upon satisfactory showing of special needs.

Full-time Clerks

All schools of 800 or more pupils in average daily attendance.

Part-time Clerks

Size of School	Weekly Allotment of Clerical Service
600-800	20 hours
400-600	15 hours
Less than 400.....	10 hours

Full-time clerks are graduates of Seattle high schools. They are paid at the rate of \$75 per month for 10 months. Part-time clerks are usually juniors or seniors in Seattle high schools who are pursuing the regular commercial courses, and who have attained suitable proficiency in shorthand and typing. These latter individuals receive high-school credit for the time spent in elementary school offices as well as the regular financial compensation. A few are qualified graduates of Seattle high schools who are awaiting appointments to full-time school clerkships. Part-time clerks receive 40 cents per hour for the time actually spent upon the job.

Selections are made by the commercial coordinator in the Central Vocational Department of the public schools upon the basis of recommendations from heads of commercial departments and personal interviews with applicants. Assignments to schools and adjustments

of personnel are also made by this officer, subject to approval by the assistant superintendent in charge.

In-service training—Besides the incidental training given by the principal it has been found desirable to hold two or three general instructional meetings for clerks each year. These conferences are held upon Saturday morning, and are attended by both experienced and inexperienced clerks. The former are encouraged to make contributions to the discussion and some of their comments are most helpful.

At the first of these meetings, held before school opens in September, the clerks are instructed in the importance of their function, in the nature of their duties, and are told of some major considerations of success, such as courtesy, and discreetness. The latter are illustrated by the rating sheet and previous comments of principals in explaining ratings which they have given. Care is taken not to burden the first meeting with too much detail.

Near the close of the first month, another meeting is called at which methods of compiling certain important reports are outlined and discussed. Mimeographed materials containing detailed instructions for preparing reports are distributed. A third meeting is usually held near the close of the first semester in order to give instruction with reference to midyear duties.

These meetings have proven of value in establishing an *esprit de corps*, as well as in saving the time which the principals might otherwise give to general training.

Rating in service—As already intimated, service ratings are given by principals. These are made once each semester in order to facilitate personnel management and to stimulate improvement in service. The blank used is given herewith as Form 1.

The rating blank (Form 1) does not pretend to be as careful an analysis of character traits as that made by Charters,¹ but it does include with one exception items most frequently mentioned by principals during 1926-7 in response to the question "Do you wish this clerk assigned to your building next semester? Please comment." The single item, "Discreetness in dress and appearance," was included because of its somewhat crucial character.

Summary—Let it be reiterated that the present study is not expected to solve the office problems of Seattle elementary schools. Progress in this direction must of necessity be evolutionary. It is believed, however, that by isolating some of the problems involved in

¹ W. W. Charters and I. B. Whitley. *Analysis of Secretarial Duties and Traits*. Williams and Wilkins, 1924.

office routine, everybody concerned, clerks, principals, teachers, and superintendent's office may be the better enabled to give constructive aid to the improvement of instruction, which is the chief function of the school principal.

FORM 1—PRINCIPAL'S RATING OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL CLERK

Clerk..... School.....

Schedule at this school for.....hours per week.

Began service at this school in....., 19 ..

	A	B	C	D	Failure
Accuracy in taking dictation					
Accuracy in making reports					
Accuracy in typing					
Dispatch; ability to get things done promptly					
Discreetness in dress and appearance					
Orderliness; care of desk; general housekeeping ability					
Courtesy in meeting pupils, teachers, and others					
Spirit of helpfulness					
Effort					

Will this clerk be available for service next semester?.....

Do you wish her assigned to your building again?.....

Remarks

.....

.....

Date..... Principal.....

.....

THE SCHOOL SECRETARY AS RELATED TO SUPERVISION

F. H. DUFFY

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THE ELEMENTARY school principal has awakened to the importance of his work as a supervisor and the manifold duties of his office. Superintendents and school officials generally have come to regard him as one of the most important factors in public school life. Such facts bring us face to face with the innumerable non-professional duties which have in former years been looked upon as his legitimate work and which become physical impossibilities if the school is to function properly and effectively. No principal can supervise and also care for the clerical duties of his office; one or the other will be neglected and it is usually the former since it is less subject to check.

School clerk or school secretary—The office help is commonly referred to as the clerk.¹ The duties of a clerk are confined to rigid routine matters, tabulating, recording grades, checking accounts, attendance, and answering the telephone. The efficient office assistant should do more than this. She is virtually the office and business manager of the school and should be referred to by the more dignified and proper term of school secretary. We formerly said "preceptor" and "pedagogue" for the modern term of teacher, instructor, or professor. It seems plausible that the term "clerk" as applied to the modern well qualified office assistant is as obsolete as the above terms. In the present chapter we shall discuss the work of the school secretary.

Why a school secretary?—Some persons not engaged in education and some of those who are sometimes ask "Why a school secretary?" Principals have said that they do not want a secretary. Arguments offered are: they need no secretary; they would not know what duties to assign to a secretary were one granted them; clerks get in the way; they interfere with the smooth running of the school; principals are themselves fully capable of caring for all their work; and it is a waste of money.²

The above arguments belong to the principal of the old school. They do not issue from the modern principal who is aware of his professional duties. The birch-wielding principal has for the most

¹ Henderson, Louise H. "Clerical Service in City School Systems." *Eighth Yearbook*, Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association, 1929, p. 323.

² See the *Seventh Yearbook*, Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association, 1928, p. 261.

part disappeared, but the recording principal is yet with us and may be for some time to come. We have long agreed that the principal cannot supervise the work of his teachers, look after the administrative duties of his school, be a leader in his community, counsel his teachers and parents before and after school hours unless he is completely relieved from the routine work of his office. The modern school with its cafeteria, its auditorium, its gymnasium, its swimming pool, its laboratories, its school patrol, its school clubs, its parent-teacher organizations and mothers' clubs, present him with duties and obligations that a decade ago were practically unheard of. He is to be a member of the chamber of commerce, belong to one of the city's service clubs, help put over bond issues and tax levies, and cooperate with the probate court and welfare organizations.

In addition to the above the principal must perform the supervisory duties of his school. The question then arises, when and how shall he perform the clerical work of his office? The recluse and civil service type of principal needs no secretary. He is happy doing the things that he should not be doing, omitting many essential duties, always on hand to answer the telephone and inwardly congratulating himself that he has life tenure. Let us hope that few individuals of this type are in charge of large elementary schools. Such complex organizations need a competent secretary. It is her duty to spend all or the major part of her time in the office where teachers and pupils can find her at all times for the transaction of all school work not strictly professional.

Who should select?—Unless there is an established policy on the part of the superintendent or the Board of Education the principal should be permitted to select his secretary.¹ He should at least be consulted in the matter. He is in a position to know who would best fit into the particular position. Her work depends on his activities both in and out of the office and the success of his supervision and administration is largely reliant on the degree of trust he can place in his secretary.

Furthermore, there is the matter of responsibility. If the principal is to work day after day with a secretary in whose selection he had no voice and whom he cannot suspend or dismiss for inefficiency or misapplied tactics there will arise a condition of animosity. Any condition of hostility will not only reduce the value of her services, but will be a source of constant worry to the school executive. Too

¹ See the description of the Minneapolis Plan, *Seventh Yearbook*, Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association, 1928, p. 263. (Also footnote on p. 263.)

often the school secretary is given her position as a favor or because some particular person needs the work. The question of capability is given little thought. It is assumed that anyone can help the principal in his office. Sometimes aged and retired teachers are placed in the office as secretaries. Whatever the system of selecting, the principal's wishes should not be completely ignored.

Sex and age—Certainly none other than women should attempt to serve as school secretary, wages and other things being equal. Their nature lends nicely to the necessary contact with little folks and to the technicalities of office routine. They adapt themselves more readily to the conditions they meet, are more sympathetic, painstaking, and patient, take directions more seriously and definitely and present an atmosphere of refinement to the school office so highly desirable where children, teachers, and patrons are concerned. As to age it is desirable that she be yet in the plastic stage of learning. One of more mature years may find it difficult to adapt herself to the necessary contacts with small children and the flexible needs of the school. The girl just out of the business training school often makes an ideal secretary.

Qualifications and salary—On the matter of qualification we speak somewhat from observation and interchange of thought but largely from personal experience.¹ We are fortunate to have in our office at present a very competent secretary whose training beyond the high school is concluded by graduation from an excellent two-year secretarial school in Boston, Massachusetts. Similar preparation should perhaps be the minimum requirement for large city schools.

The secretary's duties, while related to those of the teacher, require different technics and special training. It is therefore unwise to place a teacher in the office as secretary unless she has had office training in addition to her teaching preparation. Some city school systems employ secretarial help of the teacher-clerk type to the satisfaction of all concerned. With such a plan however there is always the danger that the assignment director may call on the secretary for substitute work as a teacher. Under these conditions the principal cannot be sure of regular and immediate services. It seems entirely fair that there be rules permitting the teacher-clerk to be used as a substitute only at the discretion of the principal.

The school secretary should be able to take dictation directly or from the dictaphone, be a touch system typist, be able to operate the

¹ McGill, Eunice Parr. "A Study of Clerical Help for Elementary School Principals." *Sixth Yearbook*, Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association, 1927, p. 232.

mimeograph or duplicating machine, be skilled with filing systems, and have some knowledge of bookkeeping. She should be active, a fast worker, have a voice that carries well on the telephone, be neat in appearance, and possess a good personality. She must learn to be a diplomat since she often speaks for and represents the principal.

If we demand the same amount of training as for teachers their monthly salaries should be at least equal.¹ Attention is called to the fact that the secretary is required to work during the entire year in which case she is entitled to additional remuneration.

Duties—The following paragraphs make no attempt to present the hundreds of demands made on the school secretary's time. Yet many of the items so often performed by the principal and which must be done by the secretary if the school is to profit from his professional and supervisory ability may be mentioned here:

- a. Be at the office during the entire year with the exception of the privileged vacation of two or three weeks, which should begin not earlier than the first of July nor end later than the middle of August. At the close of the school year she must finish up reports and be at her post at least two weeks prior to the opening of school in September to care for registration and other routine matters effecting the opening of school.
- b. Keep in touch with the principal during the vacation period either by telephone or by correspondence.
- c. Care for all of the principal's professional correspondence and all correspondence relating to school work.
- d. Keep the books of the school's finances, including collecting and banking.
- e. Answer the telephone and give such advice as she knows to be the policy of the school and that she is certain will meet with the approval of the principal.
- f. Keep the school's attendance.
- g. Check up on truancy and report to the attendance department.
- h. Keep a filing system of all records, reports, catalogs, and stencils to be found upon immediate reference.
- i. Relieve teachers of clerical duties.
- j. Keep pupils' report cards up to date.
- k. Keep principal's office in order and file all of his personal and professional materials.
- l. Keep the principal informed—remind him if he forgets—of important meetings, engagements, or duties to be performed.
- m. In departmental schools help in arranging schedules for pupils' daily work.
- n. Make all reports, daily, weekly, monthly, and fiscal as required by the superintendent's office.
- o. Mimeograph outline maps, forms, test questions, and material that teachers may need in the furtherance of their work.
- p. Make out requisitions and look after supplies and stockroom.
- q. Make pupil withdrawals and transfers with the advice of the principal.
- r. Make up teachers' payroll.

¹ See practices as reported in the *Salary Tabulations*, Research Division, National Education Association. April, 1929, p. 20; May, 1929, p. 32.

- s. Query all callers as to whether their business with the principal is of a private, professional, or routine nature. It may be that she can answer their questions and avoid interrupting him from his supervisory work. She should refuse to call him for a conference on routine matters but arrange appointments at a time before or after school or on Saturday, if possible.
- t. Where no regular librarian is employed she must look after the work of that department.
- u. Be confidential—know everything that goes on in and out of the office, between principal and teachers and among the teachers and yet apparently know nothing. Learn to know the principal's and the school's needs as well as he knows them himself. Be happy in her work. Have at heart the interest of all the teachers and pupils. Be ever on the alert in an effort to help keep the school operating at its highest pitch.

Secretarial service and supervision—In the new elementary school under a progressive principal clerical help is a necessity. It is physically impossible for the school head to do constructive supervision when his time is constantly broken by routine demands. It is poor policy to permit a highly trained person to do unskilled labor.

These same arguments apply to the teacher's work. Why permit records and reports to reduce the time given to classroom work? Wouldn't it be real economy to centralize the clerical duties of a school faculty under one person trained to do such work?

Supervision means making learning conditions favorable for pupil growth. The most potent force in this learning environment is the classroom teacher. Often good supervision involves the elimination of teaching handicaps more than it does the development of special skills. The trained school secretary can do much to place the gilded dreams of supervision among the realities of practice.

FIGHT! Fight! Fight! A compact mass of boys—an occasional, "Hit him!" "I wouldn't let him get away with that!"—and then finally the mass breaks. Two blood-stained and bedraggled youngsters separate themselves from the mass, and drag themselves toward home.—Josie Perkins, see Chapter XI

THE TEACHER-SECRETARY PLAN

JULIA C. COFFEY

Principal, Emerson School, San Francisco, California

THE DUTIES and activities of the elementary school principal in administration have increased during recent years and much organization has been needed to get results in carrying on the daily programs and time schedules under the direction of the principal. Fortunately, the proper help is gradually coming towards the principal and it is on one of these newer fields of work that I shall write briefly at this time. The teacher-secretary is appearing in the elementary school and this report will show the application of that position as worked out in a cosmopolitan group of children with many special interests and needs.¹

DAILY PROGRAM OF TEACHER-SECRETARY

- 8:30 A. M. In charge of girls' yard.
Milk distribution from girls' yard to classrooms. Close, accurate checking of milk, orange juice, crackers and straws, through monitors and bookkeeping previously organized. This system provides that no classroom time is taken or interruptions permitted through errors.
- 8:35 A. M. Continuation of yard supervision with girls, emphasizing fair play, courtesies, and refined manners—girls assisting in all yard activities. Yard organization carried out through special yard monitors working with the general group of girls.
- 8:50 A. M. Assembly in yard.
- 8:51 A. M. All girls pass from the yard to rooms by special traffic system.
- 8:51 A. M.-9:00 A. M. In office, assisting principal to check up the opening of school.
A summary of the notes written by the principal on her arrival at the school at 8:00 A. M.:
Absence of teachers or janitors.
Names of substitutes or notes on the matter.
Urgent orders for the day.
- 9:00-10:00 A. M. In the office, recording the absence report in the absence book of the school against the record of the teacher or janitor mentioned above. Same report recorded on postcard to be sent to paymaster at Board of Education. Same report recorded on salary roll of the month.
Recording facts about the arrival of new teachers in the same way.
Meeting substitutes and directing them to rooms as reported by principal.
Assisting principal to check up with individual pupils on improved punctuality, cleanliness, and attendance. (Special cases being restored to vigorous school standing on these points.)
Receiving the class teachers' daily reports to the principal on attendance problems. Special reports on pupils out three days without excuses satisfactory to teachers and principal. Other daily questions

¹ The plan as outlined in this article is now in use at Emerson School, San Francisco, California.

on attendance, giving the principal a hold on promptness and regularity.

Preparation of notes from these attendance reports for the principal, school nurse, and attendance bureau.

Receiving reports for the principal from the school nurse, attendance bureau, other regular public schools, special teachers or classes of the school department, outside agencies connected with school work such as, welfare workers, charitable associations, cosmopolitan groups. Receiving new pupils and parents as well as any other visitors to the school at this time.

Incoming mail and distribution.

Incoming bulletins and posting in proper places.

Making notes for the principal on:

Incoming mail

Outgoing mail

Superintendent's weekly bulletin

Urgent business

Special business

Messages on units of work and lessons for children on which the principal is working throughout the building

Incoming records of pupils—kept right uptodate

Outgoing records of pupils—kept right uptodate

10: 00-10: 10 A. M. Supervision of girls' yard and return to office.

10: 10-11: 05 A. M. Teaching of reading to groups assigned by the principal.

11: 05-11: 15 A. M. Supervision of girls' yard and return to office.

11: 15-11: 30 A. M. Bookkeeping time.

School funds.

Emerson P. T. A.

Nutrition account.

Banking.

Emergency typewritten work for the principal on lessons for all children and teachers, to be ready for class language lessons for 1: 00 P. M. session.

11: 30-12: 00 noon. Intermission. Free period for lunch.

12: 00- 1: 00 P. M. Supervision of girls' yard.

1: 00- 2: 00 P. M. Clearing with the principal of all pupil reports for the day. Assisting principal in all courtesy correspondence concerning teachers, parents, and pupils.

Office lessons to pupils from the principal circulated through the school.

Typewritten work prepared for the principal for teachers' meetings, special conferences, answers to letters received from superintendent of schools, Board of Education, or other officials. All outgoing mail for the day closed at this time.

Recording pupil problems for the principal from her notes on their cases using principal's day book for problems solved within the school program; using the principal's problem book for cases where outside agencies are to begin solution.

A close follow-up with the principal on all pupil-teacher interests, problems, plans as directed by the principal in her conferences with class teachers, pupils, parents, and other agencies concerned.

2: 00- 2: 30 P. M. Clearing all requisitions and providing materials for classes on activities of the school rooms.

Working under the direction of the principal to carry out plans initiated by the class teachers.

Completing all unfinished items of the day. Checking the plan of the principal for the new day and future work.

2:30- 3:10 P.M. Special advanced art class. Pupils selected from grades 4, 5, and 6 for creative work in art.

EXCEPTIONS TO THE REGULAR DAILY PROGRAM OF THE TEACHER-SECRETARY

1. Visual education—*Tuesday*:

9:00-10:00 A.M. Balopticon. Subjects selected from units of work.

11:15-12:00 NOON. Balopticon or moving picture machine, units of work illustrated by children's prepared pictures or by material gathered through the efforts of principal, teachers, pupils.

1:00- 3:10 P.M. Motion picture machine. All subjects of study suitable to the course as outlined for grades 4, 5, and 6.

2. Program of tests and measurements:

Working under the direction of the principal in tests as needed in the school in cooperation with the program of the superintendent of schools and his Department of Service.

3. Emerson Parent Teacher Association:

Meeting second Thursday of every calendar month.

Teacher-secretary assists the principal in all arrangements for these meetings, receptions, or other occasions planned by the principal at that time with this group.

4. Class in adult education:

Meeting three mornings of the week in the school auditorium.

Teacher-secretary assists the principal in arrangements for their comfort and cooperates with the teacher of that class in providing all details as planned by the principal for the success of that teacher and her students.

Conclusion—The work of the teacher-secretary in the elementary school is proving very successful. In the plan outlined in the above article the teacher part received the first and stronger emphasis as a teacher of very versatile powers, and one in sympathetic understanding with the work from the kindergarten through the sixth grades, was the one selected for the new field. Her daily program was outlined to keep her in touch with teacher-pupil relations in a very definite way, the secretarial duties fitting in at the proper place but secondary to the personnel work. This emphasis is important to consider as the type of clerical work in an elementary school involves a great deal of child contact and it may be noted in the reading of this article how this sympathetic connection is maintained throughout the whole day in the work of the teacher-secretary. She is in reality the cooperative agent between the principal's plans and policies and their final working out in the school community.

The work of the teacher-secretary leaves the principal free to follow a constructive daily program and time schedule. Such a schedule would show the principal in active participation on all the human relations of the school from personal conferences with teachers, on to class teaching, special visitations, and all types of consultations. The principal is on call for all pupil-teacher needs throughout the entire school day.

A HANDBOOK FOR SCHOOL CLERKS

EDWARD J. KEHOE

Principal, Public School 187, Brooklyn, New York

EVERY SCHOOL principal has a very keen awareness of the importance of an efficient clerical staff. In schools where the clerical work is scientifically organized, where procedure is efficiently standardized, where there is a maximum degree of accuracy and a gratifying habit of promptness in the preparation and submission of reports, one is reasonably sure to find frictionless functioning of the school machinery as a whole, and harmonious relations between the head of the school and the administrative officials of the school system.

The clerk is the liaison-officer in bringing about this desirable condition of affairs. Unfortunately, she is not a robot, electrically controlled by push buttons in the principal's office. She is only human, and sometimes she is pushed too hard and breaks down under the pressure.

In the ordinary run of human affairs, the clerk comes in for a lot of appreciation when she is gone. While nature is striving to repair a shattered nervous system, the harried principal is endeavoring to patch up his battered clerical system—and for a simple reason—the system was too egocentric. In too many cases, only Miss X knew where this blank is kept and how you make out that report—and now that it is made out, what you do with it.

The need of a handbook—When the writer organized his school in September, 1923, he felt strongly the need of a handbook for clerks which should contain well-organized descriptions of clerical procedure. Usually, the efficient clerk has obtained this knowledge empirically. Through trial and error, she has experienced both the distress of failure and the satisfaction of success.

The writer preached to the clerks the absolute need of a handbook in times of emergency and its value at all times. But even the most inexperienced girl could point out the undoubted obstacles of describing office procedure in writing. It was not until we had twice gone through the harrowing experience of being without the services of both clerks at critical times that we determined to have a handbook, regardless of the labor that its writing entailed.

How the handbook was made—We began by noting every duty of the clerk, classifying each duty as daily, monthly, semi-annual, annual, and miscellaneous. We then carefully checked and re-checked to see that no activities or procedures had been omitted. Each activ-

ity was then described in some detail. When the work was finished it was shown to the district superintendent, Miss Lizzie E. Rector. She requested me to act as chairman of a committee of principals¹ of her two districts to go over the work again, with the view of preparing it for printing. It was hoped that the final report would give the schools a ready means of answering the questions to which only the absent school clerk could correctly respond.

Each member of the committee was given a copy of the whole report and was assigned a particular part of it to check, try out, revise, or enlarge.

The assignment of each committee member was then checked by the committee of the whole. When typed in its final form, the report was turned over to the writer. He spent several months arranging and rearranging, restating and clarifying the report as a whole, so that no possible ambiguity should remain in it. The aim was to make the book thoroughly practical.

As a further test, we assigned the task of making two major reports to two teachers who had had no previous clerical experience. With the proposed handbook as a guide, the results of their work fulfilled our most sanguine expectations.

We then turned the completed report over to the district superintendent. She examined the report minutely. The forms, especially, were all carefully checked in her office. To be sure it was as near perfection as human effort could make it, we went over the whole work several times together. The report was then given to several clerks of wide experience for further criticism. As a result of their suggestions, we made some further improvements. The work was finally printed and distributed to more than 600 schools of the city with the compliments of Districts 36 and 37, Brooklyn, N. Y. The district superintendent and principals of these two districts financed the project.

General description of the handbook—The handbook has been prepared in loose-leaf form so as to facilitate revisions and additions. The pages are written on bond paper seven by ten inches in size.

The first seven pages of the handbook are designed to make the contents most useful. The foreword indicates how the handbook may be used in training new clerks and in making experienced clerks more

¹ The committee consisted of E. J. Kehoe, Chairman, J. C. Bell, J. J. Burke, Constance W. Fuller, and D. D. Wallstein. School clerks assisting with the work were: Mrs. Ina F. Bell and Helen F. Lifander. The report was published with the encouragement of Lizzie E. Rector, District Superintendent, under the title, *Handbook for Clerks in the Elementary Schools*.

efficient. Three indexes are given: (1) alphabetical index, (2) topical index, and (3) index of reports. For example:

Alphabetical Index

	Page
Absence and Lateness of Teachers (A & R Form 91).....	13-14
Absence of Teachers 10 days and over.....	29
Absence and Lateness Chart for Teachers.....	38
Etc.	

Topical Index

Index of Daily Duties of Clerk

Attendance Sheets	8
Clerk's Blotter	7-8
Correspondence, etc.	6

Index of Monthly Duties of Clerk

Absence and Lateness of Teachers (A & R Form 91).....	13-14
Assignment and Reassignment of Teachers (A & R Form 100).....	13
Kindergarten Report	14

Index of Semi-Annual Duties of Clerk

Age Program Sheets	20-21
Alternates and Changes in Teaching Staff	21
City Record	21

Index of Annual Duties of Clerk

State Report on Service of Teachers.....	27
Summer School	27-70
Value Apparatus—Library, etc.	28-52
Etc.	

Index of Miscellaneous Duties of Clerk

Notes of Principal's Conferences.....	29
Notices (Women Teachers and Teachers Absent 10 Days).....	29
Permits Issued (Employment Certificates, etc.).....	29-31
Etc.	

Index of Supplies

Checking	48-49
Distribution	49, 50, 53, 54, 56
Fumigation of Books.....	51

The topical index and the index of reports are especially valuable means by which the clerk can check to be sure that all duties have been performed.

The rules and suggestions of the book include 56 pages. The main sections are organized around the clerk's work as follows: (1) Daily duties, (2) Monthly duties, (3) Semi-annual duties, (4) Annual duties, (5) Miscellaneous duties, (6) Files in common use, (7) How to order and use certain forms, (8) Ordering and checking supplies.

Specific descriptions of sections—Perhaps it will be helpful to committees in other cities if this article presents illustrations of the particular sections of the handbook.

1. *Daily duties*—This section contains treatments on (1) the time book or attendance of the teachers, (2) the mail, (3) the health list of children excluded, (4) the change of office registration of pupils, (5) the principal's correspondence, (6) truancy records and procedures, (7) the clerk's blotter or daily summary of pupil accounting, and (8) the methods of informing teachers of change in class rolls.

2. *Monthly duties* include such activities and methods as: (1) reporting to central authorities the attendance by classes on the M1 form, (2) reporting general attendance data on M2 form, (3) report of changes in staff assignment on A & R Form 1001, (4) report of attendance of teachers A & R Form 91, (5) kindergarten report, (6) special attendance report to district superintendent, (7) shop teacher's attendance, (8) telephone report, (9) report of names of teachers doing satisfactory service and deserving salary increases, (10) attendance report on ungraded classes, (11) report on continued service and permanent appointment of teachers, (12) make-up of payroll, (13) refunds for teachers, and (14) pupil report cards.

3. *Semi-annual duties*—Among these responsibilities are: (1) June and January report on teacher assignments, (2) age-progress sheets, (3) report to district superintendent of changes in the staff, (4) report of civil service employees, (5) records and reports of graduates, (6) report on handicapped children, (7) library report, (8) organization report for next term, (9) pre-registration, (10) teacher rating sheets.

4. *Annual duties* include the following: (1) state report on service of teachers, (2) summer school records and reports.

5. *Miscellaneous duties*—These activities consist of: (1) notes on teachers' meetings, (2) special notices on teachers' absences, (3) permits issued, (4) report on custodial service and cleanliness of building, (5) telephone, (6) general typing and mimeographing.

6. *Files*—The handbook includes a section of the necessary reports of the schools, together with suggestions as to filing procedures. Among the files listed are: (1) pupil address cards, (2) reports to auditor, (3) school blanks, (4) attendance records, (5) circulars, (6) conference notes, (7) correspondence, (8) discipline cases, (9) library cards, (10) pupil report cards, (11) statistical reports, (12) supply requisitions and receipts, (13) teachers' records and (14) truancy.

7. *Forms*—Several pages of the handbook are given over to a list of the school forms. This information includes the form number, the subject, and the place where forms may be obtained. For example:

Form No.	Subject	Where Obtained
200	Notice of Admission by Transfer	Bureau of Attendance
A	Application to Visit Schools	District Superintendent
RRS 52	Value of Supplies	Sent by Bureau of Reference, Research and Statistics

8. *Supplies*—The administrative and clerical duties associated with supplies are discussed under the following topics: (1) making up the supply order, (2) writing the requisitions, (3) receiving supplies on delivery, (4) checking supplies, (5) distribution to teachers, (6) disposal of worn-out books, (7) fumigation of books, (8) inventories, (9) sample cards and inventory sheets, (10) reports in connection with supplies, (11) stock records and inventory sheets. Figures 1 and 2 illustrate the forms included in the handbook along with detailed directions for ordering supplies.

How the book is being used—The book was hailed as a most progressive step in public school administration, as over 300 letters from superintendents, principals, and clerks will attest. These letters contained grateful acknowledgments, showing that the handbook, to quote from the Foreword, "filled a long-felt want." It is the inval-

uable *vade mecum* of good clerks and a guide for inexperienced clerks as well. Principals have found the handbook extremely valuable in the training of new clerks, thus relieving them of endless worry at times when a loss of efficiency is always expected and almost inevitably occurs.

FIGURE 1—SUPPLEMENTARY INFORMATION ATTACHED TO REQUISITIONS FOR SUPPLIES

P. S.	Brooklyn.	Date
Amount allotted for General Supplies and Books for 1927.....		\$3,629.55
Amount previously expended.....		3,322.93
Amount available		306.62
These Requisitions (No. 124-129).....		214.49
BALANCE		92.13
.....		
.....		
.....		

FIGURE 2—TEACHER'S INVENTORY OF BOOKS

Please list in alphabetical
order as follows:

1. Arithmetics
2. Dictionaries
3. Eng. & Grammar
4. Geographies
5. Histories
6. Music
7. Penmanship
8. Readers
9. Spellers

P. S. Brooklyn

Date..... Class.....

Full Title with Author	New	Usable	Old	Total
.....				
.....				
.....				
.....				
.....				

Please inventory desk and reference books on reverse side of sheet

The advantages and disadvantages of a handbook—The advantages of a thoroughly organized, detailed analysis of the work of the clerks

are so obvious that it is unnecessary to enlarge upon them here. Even a casual reading of the specific description of the main sections of the book will make clear the advantage of having the duties of the clerk set down according to a uniform method. It is possible, too, with a book of this kind, to divide the work when there is more than one clerk to a school, so that responsibility may be placed for the performance of specific duties.

There are disadvantages to a handbook, too. It is very difficult, for example, to make clerks of a certain type follow the definitely outlined procedure, as laid down in the handbook. They are so habituated to their own ways of doing things that they have a natural antipathy to what are sometimes referred to slightly as "efficiency" methods. Clerks of this kind just cannot accept the fact that there is always a better way of doing things. In many cases this feeling can be overcome by proper training.

Another disadvantage might be inferred from the loose-leaf structure of the book. A handbook goes out of date very quickly. Reports are changed, new ones added, bureaus move, personnel changes. A handbook which is out of date is worse than none. It is necessary, therefore, that someone be held responsible for the never-ending task of keeping the book up to date.

In cities where there is a Division of Statistics, this task might be left to that body. Necessary changes could be made and the schools supplied regularly with the revision sheets. The principal of the school should hold someone personally responsible for the insertion of the new pages and the destruction of the old ones, or their proper filing for necessary reference.

How a committee of principals can develop a handbook—The account of the making of this particular handbook and the description of the book itself, will no doubt furnish suggestions enough to any group of principals who may contemplate the making of a handbook of clerical duties.

It must be remembered that the making of such a book is a slow process. It must be a gradual development. It needs a driving force, infinite patience, a willingness to make innumerable changes, a readiness to take suggestions from any source, constant try-outs, repeated checkings, and a feeling of responsibility for the final product. Finally, a sustaining spirit of service and an ardent belief in the worthwhileness of the project are indispensable.

Recommendations—No attempt was made in the handbook to divide the work on the basis of two or more clerks. Such a division will be made in those schools which have the services of more than

one clerk. Where there are two clerks to a school, the following is suggested:

(a) A statistical clerk having charge of all records concerned with the statistical end of the work.

(b) A secretarial clerk in charge of payrolls and related data, supplies, correspondence and miscellaneous duties.

In those large school systems where a multiplicity of forms is used, the establishment of a central depository where all blank forms may be obtained is recommended.

It is sometimes difficult to define clearly certain clerical functions without a description of the accompanying administrative functions, *e. g.*, under the heading, "Supplies." Where the duties are partly clerical and partly administrative, it is recommended that the separate functions of clerk and administrator be appropriately defined and described.

The handbook for clerks is not to be accepted in any way as the last word on clerical duties in the schools. It was not conceived or written with the arbitrary aim of setting up absolute standards for the performance of clerical duties. The committee in the Foreword invited criticism of the work so that improvements might be made. Without doubt, many suggestions will result from a practical use of the book. However, the feeling is probably a justifiable one, that a work of this kind does open a vista of other fields of similar service which would add immeasurably to effective school administration.

WE HAVE some children who would like to float ethereally upon wings; there are others who would prefer to swing on long tails from the boughs of tall trees. There are those who by training can escape from the most alert attendance officers, and those who on their hands and knees can beg and play "Big Dick," "Little Joe," and "Naturals" for a pair of shoes as capably as the most hardened trooper.—Dale Curtiss, see Chapter XI

CHAPTER VII

SCHOOL ORGANIZATION PROCEDURES

INDIVIDUALIZATION

S. A. COURTIS

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THE ACTORS on the stage of life are seldom conscious of the significance of the parts they play. Each does what seems to him best in terms of specific situations and immediate results. But, taken as a whole and in relationship to each other, the aggregate of such specific acts ultimately is seen as a consistent pattern of development. The loom of the gods slowly fashions life's fabric from the warp and woof of our experiences, but only as a sufficient perspective is achieved in time may the basic design be perceived by man.

In education, we appear to have reached a period when the real significance of many diverse and specific acts performed in the past is beginning to appear. For instance, at present individualization of instruction is rapidly coming to the fore as a specific movement. In the past it has had its enthusiastic devotees, its slogans, its special methods, and all the paraphernalia which earmark fads and frills. Nevertheless, individualization there has always been, and individualization will remain after the transitory enthusiasm for it as a new panacea has run the usual course and been displaced by a new center of interest. Individualization as a movement, as an enthusiasm, as an educative experience, will wax and wane, but individualization as a large, basic, evolutionary tendency seems destined to occupy a prominent place in the enduring pattern of educational development.

By individualization of instruction is meant the adjustment of educational effort to the nature and needs of the student. One would hardly suspect that so simple a definition is so loaded with creative potentiality, but complete adjustment of school work to the nature and needs of individual pupils would completely revolutionize school buildings, textbooks, methods, marks, and every other aspect of educational endeavor. Indeed, revolutionary changes have already taken place because of the tendency toward individualization, and others are in process. Anything that may happen in the future can hardly be more surprising than the changes that have already taken place.

Consider, for instance, the changes with respect to corporal punishment. In 1845 in Boston, flogging of both boys and girls for whispering and similar academic sins was common practice. In the "good

old days," children were believed to be "conceived in wickedness and born in sin," inherently evil and incapable of good until regenerated by the ministrations of the church. Even then the evil of original nature kept cropping out as mischief or stupidity, the remedy for both of which was physical pain. By degrees public opinion rebelled. A people *free* from *royal* chastisement demanded a measure of freedom for their children as well. Pedagogues were thus driven to resort to other means for both teaching and punishment. A study of children was a direct result. Gradually interest and purpose replaced the rod as means of discipline, and today disciplinary measures are "individualized" to a degree that would have seemed miraculous to those Boston school masters who combined to defeat Horace Mann's strenuous attempts to abolish corporal punishment from the Boston schools.

So it has been all along the line. Today school buildings are constructed with rooms, lockers, equipment, and devices, adjusted by exact measurement to the sizes and needs of the pupils who use them. Textbook makers vie with each other to secure stories, pictures, and questions adjusted to the children's measured interests and levels of development. Administrators burn midnight oil, as well as devote many hours of daylight labor, in devising schedules, elections, sections, and courses to fit the diverse needs of the pupils to whom they minister. Sectioning on the basis of scores on intelligence tests has swept the country like wildfire. Curriculum revision has become a craze within the profession. Differentiated assignments follow logically from differentiated curriculums. Individual curriculums and individual standards apparently lie just ahead. The slogan "a child-centered school," tells the whole story in a single phrase. When we look back over the changes which have taken place in the administration of our schools, progress in education has had as its most evident characteristic a large amount of adjustment to differences in individual natures and needs.

Teachers no less than administrators have all unknowingly given expression to the general tendency in the changes they have made in their methods of procedure. The earliest adjustment was making provision for coaching, or special teaching. This adjustment was even raised to the dignity of a full fledged movement, and many there are who remember the discussions centering around the Batavia plan with its special coaching teacher in addition to the regular staff. Supervised study is another expression of the same tendency. With the invention of individualized lesson sheets, practice tests, and similar instructional materials, individualization proceeded at a more rapid pace. With instructional materials suitably prepared and administered it is possible for one teacher to direct the work of large masses

of children and yet permit each child to progress at his own rate and learn in his own way.

The development of self-instructive, self-corrective lesson sheets made possible the formulation of "individualization" as an ideal, and the movement for individualization formally launched at this time meant primarily the use of such devices. But individualization as a basic tendency includes more than the use of mere devices; it means *complete* adjustment of instruction to every type of individual difference.

That a similar development has been taking place in philosophy is further proof of this statement. Long ago Rousseau sounded a clarion note of protest against the restrictions imposed by society on the individual. With Pestalozzi began active experimentation designed to release children's natures, in capitalizing children's potentialities, experimentation which not only has continued to the present time but is rapidly gathering momentum. Today the "Dewey" philosophy with its emphasis on freedom, democracy, and the socialization of the individual is universally known, if not universally accepted. Certainly it has profoundly modified classroom practice around the world, as well as radically changed educational ideals. Who today would dare to claim he was teaching subjectmatter and not children? What many do not see, however, is that project method, activity curriculums, and all similar movements are but specialized attempts to make in teaching the same type of adjustments to children's needs and natures as those that have been made in administration.

Nor have we yet exhausted the channels of expression in which the fundamental tendency has manifested itself. In our day, the visiting teacher, the psychiatrist, and many new types of agencies exist to aid school authorities in analyzing the difficulties of the unadjusted child. Clinics and clinical workers not only increase in number, but multiply in types. Extra-curriculum activities, character education, activity programs all testify to the fact that the *whole* of child nature is seen from a larger viewpoint now than formerly. From physical and mental hygiene, through many new forms of educational effort and activity, to direct concern for emotional patterns, and social backgrounds, educators today are coming to know each individual as a unique, complex self. Some there are who boldly declare that the basic aim of education is not the acquisition of knowledge but the "integration of personality," or the development and organization of the child's complete nature around worthy and enduring purposes. For such persons, individualization is no mere teaching device, no

passing fad. It is a basic, fundamental ideal, unifying and coordinating many diverse activities, and expressing an ultimate goal in terms of simple, understandable, immediate objectives.

No one knows better than the busy administrator how difficult it is to reflect and plan while dealing with thousands of different types of situations, each demanding some sort of immediate decision. If one is not to be smothered by detail, exhausted by incessant executive action, and eventually defeated by the inconsistencies of his decisions, he must have as a guide a basic philosophy, a few great principles by which judgments may be made.

Individualization, or the complete adjustment of every type and kind of educational effort to the nature and needs of the individual child, is such a basic aim. *All day long* one's decisions may be as "child-centered" as one's educational thinking and planning are during the hours of comparative leisure. And day by day the ranks of those who believe in individualization are steadily recruited from those distracted superintendents, supervisors, and principals who, with no compass to guide, find only chaos in the welter of conflicting decisions they are daily called upon to make.

Individualization, of course, has its own unsolved problems and worries, but these become minor when once the general tendency of educational evolution has been consciously perceived and accepted. American education is wedded to mass instruction and low taxation. On first thought it would seem that no great progress could be made towards adjustment to individual needs until these social ideals change, but this does not prove to be true. Miss Parkhurst in the Dalton plan has given to all of us a new type of school organization which makes it possible to let masses of children pursue individual interests all day long and adjust their work and efforts to their own tastes and idiosyncrasies. Washburne at Winnetka, under public school conditions, has developed the concept of a two-way curriculum: one curriculum for the development of essential knowledges and skills under conditions where each child works at the level that is *best for him*, progresses *at his own rate*, and learns *in his own way*; the other curriculum for the social aspects of living, in which the benefits of the extreme Dewey philosophy of socialization, freedom, and self-expression may be secured without revolutionary overturning of conventional practices. And all over the world today more and more thousands of individuals are making other adjustments or combinations of these two plans, are inventing new devices and are developing new forms of organization. The emphasis upon individualization is steadily and rapidly increasing.

Each professionally minded administrator should ask himself "What do I *know* about individualization?" and "What can I do about it?" Fortunately, today there is a large and rapidly growing literature on the subject,¹ also magazines² devoted largely to fundamental principles. One has only to read and digest to become equipped with basic ideas and ideals. "Doing," however, is a different matter. It involves education of parents, teachers, self. Fortunately, here too the way is relatively easy. Most recently trained teachers will have been taught philosophies and methods more "individualized" than those held by their superintendents. Permission to experiment, and sympathetic guidance in experimentation will soon yield demonstration classes that may be used for training purposes. Fortunately, also, individualized schools are becoming so common that visits of inspection are easily arranged.

Few persons in positions of authority realize how much the expression of their interest and approval, or contrariwise, of their doubts and fears, influences the behavior of those in dependent positions. Many teachers study the superintendent's frowns and smiles as carefully and as anxiously as in the old days the courtiers of an emperor studied *his* preferences and moods. Any administrator, who wills, has the power, through public statement of interest, through sympathetic study of experimentation, through either personal or public recognition of success, to direct the course of progress among his staff into any channel he wishes.

The danger is that one will be biased in his observation by too narrow a vision. For, as has been pointed out, true individualization is more than skin-deep. It is more than an attempt to make the old education efficient by the use of new devices. It is truly a "new" education, with new ideals, new goals, new methods, and a new spirit. Many there are who see with eyes that are blinded by prejudice, who note readily evident defects, but who fail to recognize significant potentialities. Individualization is no simple, transient matter to be comprehended in a glance and judged in a jiffy. Its roots run deep into the past, its needs and its efficacy may be proved by mountains of evidence, psychological, sociological, philosophical. Its vigor is witnessed by the many progressive changes constantly being adopted even by those who are blind to the import of their own acts. No one can tell how long it will be before individualization "flowers," but able administrators everywhere are waking up to the possibilities of the situation and it seems probable that it will not be long before a new era in education will begin in earnest.

¹ See "Adjusting the School to Individual Differences," *Twenty-fourth Yearbook*, National Society for the Study of Education, 1926, Part II.

² Eg., *Progressive Education*, *Modern Education*.

ORGANIZING CLASSES FOR THE SLOW AND BRIGHT PUPILS

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THERE is still determined opposition felt and voiced by many school men and women to the segregation of children into groups according to mental ability. Yet this practice has justified itself in the judgment of so many school administrators that it has come to be an accepted procedure. Nevertheless, when one envisages the extremes to which the doctrine has been carried, the fetish that the I. Q. has become, the opposition is entirely understandable. This situation seems to make it worthwhile to discuss the question from the standpoint of the practical school executive who has watched the process for a number of years and has been forced to meet the difficulties arising from financial limitations, teachers not trained for the special work, and parents' objections.

The writer of this article has consciously avoided naming tests, quoting authorities, or trenching in any way on the technical side of mental measurement. Any principal can equip himself with a full bibliography of the subject and can cover as much or as little of the technical field as he chooses. It seems better to set down simple, every day experience and to try to evaluate the practical advantages of this type of organization. One of these advantages, the financial saving through cutting down retardation, has not often been mentioned though it is an excellent argument to use with boards of education.

Weaknesses of tests—In the judgment of the writer, the line should be sharply drawn between the reliability of standard tests as group measures and as measures of individuals. The use of the general intelligence test as a group measure and the organization of classes of bright, normal, and slow children as a result, abundantly justifies itself. However, these groups must be kept flexible so that individual pupils may be interchanged, if experience shows that they have been wrongly placed, or that natural development has made new grade placement desirable. We must recognize that the general intelligence test does not measure industry, perseverance, purpose, desire, liking for special subjects, and specific ability in different subjects. When a single test is used so as to limit a child's opportunity the practice is little short of criminal. A complete individual measure requires a full battery of tests and even then, since many children are by nature highly gifted in certain lines and rather backward in others, the resultant placement is a compromise unless the group is sectioned by ability in each subject. While this would be an ideal procedure, the

time and money involved make it impracticable for public schools until a marked change in the official attitude toward school budgets is brought about.

Who should give the test?—Unless the test is properly administered, it is better not to attempt it at all. This same consideration applies to the scoring, tabulation, and interpretation of results. If the school is near a university or a modern teacher-training institution the solution is simple. A group of students can usually be impressed to give tests and score and tabulate results. Lacking this help, the principal or one of the teaching corps must take the necessary training. He then, in turn, can train a group of teachers to do the scoring and tabulating.

Testing by teachers brings up the administrative problem of covering the classes of the teachers who are working on the tests, a problem which must be met by the individual principal as his resources permit. The alternative is an excessive burning of the midnight oil, which varies in its intensity as the size of the group to be tested. The natural query arises, "Is it worthwhile?" As an individual measure, unless the pupils are segregated by ability in each subject, it is highly doubtful; the possibility, if not probability, of wronging a child, of stunting one of God's creatures by imposing our rule of thumb measure, is too great to permit many of us to assume the responsibility. On the other hand, as a group measure, it has justified itself indubitably, morally as well as mentally.

Who are the bright pupils?—Probably, in the undifferentiated class, the so-called "normal" child suffers the least since the instruction is usually keyed to his capacity. The bright child suffers more morally than mentally. He is apt to grow cocksure, conceited, bored, intolerant of the "stupids," and to succumb to mental laziness, to neglect study. When placed in a class of his mental peers, he must stir himself in order to keep his standing. Frequently a child with a high I. Q. whose school marks have been low, is cured of his *laissez faire* attitude, when so placed; his comrades "force the pace," pride comes to the rescue, and his natural ability asserts itself. He becomes the student he ought to be and since there is incentive, rises to the height his original endowment demands.

The child who is most benefited by this segregation, is the "slow" child. It is an open question whether he should be called dull. He is not "book-minded" but frequently excels in lines in which the bright youngster cannot touch him. We of the schools are too prone to judge only on the book standard. Life does not always bear us out. If the slow child be given a curriculum fitted to his needs, including as it

must enough of the academic subjects to meet the demands of society, and be taught by the right person in the right way (the crux of the situation), failure will no longer be his portion. His self-respect will be conserved, confidence in his ability to succeed will be reestablished.

Testing the grouping—When a group has been organized on the bright, normal, and slow basis, the authenticity of the grouping can be proved by uniform tests. If results do not sustain the right relative standing of the classes a study must be made to find the cause and necessary reorganization effected. If the grouping has been made on the intelligence test only, as limited resources make necessary in so very many schools, then at promotion time or perhaps at mid-term, the grouping should be checked by school achievement ratings and the proper adjustments made. Whenever an individual child shows that he is wrongly placed—and teachers must be trained to watch for this contingency—he should be shifted at once, up or down as the situation demands, though no child should be dropped to the “slow” group whose I. Q. indicates higher ability, until the case has been investigated and the change justified.

Difficulties in grouping pupils—In the large school, with three or more classes to the grade, the problems are at the minimum and can be handled by the principal without much strain. In the small school, the situation is not so simple. If the numbers are sufficient to warrant two classes to the grade, it is better to organize a normal and slow class, thus securing the special treatment for the slower children whose need is imperative. Where but one class to the grade is possible, the question of dividing into groups within the class is an open one, depending very largely on the caliber of the teacher. If a teacher with vision, sympathy, intelligence, and the “will-to-work” is available, the experiment is a safe one.

Readiness to shift the groups as occasion arises must be recognized, and a different technic of the recitation devised, so that all types shall have the opportunity to share in the work. The socialized recitation brings out the leaders, soon indicating the organizers, those who “think straight.” This type, however, is apt to neglect the slower children, although occasionally the child we have thought slow and dull finds himself unexpectedly in the informality of the work and talks freely as he would never do in the usual formal lesson.

Another lesson procedure for a grouped class may be illustrated by a history lesson. Let us assume that a certain campaign in the Revolution is the assignment for the day. At the beginning of the period send three or four of the pupils who are best in drawing—these will often be found among the slower children—to the board to work

out the campaign with colored chalks. Then have a rapid quiz on the events leading to the day's work. Be careful to call on pupils of all calibers in this quiz, giving the more difficult questions to the brighter, the simpler ones to the slower pupils. Taking up the work for the day, so guide the discussion that the more abstract phases fall to those best able to cope with them and the simpler to the rest, but see that all, or at least that members of all three groups participate. Finally, by way of summary, send two or three pupils who express themselves fluently to the board, pointer in hand, to give the campaign connectedly, illustrating by the diagrams drawn at the beginning of the period. If there be time another rapid oral quiz may be given to clinch the facts of the assignment. In this type of recitation, all groups participate according to their ability, interest is maintained, results are obtained, the slow child does not feel himself a failure, is not hurt and discouraged. It predicates, however, careful preparation on the part of the teacher and a real knowledge of the differing capacities of the pupils.

Differentiation of the curriculum—Perhaps the greatest stumbling blocks to be encountered in ability grouped schools are the lack of wisely differentiated courses of study and the lack of trained teachers. Presumably both of these will come with time. In the meantime, one must do the best one can with the material at hand. The usual course of study has been planned for the so-called "normal progress" child. The principal is told to "modify" this course for the bright and slow child—much easier said than done. For the bright children, two methods are open: time-saving and enrichment. Unless a well considered Terman course has been formulated, the time-saving plan is probably the best. By this plan, the pupils cover the work of two grades in one term, or of three grades in two, usually saving a year or half-year in the process. The objection to this plan voiced by the senior high schools is the youth and consequent mental and social immaturity of the children entering the senior high. If a carefully made enriched plan is at hand it is wise to give this to the younger pupils, eliminating the time-saving element, while the older students follow the time-saving course.

The imperative need, however, is for good courses for the slow child. Curriculum making is much discussed but well considered curriculums for the dull normal, the non-book-minded child are exceedingly scarce. Curriculums which shall include the academic essentials for a successful social and economic life and the practical handicraft that will equip these children with a training permitting them to enter the trades in a semi-skilled capacity, a training which

by restoring confidence in their ability to succeed, even to excel, shall rebuild a self-respect destroyed by repeated failure. Until such courses are formulated the principal must do what he can to modify the course of study under which his school is operating. On the academic side, two considerations are important. First, the syllabus for each study must be scanned to decide which requirements are "links," necessary for carrying on through successive grades. These must be retained in order that intelligent continuity of instruction may be maintained. Secondly, it must be recognized that the slow child is concrete-minded. The more abstract phases of a subject must be eliminated; the dull normal does not, seemingly cannot, grasp them, and if expected to, simply loses himself in a confusion that engulfs practically all his book work.

Some authorities claim that no such modification is necessary; that the situation can be met by using an identical course of study but giving the slow child a longer time in which to master it. For instance, the slow class will be given a term and a-half, in extreme cases two terms, to cover one term's work. In the writer's experience, this plan is not justified. The governing factor for success is not time but the type of work required.

With these two limitations in mind, the question of quantity must be considered; not that these people cannot be given as much as the others if it is of the right type, but that a predominant part of the time should be given to handicraft in which these youngsters often excel and through which they may rise above the so-called "blind alley job" to a better economic level when they enter industry. In one school within the writer's knowledge, where this matter has been rather carefully thought through, 14 periods in a 35 period week are given to the academic essentials, the remaining 21 periods to physical training, personal hygiene, music, and the various handicrafts permitted by the school equipment. The question of equipment is basic and is the rock on which the whole scheme may be shipwrecked. Equipment for vocational training is expensive, more so than books, and calls moreover for specially trained teachers to handle it and to teach the various crafts; yet it is of great importance to the community at large that this group shall be sent out able to fill a fairly good economic niche instead of flooding society with large numbers of incompetents likely to become a burden on the public purse or to swell the ranks of our minor criminals. Until the people can be brought to see this as an economy as well as a social duty, and to back the financial authorities (or if necessary, to force them) in making adequate appropriations, the school's dilemma is serious. It is the old

question of making brick without straw, but as the brick had to be made, so must we face a necessity and find ways of at least partially meeting our difficulties.

Trained teachers necessary—The problem of adequately trained teachers is a very troublesome one, not only technically but temperamentally. This latter aspect has probably engaged the attention of few outside the practical school administrator, yet on its solution depends, to a considerable degree, the successful outcome of the work. The teacher who succeeds admirably with a bright class may wreck a slow group and the teacher who seems ideal in a classroom of "dull normals" is often in continual hot water with a "rapid" class.

The assignment of teachers to classes of the varying types requires much care and thought on the part of the principal. The whole situation with its underlying differences and distinctions in methods of handling must be made clear in conference, the civic significance of the slow group brought home to the teachers. If, especially at the start, teachers can be persuaded to volunteer for these classes so much the better. When, however, teachers look upon teaching them as an unwelcome task, it is not a bad idea to establish a rotation plan, each teacher taking her turn. Not infrequently the work itself grows upon a professionally minded teacher, the manifest value of the service she is rendering appeals to her, and she is willing to continue.

Equipment problems—If the school has no equipment except the ordinary academic supplies, segregation by ability may still be carried out to advantage though the results will not be as satisfactory. Experience teaches that the "slow" or "dull" child is not so much slow as maladjusted. The fault lies largely with the school. We are administering a single track curriculum to differing types of mind and blaming the child for failure, dubbing him "stupid," when the responsibility may fairly be placed on the school. The usual result is that the fifth and sixth years are loaded down with a group of children who are retarded three or four years, who dislike school heartily, and are merely marking time till the law permits them to enter industry, where they fill the ranks of the lowest paid unskilled workers. If there is opportunity for only academic work, still these children are much better off in a group by themselves. The ordinary objection that all incentive is taken from them when removed from the brighter pupils is more than counterbalanced by the fact that the deadly effect of repeated failure is also removed. They need not take more than one term to a grade (the very slow sometimes need two) if they are being fed the right mental pabulum; they form a group of about equal social maturity, and the younger children are protected

from what is often a bad influence for children of their age. When the simplified course is given to them patiently, slowly, by a correct methodology, and they find they can succeed, much of the dislike of school disappears and with it go many truancy and illegal working problems. To arouse in this group real desire to remain in school, actual ambition, the handicraft course is imperative.

New York City has found what promises to be an excellent solution. Recognizing that to equip each elementary school to deal justly by these slow students is financially unjustifiable, the Department of Education has handed the problem over to the junior high schools, whose differentiated courses make an industrial and commercial equipment necessary. Children who are thirteen years of age and have finished only the fifth school year are gathered from schools of the vicinity and placed in the junior high in what are called adjustment classes. The adjustment course covers two years, finishing when the pupils are fifteen and eligible for "working papers." Here they receive an academic training sufficient to make them eligible for certification for industry and a prevocational training that equips them for at least a semi-skilled job. It is amazing to watch the mental awakening and moral development of a group under this treatment. In the first term they often seem like little barbarians; but when the two years are ended, practically all are self-respecting, well-behaved, competent youngsters, ready to fill a niche on a decent economic plane and to recognize their individual civic responsibility. After six or seven years of this work, the writer sincerely believes that this is one of the most important services the junior high schools can render to the community.

These children are adolescent; they belong socially with adolescents. In the junior high school they find themselves so placed. The stigma of being overgrown, "stupid" pupils, doomed to stay with the little children, so destructive of self-respect and, *ergo*, of moral fibre, is removed. They assemble with their peers. They take certain subjects such as physical training, hygiene, music, and the trade subjects, departmentally as do the regular junior high students. In the handicrafts they frequently excel, doing decidedly better work than the bright. Their ego responds; self-confidence, self-respect develop; a practically new creature is born; the community has been presented with a civic asset instead of a liability. A word of warning is perhaps needed here. The "mental defectives" do not belong with this group. To place them in it is an injustice both to the dull normal and to the defective. The principal should jealously guard against this classification often advocated by those who do not understand the situation.

The effect on teachers of handling these classes is excellent. If they are made of the real professional stuff, one can see them grow in sympathy and tact; can see them develop the attitude of teaching the child rather than teaching the subject. No better illustration can be found of the teacher who starts to "teach English" and ends by "teaching Mary English."

How early should segregation begin?—Another question to be decided when organizing a school on the ability group basis is, how early shall segregation by ability begin? Many advocate the kindergarten as the proper place though that is open to question. Personally, this writer would not so group children before the third school year. With very young children, differences of environment—not necessarily poverty, though that often is strongly influential—differences in experience, differences of race and language, count heavily. Better to let the little child "find himself" in group life before subjecting him to intelligence tests. The wise teacher can and should watch development and adapt methods to the varying responses of individuals but actual classification is better deferred. If started in the lower grades, where one teacher handles the child in all subjects, to watch individual development is rather a simple matter; shifting from group to group, if found desirable, is easy.

In upper grades, under a departmental program, the question is more complicated. Here because of uneven development or differing natural capacity, one teacher may feel sure that a child is wrongly placed while others will disagree altogether. In such a case, the principal must decide what group of subjects shall govern; frequently, the so-called "majors" are used as the determining factor.

When starting departmental teaching the slow classes need special consideration. The change from the one teacher class to a system where each class comes under six or eight teachers is rather strenuous, especially for slow children. If these groups are organized as "still" classes, having one teacher for all the academic subjects and moving departmentally in the special subjects, the results are usually much better. After a year of this type of organization the pupils have oriented themselves, they are used to meeting varying personalities, and may then be asked to stand on their feet and take up a full departmental program successfully.

Conclusion—If the criticism be made that much space has been given in this article to elucidating a procedure already in common use, let me say that this is untrue. Considering how prominent this phase of educational discussion has been and by what great names in the educational field it is buttressed it is rather strange to realize

how many schools have rejected it. Since this rejection is based in most cases, in the writer's judgment, on the practical difficulties in the way rather than on a reasoned denial of the rightness of the procedure, it is hoped that this simple, non-technical exposition of what can be done will be of value; of sufficient value to stimulate any unwilling school executive to meet boldly the lions in the way and for the sake of the children in his care to do valiant battle.

THE child's fair share of betterment is not limited to instruction in the tools of learning, in the care of the body, and in the arts of living and of life. His needs make it desirable that he have, also, attractive and wholesome surroundings. So long as the wealth of the nation increases faster proportionally than the costs of education, the public should not grudge or withhold attractive and wholesome surroundings from its children.—Susan M. Dorsey, see Chapter II

AN EXPERIMENTAL CLASS FOR BRIGHT CHILDREN

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BRIGHT children usually constitute a small, but important, minority in public schools. Too frequently such children are accelerated through the grades and arrive in high school before they are socially or physically ready for such an environment. Where parents or school authorities frown upon acceleration, bright children often become disciplinary problems. Under typical classroom conditions, they soon complete assignments and develop into poor work habits. It is only natural that regular classroom teachers should busy themselves mainly in an attempt to push slow-minded pupils through the work of a grade. Bright children are consequently allowed to shift for themselves with a minimum of attention and guidance. Yet these bright children will furnish most of the leaders of the next generation. Afforded guidance and help they may become an asset whose value to society cannot be measured.

Convinced that our bright children should be afforded an opportunity to achieve maximum growth and development, the school authorities, in the late fall of 1928, granted us permission to establish an experimental class for superior children. Our school is situated in one of the better residence districts in the city and has a school population of 550 pupils, made up almost exclusively of Anglo-Saxon stock. Parents of the district, as well as teachers of the school, are interested in modern trends in education so it was felt that perhaps this school would afford a good starting point for work with bright children in the city.

Selecting the class—The teacher assigned to the class and the principal cooperated in developing the basic plan. This outline contains both procedures for selecting the members of the class and for teaching after the group was organized. All procedures were approved by the superintendent, assistant superintendent, and the staff of the Department of Research, in conference with the teacher and the principal. The plan adopted for selecting the bright pupils was as follows:

BASIC PLANS FOR BRIGHT CLASS

1. Only pupils from grades four, five, and six to be accepted.
2. A list of possible candidates from each grade was made up using:
 - a. Age-grade status.
 - b. Teacher's judgment.
 - c. Stanford Achievement Test (those testing above normal being eligible for further consideration).

- d. Group mental test.
- e. Stanford Binet Test given those whose G. I. Q. was 120 or over.¹
3. Before any child was definitely admitted as a member of the group, a conference was held by the principal with one or both of the parents. The principal, during the conferences, explained to the parents:
 - a. That their child was bright (the term "gifted" or "superior" was never used in talking with parents) and that, therefore, they should accept as a special responsibility, the furthering of the best interests of the child.
 - b. That this group was frankly experimental in organization, curriculum, and methods of teaching.
 - c. That an enriched curriculum and experience with normal advancement through the grades, rather than acceleration was the aim.
 - d. That care should be used at home to see that the child in question, his neighbors or playmates did not receive the impression that he was "bright" or "gifted" or in anyway different from other children.
 - e. That no child would be accepted in the group whose parents were not in hearty accord with the plan. It should be said here that parents have been most cooperative and have in no instance, broken their side of the agreement.

Quarters and equipment—A large well-lighted room, somewhat larger than an ordinary classroom was set aside for the use of the group. It was furnished with individual tables and chairs, extra sandtables, two large flat tables for activity work, and an extra book case or two. Later a typewriter was donated by a parent. Otherwise the equipment and instruction materials were the same as those available in any classroom.

Procedure in conducting the class—The Dewey philosophy of education as interpreted by Kilpatrick was the basis of all our procedure with the class. We have attempted throughout the school, and particularly in this group, to see that each child is able to live naturally, happily, and freely; that he has an opportunity to develop his special abilities and interests; that he is helped to acquire a mastery of those skills and knowledges essential to intelligent participation in the affairs of the world of men; and that he is aided in developing a growing sense of ethical values and a social sympathy which is both deep and broad.

With these ends in view, we constructed an outline of procedure (See Chart I) based upon four types of work—information, activities, creative work, and appreciation. There has been no attempt to strictly differentiate between these types of work—one grows naturally out of another as the need for it arises.

In carrying on these four types of work the plan was somewhat as follows:

1. *Information, or tool subject mastery*—Arithmetic computation, spelling, and handwriting were carried on, on the individual assignment or contract plan.

¹Thirty pupils were finally chosen for the first experimental class. The highest I. Q. was 158, and the median 135. This year the median was slightly higher.

Each child accepted his contract, worked on it individually, secured whatever aid was necessary from the teacher and "checked out" with a test on the material mastered before proceeding with the next unit.

2. *Activities*—Activities centered around the central unit or activity for the year, but were not limited to this material. Individual children becoming interested in some phase of their work not connected with the central unit, constructed projects, took excursions, and performed experiments individually and in small groups, with the aid and advice of the teacher.
3. *Creative work*—Individual self-expression was encouraged, and secured, in art, literature, and to some extent in music (see second half of Chart I). The children became extremely interested in the study of California, and individually wrote pageants depicting the phases of the development of the state from the Indian to our present complex civilization. The class decided which parts were best in each pageant, enacted these as a unit, and later wrote a pageant on California which they presented before the entire school. This was in a sense the culmination of the work of the semester, some phases of which took long and detailed study before the group was convinced that they really understood the situation sufficiently themselves to make a presentation of it to the rest of the class or the school. For example, about a month was spent upon the detailed study of the California Yosemite and Digger Indians, their habits, language and customs, until many of the children could decipher and write phrases in the Indian sign language.
4. *Appreciation*—Here work was largely incidental to, or an outgrowth of, activities centering around a central unit. (See Chart I.)

As far as possible, the work of the class, whether as a whole or in groups was in charge of pupil leaders, selected by the class and responsible to the group, with the teacher on the side lines as a coach or advisor. Leaders presented their plans to the group, making them as worthwhile as possible. The group would then offer suggestions, and constructive criticisms, on the plans until the final program was decided upon, and then all fell to with a will to secure the consummation of the project. Leaders sometimes failed in the eyes of the pupils and changes were made, so that almost every child had an opportunity at leadership at one time or another. These activities developed in the children, initiative, responsibility, tact, and ability to defend in effective and well chosen terms their ideas and plans.

The group made its own rules of conduct and procedure, and enforced them by social approval and disapproval. In visiting the class one was impressed by the freedom of the group, which was accompanied by a spirit of order and purposeful activity.

Results of the experiment—The experiment has proved very conclusively to us the necessity and value of special class instruction for brilliant children. Lack of space precludes any lengthy citation of the results of the experiment in furthering the growth and development of individuals (which of course is the real test of any such experiment), but here is one interesting case:

Kenneth, a lad of nine with an I. Q. of 143, came into the class from a high fourth grade, where he was failing in arithmetic, and barely passing in reading. He is the youngest child in a family of two, from a wealthy home, waited on "hand and foot" and was unable at this age to dress himself completely. He possessed no sense of the value of time, achieved little or nothing the first month or so and cooperated poorly with the group. The change was remarkable. This same lad at the end of the semester achieved high fifth grade standards in arithmetic and low eighth grade standards in reading. He became a popular member of the group, is now able to take responsibility, sees the value of work well done and does it, is independent in his achievements at home and school and is in short a different boy.

The academic achievements of this experimental group are perhaps best illustrated by the results of Stanford tests in arithmetic and reading. These tests were given to the class as the group was first formed and again at the end of the spring semester.

The median grade arithmetic score in the February, 1929, test was 6.2 and the mean score was 6.3. An alternate form of the same test given in May, 1929, showed a median score of 7.5 and a mean score of 7.4. The median reading score in February was 7.0 and the mean score 7.3; while in May the same indices were both 8.1 respectively.

CHART I—OUTLINE OF PROCEDURES IN THE OPPORTUNITY CLASS

	Arithmetic	Spelling	Reading	Language	Social Studies
Information	Master individual assignments of work based on achievement.	Master individual spelling lists (for pupils at or below norms). Those above are excused.	No formal work except in individual cases.	Occasional lessons in language usage.	Cotton : History Growth Manufacture Products Uses.
Activities	Measure and figure for projects. Handle class funds and school thrift bank.	Master list of misspelled words used in written work.	Dramatization of stories. Make puppet plays of stories.	Write poems. Adapt and write plays. Put out bi-weekly paper. Correspond with foreign children via the Red Cross.	Pick cotton. Grow cotton. Visit a gin. Construct a replica of cotton plantation.
Creative Work			Submit reports on all books read, in and out of class. Keep list of reading done.	Originate plays, poems, puppet shows and a pageant on cotton.	Make a gin. Weave and dye cloth. Make paper. Other projects.
Appreciation	Neat, accurate work. Know value of arithmetic in life.	Develop pride in correctly spelled written work.	Develop an appreciation of good stories and poems.	Constructively criticize own and others oral and written work.	A developing knowledge and appreciation of value and uses of cotton to man.
Tests	Tests on units of work. Woody-McCall tests each semester.	Standardized test monthly. Those passing these tests excused until next test.	Progress standardized tests monthly.	Occasional language usage tests.	Occasional tests on factual material.

These results show that on the average, the children in this group, gained a year's progress or over in both arithmetic and reading, in slightly less than a semester of actual work. The greatest individual gain in arithmetic was 1.8 years, and in reading 2.2 years in one semester.

Such results, we find, tend to allay the doubts of over anxious parents who are afraid that so much "freedom" and individual progress may lead to poor work habits in the fundamentals (which were stressed when the parents were children and which they many times still feel are the most important parts of an elementary education).

It is generally conceded today, that the thinking and activities involved in the planning and working out of a project are more valuable educationally, than the end results of such activities. Yet end results have their value. They represent plans followed through and not dropped in favor of some "greener pasture" at the side of the road.

Our experience leads us to feel, that end results, in the form of projects completed, are one of the chief justifications for the continuation of such groups as the one being considered.

CHART I—OUTLINE OF PROCEDURES IN THE OPPORTUNITY CLASS (Continued)

	Nature Study and Science	Music	Art	Writing	Shop	Physical Education
Information	Atmosphere, Gases, Temperature, Pressure, Winds, Weather, Flower garden.	Adapted course of study.	Course of study and work incidental to other subjects.	Course of study. Exchange teacher. Individual progress.	Based on class-room needs and activities.	Inspection. Health education. Games 30 min. daily.
Activities	Experiments about air. Each child to bring a plant or animal to school to raise. Raise sweet peas.	Music for assemblies and entertainments. Make simple instruments. Harmonica band.	Drawing for all projects. Also painting.	Typewriter. Manuscript writing.	Construct articles used in projects. Make a frame for bank and puppet show.	Combined period with rooms 15, 16, and 17.
Creative Work	Visit the weather bureau.	Compose simple tunes & melodies.	Make, design & paint settings, & costumes.			Develop poise and good posture.
Appreciation	Appreciation of the great importance of air to all life.	Appreciation lesson weekly. Know good music.	Appreciation lesson weekly. Appreciate good art.	Develop appreciation of legible writing & its value in life.		Develop social consciousness; ability to work with others.
Tests				Monthly test of script for speed & quality.		

Among the projects carried through to successful completion by this group during one semester were:

1. Three large books on California illustrated and in two cases typewritten by the groups working on them
2. An Indian village, the outcome of a study of California Indians.
3. Ten or twelve "Pageants of California," written by individuals, the best being worked into a community pageant by the entire class
4. The above pageant, depicting the history of California, presented in costumes (made by pupils) to the entire school
5. Scenery for the pageant constructed and painted by the group
6. A sand table project depicting the entire raisin industry from vineyard to packing plants
7. Poems and songs to fit this pageant and other occasions were written by members of the group.

A poem illustrative of creative work woven around a central unit of work.

CAN YOU IMAGINE?

Can you imagine when gold was discovered
And people came rushing in,
By two's and four's, six's and ten's
In slow schooners' noisy din?
Can you imagine how tired they were,
After their journey across the plains
Through winter weather bleak and cold
And summer's heat and rains!
Can you imagine how glad they were
When fathers found a treasure?
Then, they could live in comfort and ease,
And drudgery changed to pleasure.
Can you imagine how sad they were,
When they failed in their quest for gold,
When their daily supplies ran low
And the children were hungry and cold?
Can you imagine the joy and shouting
When California became a State?
The events as they happened since
Have made California famous and great.
(Paula Park, age 10 years)

Summary and conclusions on our experimental class are as follows:

1. Bright children are not given the attention in school, as a rule, that their future importance to society warrants.
2. A method of selecting pupils for special classes for superior children is given in this paper—including the testing necessary and plan of approach to parents.
3. Plans of procedure, after the class has been organized, are outlined, and results of one semester's work, measured objectively in the case of academic subjects and judged subjectively in the case of values not subject to objective measurement are given.

4. Conclusions formed as a result of our experiment are in part as follows:

a. All children should be given Binet test before being accepted into such a class.

b. As far as practical place responsibility for conduct of the class in the hands of the pupils, with teacher as guide and advisor.

c. Provision should be made for developing a variety of interests and abilities in the pupils.

d. Children should be taught to know where and how to find the information they desire.

e. Work in all subjects should be woven around one or more central units or projects.

THE criminally inclined child is often kept in the school and in classes with good children. He is allowed to move freely among the children of the school hoping that he will improve and that no one else will be hurt. It is extremely doubtful if real moral delinquents are helped by this mild treatment and the ignoring of their misdemeanors. It is certain that good children are frequently made recruits in crime while principals and teachers are lulled into forgetfulness.
—Martin W. Cox, see Chapter XI

CLASSES FOR ORTHOPEDIC CHILDREN

JESSIE M. SHEDD

Principal, John Williams School, Rochester, New York

THE JOHN WILLIAMS SCHOOL was chosen, in 1920, for the orthopedic classes because of its central location. Also, since a new building was to be erected for this school the type of equipment which a cripple school should have could be more easily provided. The plan was to bring the children in buses to a central site thereby saving transportation expenses. The school started with no preconceived ideas of what should be embodied in orthopedic classes. The plan was to work along meeting emergencies and making decisions when the need arose. This article is being written with an experience of nine years behind it.

Orthopedic classes in the regular school—Orthopedic children were usually found to be diffident because of their infirmities and the subsequent tendency to keep them in the background. It was our belief that placement with normal children might overcome this feeling of inferiority and help in the first social adjustments.

The school was organized with 13 children, and from the first these children were fitted into the regular platoon organization. The essential difference was that the orthopedic cases were studied in one grade room with their own teacher, although they did share the special subject teachers of the regular school. This policy has been followed with the growth of the school and the manual training shop, the practice house and the assemblies are the common property of both normal and orthopedic children.

We have experimented a little with the size of grades and have found that ordinarily the grades may approximate typical class size. The exceptions have been in classes where many spastic or wheel chair cases have to be in the same room. To avoid interruptions we send one-third of the grade out for exercises at one time. In this way a teacher may teach under more satisfactory conditions than she could if the special treatments called individual pupils out every few minutes.

The orthopedic department has been placed on the third floor of the most uptodate, fire resistant, school building in Rochester. Special elevators have been provided. The types of rooms provided include: classrooms, physiotherapy rooms, rooms for the Alpine lamp and "baking" treatments, clinic room with its dressing spaces, rest rooms, dining room, kitchen, and a roof. The roof was designed for both recreational purposes and rest periods.

Advantages of our plan—One person supervising all departments of the school can make adjustments and arrange contacts for pupils which could not be done under divided authority. In this school, the principal has direct charge and supervision of every type of work done in the building.

It was felt that when the right time came, children who had finished the high sixth grade and who could be dismissed from the school should go on to the regular junior high school. There is a personal enthusiasm which comes from a large junior high school which could not be felt in a smaller specialized group. There is an economy too, for the junior high schools have well equipped shops and highly trained shop teachers. It would be duplicating these points to have shops and expensive vocational teachers at our school.

Usually there is a large group whom the doctor allows to attend junior high school each term. Most of our orthopedic cases become a vital part of the higher school. Almost without exception they become honor students. In the shops they begin to show the direction in which their talents lie.

We feel that through the grades the orthopedic children should receive the school training that a normal child receives. He should go through high school to college if the mental ability is there. But our plan does not permit the crippled child to go into vocational work until a good educational foundation has been laid. The children who are not ready for junior high are kept in our seventh and eighth grades, where they are given new experiences in the manual training shop and the domestic science practice hours.

Admission procedures—The child's name comes to the principal by telephone or by letter from many persons, particularly doctors and hospitals. A home call is made to find out the physical and the mental condition of the child. We do not take subnormal children because of lack of facilities, although we have many who approach the border line. A list is kept of all applicants, for admission may be granted at a later time.

An applicant of normal intelligence is brought to the school clinic which is conducted by two outstanding orthopedic surgeons. If the child is accepted, the physicians make a complete diagnosis and school record. The physician advises the physiotherapist as to rest periods, exercises, use of Alpine lamp, and other physical equipment.

The health folder or file on each case includes sheets giving the history of the case, the family history, X-ray, operative sheets, hospital care, directions for shoes and braces, and usually pictures which show the child before and after operations. The folder also includes

the mental tests given by the school psychologist. The child is assigned to a grade room and so begins his life in the orthopedic department. The length of his stay is determined by the surgeon. When all is accomplished in the way of corrective work, the pupil is returned to his own school. The time may be a few months or stretch into years.

Types of cases—It may be of interest to give the classification of diseases treated in this school:

Infantile paralysis	Tubercular bone
Congenital spastic	Spinal meningitis
Rickets	Little's disease
Club feet	Pott's disease
Accident cases	Sinus infections
Congenital hip dislocation	Hydrocephalus
Knock knee	Osteomyelitis
Arthritis	Tumor
Spinal curvatures	Ankylosis of hip

An interesting phase of the work has been the study of spastics. It was thought at one time that a spastic was practically incurable and that he was necessarily mentally defective. A study covering a period of four and one half years has been made along these lines. About 90 children have been studied. A part of the number belong to this school and a part are the private patients of a physician who has been in touch with both groups. The school group which had had operative procedure and whose members came directly back to school for the physiotherapy work have shown satisfactory and lasting results in comparison with the group which had not received daily care. We have found, too, that these children are not mentally deficient. While our study is not complete we have gone far enough to know that spastics are not below average mentally because of the spastic conditions.

Cooperation with outside agencies—The clinics of the hospitals are at our disposal and all types of follow-up work are done at these places. An organization known as "Aides for Crippled Children" gives cars and service for the clinic work. This organization numbers 50 women and it does much to make our orthopedic procedures effective.

A convalescent home for orthopedic children is maintained by the Community Chest and to this hospital are sent operative cases for recuperation. Two full-time teachers, working under our direction, are assigned to this hospital.

The children are in camp (supported by the Rotary Club) for nine weeks every summer and the Board of Education maintains a teaching force of two grade teachers and one physiotherapist at the camp.

Mornings are devoted to school work with all the contributory subjects. This camp is in connection with our regular school and makes us practically a twelve-month school.

Social contacts are made through the Girl Scout and Boy Scout organizations. It may be of interest that two of our troops were the first in the world for crippled children. We have also dramatic clubs.

Orthopedic technics applied in regular classes—All children in the school, other than orthopedic cases, are tested by the health teachers for posture or any other orthopedic defect. Those with minor defects are re-examined by the orthopedic surgeon and with his approval a class is formed for corrective work. The group meets every day and uses the equipment of the orthopedic department. At the close of the term the physician again examines the children and makes further recommendations. In this way we are making a double use of equipment and saving many children from serious orthopedic trouble.

Summary—Since the organization of the school 476 different children have gone through our clinic. Not all of these children have been accepted for membership in the school. We have had 210 operative cases. The enrolment of the school is usually around 130.

It is hard to measure attainments in such an organization, but the work seems to be well worthwhile. Children who came to us in an entirely helpless condition are now in senior high or in technical schools. Their bodies are built up, they have alert minds and they are ready now, or soon will be ready, to be self-supporting. Who can measure the value of helping a diffident child become a self-respecting citizen?

PRESIDENT HANSEN'S message on page 137 should be read by all principals' associations. Groups interested in making contacts with other cities should refer to the lists given in Part III.—Editorial Committee

THE EDUCATION OF PUPILS IN SPECIAL CLASSES

NORA A. MATTHEWS

Principal, Sheldon School, Grand Rapids, Michigan

OUR PUPILS have many individual differences and abilities. That statement has been proven many times by the experts employed to examine and to measure our children. Now we should provide the treatment that is commensurate with the differences so expertly revealed. In other words, the individual child is not benefited by the diagnosis, if the proper treatment is not given.

We believe that there are two good reasons for organizing the classes for the definitely sub-normal children. First, to place them in an environment where they would be happy and useful, and where a general integration can be maintained and right adjustment made in spite of certain distracting and disintegrating factors.

The second need for classification of the subnormals is for the proper development of the normal and superior children. These latter children are in danger of becoming mentally lazy if obliged to mark time with slower children. In his book, *The Normal Mind*, Burnham says that children may suffer from lack of stimulation as well as overstimulation.

The general principles cited above are now receiving widespread acceptance as applied to all types of atypical children. That is to say, the deaf, the blind, the crippled, and other atypicals need to be drawn aside in special classes for a portion of the school day. In these special groups they can be given expert attention in terms of individual needs. Meanwhile the typical children move ahead at their own pace. In the subsequent paragraphs various kinds of special classes will be discussed as they have operated successfully in the schools of Grand Rapids, Michigan.

Special classes in Grand Rapids—For several years our school system has been well organized for meeting the needs of children who are physically and mentally handicapped. In several of our schools, where the work has been well-organized, the treatment of these children has been very successful. Our special class department for the year 1928-29 included: auxiliary classes for subnormal children; ungraded classes for the pedagogically retarded; open air classes for pupils who are under par physically; sight-saving classes for the partially-sighted; Braille classes for the blind and near blind; orthopedic classes for the crippled and cardiac cases; and speech correction classes for children with defective speech. The speech teachers also work with a few cases of the maladjustment of other types.

There are also coaching teachers in 25 buildings who work with children who might otherwise be failures due to illness, frequent changes of residence, special disability in one or two subjects or personality difficulties; two visiting teachers do part-time coaching and work in cooperation with the department. Table I shows the types of classes in operation in the Grand Rapids school system.

TABLE I—TYPES AND ENROLMENT OF SPECIAL CLASSES IN 1928-29

Type of class	No. teachers	Net enrolment	Average enrolment
Auxiliary	20	437	25.7
Open Air	10	300	30
Orthopedic	4	82	27.3
Sight-saving	7	111	15.8
Braille	1	10	10
Ungraded	15	472	31

The total number of pupils handled by full-time and part-time coaching teachers for the first semester was 2920 and for the second semester was 2824. The five teachers who gave their entire time to speech correction worked with 953 children during the year. The speech teachers handled 200 cases.

In the auxiliary department the classes are generally small because of the type of child that is taken care of in that department. In accordance with the general policy of increasing the teacher's load, the average enrolment of the auxiliary classes has increased.

The number of ungraded rooms has decreased because of the organization of the Junior Vocational School, which was opened in September, 1927. There are only one half as many coaching teachers this year as last year. The number of open air and orthopedic rooms has increased, and the sight-saving and schools for the deaf has remained about the same.

How the classes operate in different schools—Several principals have given the writer a summary of their experiences with special class work.¹ In one building a plan in arithmetic was worked out in their ungraded room in which the pedagogically retarded child in the fifth and sixth grades after two years of training was able to enter the seventh grade and compete with the child of average ability. The material was based upon Thorndike's *Exercises in Arithmetic*, a series of five books. There were 14 goals, each representing a definite amount accomplished. Steps were worked out progressively so the child could measure his own growth by his ability to do the

¹ The writer is indebted to several principals and special class supervisors for the data presented in this section.

work as it was presented for each successive level. There were a series of tests for each level, a test for each goal, each representing comprehension, analysis, reasoning, speed, and accuracy. The average number enrolled in this class was 23 children.

Objections have been raised on account of the low number enrolled. Many consider that it is expensive to have such small classes. But it should be understood that the number of repeaters is reduced by this method. Each child finds his own rate of speed and travels accordingly, thereby eliminating the so-called "slow" pupils who drag along for another semester. Considering all these things, we cannot say it is expensive to guide 23 pupils into correct, mental habits, attitudes, and appreciations. Under the plan described above the pupil at the beginning of his difficulty is properly placed. He develops abilities at a rapid rate, and attitudes of intensive control, by working towards a definite goal. The individual is thus taught to evaluate intelligently and to choose independently, which are two of the most worthwhile abilities in life.

The following is one principal's estimate of the so-called coaching work:

No service rendered in the public schools today is needed more than this service of assistance to the classroom teacher, whereby any child who is unable to keep up with the group with which he naturally belongs, on account of illness or any other causes, may be saved from discouragement or failure. In this city and other cities, there has been developed a most efficient diagnostic attack upon the problem. There is a special teacher whose particular task it is to assist these burdened teachers with individualized methods of procedure. Such service has become almost indispensable in any progressive system where the patrons and administrators are vitally concerned in the growth of the child, rather than in that of acquiring mere facts, far remote from the child's actual needs. The procedure arrives at a diagnosis of the most needy cases in each room by giving mental and educational tests. The remedy can then be applied where it is most effective.

Observation in several schools shows that group work is organized around similar individual needs. Those needing drill on number combinations, multiplication, or some other process in arithmetic, are better served in these smaller groups, where the much need repetition can be secured. In reading, pupils who may belong to the class of non-readers, are often brought up from second to a higher grade level in a short time, and this saves a pupil from failure in all other work. If phonics have failed to help in making independent readers, once more the coaching teacher is indispensable for the extra drill and practice which cannot be given with the larger class in the regular classroom.

In one particular district, where the type of foreigner is that of the slower mentality, the value of the coaching teacher cannot be esti-

mated in mere dollars and cents. It has meant saving many a child from failure and misunderstanding, and has given a new lease on life to those who would have lost out on account of illness.

The coaching teacher has also been most valuable with children who could be accelerated, but to whom enough special help could not be given by the regular classroom teacher. This phase of school work has greater possibilities than are being generally recognized in school systems where this service is not given. For example, in one school more than 150 cases each year are helped individually. In many instances these cases have been helped in more than one subject. It is difficult to figure the percent of promotion which has been saved by coaching, but there has been a perceptible falling off of the number of pupils failed. Many pupils have been placed on the trial list instead, and have made good. Twice within four years, two half grades have been accelerated through the assistance of the coaching teacher. When an unusually bright group has been so unfortunate as to get moved along with an especially poor group, it has been of inestimable help to be able to give the extra attention to the brighter group so that they might not be retarded by the slower children. This practice seems much fairer for both groups, giving each of them an opportunity to develop at its own rate of speed.

Within the limits of any city, there are areas where the problems of the public school teacher are many times more difficult than in other sections. Any district of foreign parentage, presents a sociological problem, requiring much individualizing of effort in any type of instruction. With the massing of populations in cities, heavy burdens are thrust upon the teacher who is forced to attempt to teach all the fundamentals of modern education to almost half a hundred "wiggling Americans."

One school, faced with the language difficulties of a foreign population, had solved the problem through coaching work. Even foreign children, with high mental ability, often require special attention. A summary of the work in this particular school is as follows, *subjects coached*: reading, language, arithmetic, and spelling; *number coached*; 80 to 100, not including speech work which was taught by another teacher; *values*: individualized diagnosis, remedial instruction and a study of the child in relation to home and school; *objectives*: child senses weaknesses, desires to correct same, gains success, and competes successfully with the group.

Special classes in the Sheldon School—We were one of the first schools to see the need of ungraded work for those children who were not up to grade in some subjects. Although we were in a small

building of only eight rooms, we organized an ungraded class with an enrolment of 20 children, including both grammar and primary pupils.

After the completion of our new building of 16 rooms, we started with a grammar and primary ungraded, grammar and primary auxiliary, and a speech teacher two hours each day. This large number of special class children was due to the absorption of a school in the railroad district, where rent was cheap, but houses so poor that the people moved often. At that time our original district was receiving large numbers of Sicilians who were moving into houses that had been made over for two or more families.

In a period of 10 years our enrolment of Sicilian children has increased from two families with five children, to 60 families with a total of 150 children. Added to these in the past five years are several Syrian families with 45 children. The numbers increased so fast that our boundary lines have been changed three times in the past six years in order to relieve us. Our average enrolment for the past four years has been 560 pupils.

We have 555 enrolled so far this year. Since our first enrolment in September, we have received 52 children by transfer, 30 being from our city schools and 22 from the country or other cities and towns. The majority of these transfers need individual help for at least a short time. Pupil differences are due to the flexibility of our city course of study as well as to differences in outside schools where pupils do not advance at the same rate in any grade. Children entering the high fourth grade may not have had the first steps in long division, or in the low fifth grade, any fraction work. Again, some teachers take a longer review than others before starting the new work. We find the same difficulty in history and geography, as there is no uniformity in the topics taken first. The writer does not mention this as adverse criticism as it is often desirable to take up topics in the order in which the group is interested, and some groups need more review than others; but it does present problems to the grade teacher which call for individual attention. We have lost by transfer in the same length of time 36 children, 10 moving outside the city and 26 to other city schools. Doubtless these children need help in properly adjusting them to their new surroundings.

Of the 45 children enrolled in our auxiliary and ungraded groups, 16 have entered this year from other city schools or outside the city and state. In our highest room of 36 pupils, only 13 began their work in this school. Forty-two percent of these children have foreign born parents who speak very little, if any, English.

We have gradually decreased the special class work, until during the past four years we have managed to get along with one primary ungraded and one combined grammar and primary auxiliary. Now we depend on a full-time coaching teacher to help the grammar ungraded children so that they may be enrolled with the children of their own chronological ages. We have had no help in speech work for over six years as that department has not been sufficiently extended to care for all the buildings.

In my estimation of special classes, the coaching work, if properly organized, is the type most beneficial for either retarded, normal, or superior children. The handicapped children may thus be enrolled with children of their own ages, where their social development may be enhanced by being associated with normal children in the activities of the group, while their academic needs may be taken care of by the coaching teacher. Likewise for the accelerated children, the curriculum of academic subjects may be enriched by the coaching teacher.

Last year by giving coaching help in arithmetic to groups of about 16 second and third grade children, who were superior in other subjects, they were enabled to skip a half year and are among the best in their classes this year. Coaching help was also given 15 of the accelerated children in the first grade and 12 of them were accelerated a half year and are doing good high second-grade work this year.

This year the Sheldon School has been allowed a coaching teacher only half-time. We have not been able to do anything for the accelerated children except to classify them as nearly as we can according to ability, and this is difficult to do with two grades in a room. Most of our coaching has been given in arithmetic from the third to sixth grades inclusive. We try to keep the number in each group small enough to give the individual attention needed, and this necessitates constant shifting as newcomers and sickness make it necessary for more individual help. We have one group of 15 sixth grade pupils, mostly children of foreign parents, who are receiving extra help in oral and written English.

Case studies in coaching work—The next paragraphs include a summary of the work being done in arithmetic by our coaching teacher, together with some case studies in reading formerly made by her:

Coaching in arithmetic usually means finding a different type of disability in each individual. Unless a child lacks number sense entirely, he can be helped out of his difficulty in a comparatively short time. We started in September with 62 pupils in arithmetic in coaching classes, ranging from third grade to sixth grade inclusive. Of these, 30 have been excused and 37 others have been taken on.

No matter how efficient a first grade teacher is, there are always from five to ten pupils who do not get much of an idea of what reading means the first semester. It may be because their attendance has been broken into by sickness, or no English is spoken in the home, or it may be because they are timid and do not respond to mass instruction. Perhaps one is motor-minded and does not learn readily through the eye and ear. If, at the beginning of the second semester, these cases can be given over to the coaching teacher for a half hour each day, they very often can be helped over the hard places and made to see and understand what they were blind to before.

Many children have to be helped several successive semesters, and some even need help for several years. Usually one finds that children may be set right in a few weeks of individual help or working in small groups. A case of this kind is that of a girl who was in the first grade for the third or fourth semester. She was much larger than her classmates, but had not learned to read. She did good hand-work, was good in writing and planning, and very helpful with those who could not do good cutting, coloring, and pasting. She was very fond of dolls, could cut out dolls and doll clothes exceptionally well. An opportunity for giving this child individual help for a few days changed her entire attitude toward reading. Her reading lessons were based on dolls. She was allowed to cut, color, and paste dolls and then read what was written about her activities. Soon she read doll stories from a book and found that the printed page had material that she loved. She became much interested and in a very short time came up in her reading.

Another case was given of a little girl who was bright in every way except learning to read. Everyone who came in contact with her wondered about it. The cause was finally found in her very acute hearing and good memory. The least whisper of a word that she did not know would give her a cue, and, if she had heard the sentence before, she could go right on with it. She depended upon hearing from others instead of learning for herself. Individual work, based entirely on her own ability to read instructions for coloring and pasting, soon changed her manner of attacking the printed page and in a few weeks she learned to read as well as any member of her class.

Many more cases of individuals, as well as that of groups, might be given to prove the success of coaching work. No one can estimate the value that this work is to our schools in time, in money saved, and by decreasing the number of failures in the grades, as well as saving time for the brighter children.

Summary and conclusions—Wherever the work has been well organized, good results have been accomplished by the special classes. Good organization is not an easy task. The principal must learn to give help to those who need it most; to convince some teachers of the need for the work; and to make other teachers see that they can't send too many children to the coaching classes. One of the greatest difficulties is to convince the traditional type of teacher that he can arrange his classes so as to give children this additional help outside his room and not lose out in their other subjects.

A few principals are not cognizant of the value of the work. They prefer an extra teacher to help do what they want done about the building. One complained that the regular teacher imposed on the coaching teacher by sending his problem cases, and too many in the group, not realizing that this was the principal's task to adjust. Another made a comparison between the coaching and visiting teachers, preferring the latter.

Many of us see the great value of both types of instruction. The coaching teacher is able to help the backward child in disability in academic work, but the child who is emotionally unstable needs the help of the visiting teacher. The latter case takes much longer to adjust. The visiting teacher has to get the cooperation of several agencies and can handle comparatively few children in a year as some of these cases take a long time to adjust. Most of us realize this and call on the visiting teachers only in extreme cases. The work of the two is very different and yet so necessary that both seem indispensable.

The writer is of the opinion that special class children will exist in our schools until we have better economic conditions, and children have settled homes and a chance to be physically, mentally, morally, and emotionally sound. We, as educators, can not shirk our responsibilities regardless of what the home conditions are. We will never get anywhere as long as we sit contentedly back and place all or even a part of the responsibility on the home. The majority of the parents have had little opportunity for learning how to take care of themselves, and much less opportunity to learn how to care for children. We should have both the opportunity and training. Therefore, let us give our best to all the children of all the people. Let us be brave enough to make a stand for the cause of those children who need all they can get in the way of training, so that they and their children may prove an asset instead of a burden to society. We have had very little cause to fear those who care only for the money value of education, as long as school administrators and educators believe

in their work and hold fast to what is good, funds will be forthcoming for the work.

Various plans for taking care of the individual differences are in operation in different cities, such as the Dalton, Batavia, and the Winnetka. But such systems do not take care of the physically, mentally, morally, and emotionally handicapped children that are taken care of in auxiliary and ungraded classes or by the coaching and visiting teacher work. In special classes children are given individual help in their academic work and at the same time given an opportunity for social cooperation, needed in a cosmopolitan group. Character is developed through work and play with a sympathetic feeling of good will and understanding that is necessary for the right ideals and standards.

We must also include, in our study and research, a way to take care of all the children who need attention for all physical defects, *i. e.*, sight, orthopedic, open air, hearing, and for all children with a social, moral, and emotional handicap, as some of us have no help from some of those departments. We must not forget that there are individual differences in the various schools and that some schools necessarily have greater problems than others and more of them.

We repeat, let us hold fast to what is good. If there is a waste of material equipment, or time and money, or too much spent for buildings, we should retrench; but until it can be definitely proven that too much individual attention has been given to our physically and mentally handicapped children as well as the super-normal, or, until we find a better way, we should make no drastic changes. Let us cooperate for the common good in meeting the individual needs of pupils and not let facts run away with our feelings or feelings run away with the facts. We should pull together for the fundamental idea: an education suited to the needs and future prospects of every child.

PAGE 135 is a questionnaire blank for your use in sending suggestions to the Editorial Committee.

ORGANIZING OPPORTUNITY CLASSES

WILLIAM B. CORNISH AND JULIA F. STARK

Principal and Opportunity Teacher, Center School, Stamford, Connecticut

MUCH has been written of late years concerning individual differences as a factor in the whole job of educating our young.

Certain school systems, notably Winnetka, Illinois, have gained considerable repute by the way they have attempted to meet this problem. Although many school systems cannot make the widespread changes necessary in the Winnetka plan, they do recognize the necessity for discovering individual needs and making individual adjustments. We submit the following description of the work in our school as a step toward meeting individual differences. The plan is neither new nor unique. It is presented in the hope that the results achieved through its use will lead to more attention to individual pupils in schools organized on the traditional basis.

The original purposes of the class—At the outset, it is necessary to explain what we are talking about when we speak of the opportunity class. It is a special class in which the instruction is largely individual. The basis for instruction is the individual need. The length of stay in the class depends upon the adjustment to be made, and there are about as many specific adjustments to be made as there are pupils in the class. It is not a class for mentally retarded pupils. It is not a disciplinary group. It is not a "dumping ground" for all the problem cases in the building.

The opportunity teacher was added to our staff at the beginning of the second term of the school year 1926-1927. The superintendent's bulletin issued on February 7, 1927, contained the following:

The work of the opportunity teachers should be carefully laid out by the principal. As a working basis, however, the superintendent expects that they will work with small groups from all the various classes, giving them instructions and assistance on new work or upon old work not mastered. The value of this work to the school will depend very largely upon its flexibility; to make it routine or machine-like will remove all justification for providing an opportunity teacher for the school.

It was planned at first to offer special opportunities to certain groups as follows:

1. Children who were not promoted at the end of last term
2. Children who were promoted conditionally
3. Candidates for rapid advancement
4. Children who return after being absent for a more or less extended period
5. Children regularly promoted who are losing ground.

The class in operation—The original program described above was carried out during the remainder of the year 1926-1927. The groups were constantly changing as the needs for individual adjustments changed. The pupils were with the opportunity teacher for a part of the day only, and usually the difficulty was one that could be overcome in a relatively small part of the school year. This meant that for many children an adjustment was possible that permitted them to remain with their regular group instead of having to repeat a grade and so was a measure in child-saving.

During the year 1927-1928, it was decided to change from semi-annual to annual promotions. To make this possible from an administrative point of view, it was necessary for all children in the B section or low half of each grade to do the essential work of one year in one half year. For many, this was an adjustment for which they needed more special help than the regular class teacher could give. The opportunity teacher was able to give much of this help.

During the year 1928-1929 the opportunities offered have included the five types at first mentioned, and the opportunity teacher has assisted in four other distinct ways: (1) assisting with the testing program, especially for new entrants in connection with their proper placement, (2) taking over some of the duties of the home visitor in cases where the adjustment could be materially hastened by enlisting the support of the home, (3) assuming responsibility for an honor club, (4) special work with over-age pupils.

Pupils to whom special opportunities were to be offered were selected in one of the following ways: (1) by an examination of the promotion sheets or term-ending reports, (2) by an examination of the duplicate report cards, and (3) upon recommendation of the regular class teacher.

After the pupils were selected, they were arranged in groups the maximum size of which was nine members. This grouping depended upon the subject or subjects in which help was needed and the grade placement of the pupil concerned.

The program for these groups was planned insofar as possible so that it would not interfere with the programs of the special teachers, and so that the pupils concerned could be in their own classes for the subjects in which they were weak. An effort was made, also, to interfere as little as possible with the regular class programs.

When this part of the work was completed, a copy giving the time of the periods and the names of the children was given to each teacher. He in turn saw that the children went to the opportunity class at the assigned time. The older children took care of themselves while the

smaller ones were helped by their teachers. Pupils stayed in the opportunity room for a part of the day only, and usually for not more than a few weeks or months.

When, in the opinion of the opportunity teacher or the regular class teacher or both, a pupil has made the necessary adjustment, he is dropped from the opportunity class and another child joins the group. If, after a trial in his regular place, he is still having difficulty, he can always get more help.

Advantages of the opportunity class—A special class of this sort should show some objective evidence of its contribution to the school. Perhaps the first bit of evidence which will be easily recognized by principals is the percent of promotion and non-promotion over a period of several years. Table 1 reports the promotion record for our school over a period of several terms.

TABLE 1—THE RECORD OF PROMOTION IN CENTER SCHOOL FOR THE TERM PRECEDING APPOINTMENT OF AN OPPORTUNITY TEACHER AND SINCE THAT TIME

	Term Ending	Percentage of Non-Promotion	Percentage of Rapid Promotion
January	30, 1927.....	6.4	4.2
June	23, 1927.....	1.2	8.4
January	30, 1928.....	1.4	* 4.5
June	22, 1928.....	† 3.2	‡ 45.0
June	27, 1929.....	1.9	1.1

* An additional 3.3 percent of the school was placed in rapid advance classes at this time.

† These items are explained by the change from semi-annual to annual promotions, as explained in the text of the article.

The explanation of Table 1 is given by a quotation from the principal's report to the superintendent as follows:

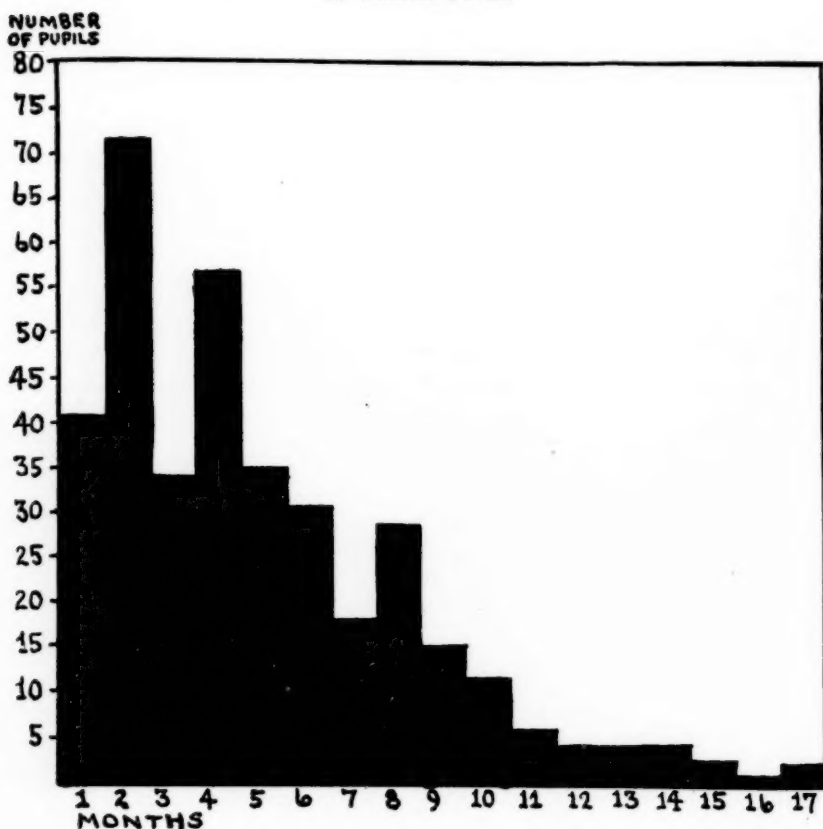
As you will see from the promotion records which I am sending in today, we were able to cut the percent of non-promotion forecast at Center, for the term ending January 30, 1927, from 11.1 to 6.4, whereas the percent of special promotion was only 4.2. The result of Miss Stark's work can be seen in the percent of non-promotion for the term ending June 23, 1927. The forecast indicated a percent of non-promotion of 3.1, and the actual record was 1.2, whereas the percent of special promotion jumped to 8.4. These figures amply justify the money put into the opportunity work, and in addition I have had unsolicited comments from nearly all of my teachers, expressing their feeling that the opportunity teacher has made their own efforts much more satisfactory. Whether the large number of special promotions this term can be justified, will remain to be seen next January, but Miss Stark will be able to devote a larger proportion of her time to the brighter pupils next term.

A second bit of evidence on the value of the opportunity class is shown by Figure 1. This graph indicates the length of time that children have needed the specialized class work. It will be noted in Figure 1 that 41 pupils have been helped for one month or less, 72 pupils have been helped for two months, and two pupils have been

helped for 17 months. Altogether in the last two and one half years, 367 pupils have had special aid from the opportunity teacher in making some necessary adjustment.

A large proportion of the pupils who have had the opportunity class help have made the required adjustment in less than a year. Actually, 36 of the 367 helped have needed a year or more in which to make their adjustment. Suppose that over this period, 331 children—the number helped for less than a year—or any large proportion of that group, had been required to repeat their grades. Several teachers would have been needed to take care of them at a relatively large expenditure when compared with the cost of an opportunity teacher. But more important than the financial saving is the child-saving. A part of the year repeated would have been wasted for each of these

FIGURE 1—NUMBER OF MONTHS SPENT IN THE OPPORTUNITY CLASS BY VARIOUS PUPILS



pupils and for all of them the wasted time would have been something like 162 years.

Conclusion—Results amply repay the teacher's and pupils' efforts in this work. There is much satisfaction in seeing a timid, shy child gain confidence in himself and so acquire the ability to compete with his classmates. A pupil having trouble to keep his place in class occasionally asks to come to the opportunity room in order to receive necessary help. There is a pleasure in doing for children who appreciate what is done for them. When a bright pupil is working to receive a special promotion, one is surprised at the progress made as there is no one to retard his speed of work. In such cases, enthusiasm is a help. One finds that a minimum of instruction is necessary.

The opportunity class can mean much to the school. We believe that it has meant much in our own situation. Much of the success of the work, however, depends upon the teacher. He must be exceptionally strong. He must understand the school and know what is going on in it. He must be a first grade teacher and a sixth grade teacher. But above all, he must be enthusiastic and he must be sympathetic. Given such a person, school work becomes successful work for many more children and school becomes a happier place.

AN INSPIRATIONAL teacher can mold the glee club into a musical organization, which, for beauty and art, cannot be surpassed by any other musical group within the school. After all, what instrument is superior to the human voice? Some schools may lack trained instrumentalists, but all schools possess a wealth of natural beauty in the form of children's voices awaiting the master hand.—John S. Herron, see Chapter XII

AN EXPERIMENT IN ABILITY GROUPING

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AND

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LONG dissatisfaction in the old grading plan led us to study the many methods of ability grouping throughout the country in order to decide upon a feasible one for our particular group. None seemed to fit our need very completely so it was decided to experiment.

Our school consists of three grades only, with four classes in the fourth grade, six in the fifth, and seven in the sixth, an excellent arrangement with which to work on any ability grouping plan. It was decided to deal with only one grade at a time, and the sixth grade, consisting of over 200 pupils was finally chosen.

Preliminary study—First of all the teachers' marks of the sixth grade pupils were studied from the time they entered school. This information was obtained from the record card of the child showing his marks in the subjects studied for the first five years of his school life. Marks given by different teachers over a series of years, when confirmatory, are quite reliable. However, it was found that the marks varied so greatly in the records of the same individual, that, while it was desired never to discard the teachers' judgment wholly, we dared not group by this method alone.

It was then decided to get the intelligence quotients and see what could be deduced from them. The Detroit Alpha tests were used.¹

The children were divided into four groups upon the basis of their marks in the first half of the school year 1928-1929, taken in conjunction with their marks during the preceding five years. Group A was the best group and consisted of children who were making mostly A's in their studies; group B was the next group and consisted of children who were making mostly B's in their studies, and so following for groups C and D. We compared the individual I. Q.'s with the marks obtained from the individual histories of teachers' judgments with the result shown in Table 1.

The lack of anything approximating agreement is very apparent from the figures in Table 1. It was felt that I. Q. alone is an unsafe guide for grouping children. This is a common error with beginners

¹Tests given and scored under the direction of Albert T. Lane, Director of Research.

and enthusiasts in this study of ability grouping. An I. Q. is, after all, the measure of latent ability, decidedly an unknown quantity, rarely if ever reached by any individual. The lack of attaining this ability may be because of physical defect, environment, or economic status, and possibly because of the present crude state of the tests. This method was abandoned although the results of this study have been kept so to compare the results of the chosen method with them.

TABLE 1—PERCENT OF INDIVIDUAL PUPIL I. Q.'s ABOVE, SAME, OR BELOW THE RATINGS GIVEN BY TEACHERS

Groups Based on Teachers' Marks	Relation of I. Q. to Teachers' Judgment			Total Percent
	Percent ABOVE T. J.	Percent SAME as T. J.	Percent BELOW T. J.	
A	0	50	50	100
B	29	27	44	100
C	21	59	20	100
D	31	69	0	100

Using a composite index in grouping—An adaptation of the method of grade placement originated by Dr. Harry F. Latshaw was finally chosen. This procedure appears to be the sanest and fairest of all the methods studied, as it takes into account so many phases of the child's development; *i. e.*, social development, potentials, academic ability, school achievement, and school rating. Social development is appraised through chronological age, as children usually like to associate with other children of approximately the same age. Chronological age is found by subtracting the birthdate from the date of the giving of the tests.

Potential academic ability is appraised through mental age which is ascertained through the giving of any good group test of intelligence. It is called potential academic ability in the sense that though potentially present, the school may not be leading the child to make full use of the ability which he has. School achievement is appraised through educational age which is ascertained through the giving of any good achievement test dealing with three or more of the subjects studied. School rating is appraised through pedagogical age the years of which are ascertained by adding five to the present grade placement of the child, and the months of which are ascertained by taking the number of months which has elapsed from the beginning of the school year. For example, a fifth grade child in May would have a pedagogical age of 10 years 9 months.

The steps suggested by Latshaw are as follows:

1. Reduce chronological, mental, educational, and pedagogical ages to months.
2. Find the average, retaining one decimal place.

3. Reduce to years, retaining one decimal place.
4. Subtract five. This gives the grade placement.

In a school which for the first time is conservatively experimenting with grade placement and is chary of double promotions, it is perhaps best to obtain the above data on all the children of just one grade, toward the end of the school year. Then the data having been worked up, the children are promoted as usual to the next grade with the ordinary number of non-promotions.

Within the new grade the children are divided into enriched curriculum, average curriculum, and minimum curriculum groups by arranging them in rank order according to the grade placement results obtained in step four of the above calculations. Doubtful cases are few, but such as there are may readily enough be decided upon the basis of a combined consideration of placement age, intelligence quotient, achievement quotient, and teacher's judgment. The intelligence quotient and achievement quotient of each child should be calculated. This information is not used in ascertaining the grade placement but is very important supplementary data in deciding upon the proper ability group to which the child should be assigned within the grade.

The clerical work involved includes filling out a three by five library card for each child. These cards are put in rank order upon the basis of the grade placement results. Those having the same grade placement are differentiated upon the basis of intelligence quotients. Those having the same grade placement and the same intelligence quotient are further differentiated upon the basis of achievement quotients and teacher's judgment. This technic brings together children who are similar both in regard to the amount of subject which they have mastered and in regard to the rate at which they are capable of mastering new subjectmatter.

The chosen procedure required much testing. We employed the Detroit Alpha tests to get the mental ages; the Stanford Achievement tests for the educational age.

Adapting the curriculum to the groups—We arranged our groups as follows: two enriched curriculum groups, four normal curriculum groups, and one minimum curriculum group. The names used for these classes are immaterial as they were not used outside the principal's office, nor were they talked over with the teachers. They were used solely for chart work. The children knew their groups only as classes designated by the teachers' names.

Much enrichment of the curriculum was needed for the brighter groups. Laboratory method of procedure should be used with a care-

ful check up on work accomplished. While we found it necessary not to allow absolute freedom along these lines because the whole school system is not organized for ability grouping and therefore we had to consider their next school, much leeway was allowed for creative work among the gifted children. Ample references were given these children.

An alert highly-trained, sympathetic teacher should handle these groups. Such are indeed hard to find, as the ordinary teacher finds it difficult to get away from old formalities of classroom methods.

The slower groups had enriched programs as they were able to handle them. The slowest group was carefully and slowly directed along the minimum essentials of the basic curriculum for the grade. There was no difficulty in finding teachers willing to do the work of the slowest groups under this method of placement, for in consideration of minimum essentials only, there apparently was no dead weight of children who could not accomplish satisfactorily all that was required of them.

These groups assumed more the character of the work of brighter children. All were interested to take part in class discussion. Inferiority complexes caused by having a bright child always win in the old method of grading disappeared. All children tried equally to meet the assigned tasks and subconsciously they knew the winner had fairly reached the goal and each in turn might do the same in another instance. In the old grading brighter children gave correct answers to hastily given questions. Slower pupils suffered from this fact.

Teachers of the slower groups found themselves doing a better job pedagogically; *i. e.*, presenting their subject more interestingly to meet the needs of these children and explaining more carefully and thoroughly the points of the lesson.

We found several instances where the slow child assumed a certain amount of initiative which developed his power above his apparent latent ability. In a few instances we found children who, under the old grouping, were sullen and stubborn became agreeable, even happy and enjoyed their work.

Children who are frail or with some physical defect are never forced to do what they are unable to accomplish, because if the defect is measurable these children fall naturally into the group of their own mental and physical ability. If the defect is overcome and has not produced a lasting defect upon the mentality, the child upon retesting falls into the higher group and is so placed.

Some educators are making special physical examinations as a distinct aspect to be considered. It was found after our groupings

were completed and a study of the health cards was made, that those children with physical defects fell naturally into the slower groups. Not one child having a real defect was found in the two brightest groups.

Checking the outcomes—On February first we studied the advancement made on the basic curriculum. Our brightest group was four months ahead of schedule; the second group, two months; the third and fourth, three weeks; and the lowest groups doing normal work and up to grade.

Then we studied the children to find how many were holding their positions in the various rooms as placed by this method. In the highest group 98 percent were holding their places, ranking high; in the next group, 92 percent; the third and fourth group, 90 percent; fifth group, 80 percent; and the sixth, 86 percent. These lower percents were due to children who were out for long continued illness or children whom we found required examination for the special class.

No changes were made from group to group with the exception of three instances of children who entered late from other systems, had not been tested, and who were placed wholly from marks received from those places according to their teacher's judgment. They did not fit in our particular grouping and had to be changed to a group better adapted to their needs.

The amount of non-promoted children in this sixth grade was reduced from 20 percent in June 1928 to five percent in June 1929.

Some necessary cautions—So much importance is placed on testing in any method of ability grouping, that it should be done only by a thoroughly trained person of experience and sane judgment, so that deductions may be made on as nearly a scientific basis as is available and with as psychologic an understanding as is possible. Many people doing pupil testing should be eliminated from this work in school systems, because of lack of knowledge, experience, and sane judgment. Such persons certainly should not do standard testing where their final judgments would alter in any way a child's school status.

A six week's course in tests and measurements merely introduces a student to kinds of tests and methods used. It certainly does not equip him for testing for organization or grade placement. Unless ability grouping can be carried on with such scientific methods as are available, it would be better to cling to the old method of grading, else uncertainty and inaccuracies will cause confusion in individual cases.

No skipping of grades should be permitted, unless the system of tutoring children in work thus omitted be provided. Tutoring is practically impossible in a public school system as it involves expense

too great to be impartially carried out where ability grouping will be tried in more than one district. No matter how bright a child may be, he cannot know what has never entered his experience. This fact has to be faced somewhere in the child's school life and such knowledge usually is apparent when it is too late to be remedied by ordinary school procedure. A tutor is required to meet the need. Parents are not always ready or willing to provide such help. The school cannot. Much adverse criticism follows not only from teachers who discover the child's deficiency, but from the individual parents, and finally the community.

While the teachers knew there had been a scheme of grouping used, for the sake of keeping their judgments unbiased as possible, no discussion of how the grouping was done was made until toward the last of the year. The teachers were pleased to have this so, in order to cooperate to the fullest extent. The checking of results was made wholly in the principal's office with cooperation of the research director and such supervisors as became interested in the plan.

Contrary to the popular idea among educators that the gifted children should be in classes of smaller groups we believe that under competent leadership, larger numbers can be handled with ease, especially where the laboratory method is used.

Conclusion—Whoever tries ability grouping for the first time should realize in advance that the identification of the children is only one third of the problem. The other two parts of the problem pertain to curriculum adjustment and the securing of specially trained favorably disposed teachers. Curriculum adjustment means for the brighter pupils doing the ordinary curriculum plus a generous enrichment of the program through individualized instruction, problem projects, and cultural extra-curriculum activities. For the average pupils it means a continuance of the present curriculum without change. For the dull pupils it means a minimum essentials curriculum, more time for each topic, and much time given to concrete manual activities.

As to the teachers it is well to develop them from the present staff of the school if possible. Have an extension lecturer from some nearby university to address the parents and teachers upon "ability grouping" and following the lecture provide a dozen or so books on the subject in the school library for voluntary reading by interested teachers. From the teachers who exhibit interest, select those who are to teach your proposed classes and plan with them a systematic course of reading urging each prospective teacher of bright or dull children to take at least two summer school courses intended to train him for this work. If your present teachers do not exhibit interest

in ability grouping, as you select your new teachers have this qualification in view. It is quite essential to the success of ability grouping that the teachers have a favorable attitude and that they be specially trained for the work.

The year closed with the greatest satisfaction on the part of parents, teachers, and pupils. It was felt we had reached a splendid starting point at least in our work of ability grouping. With this knowledge our work will continue along these lines, confident that we shall be doing more for the the children in the classroom than we have ever done before.

IN TRAINING children for citizenship, the teacher must never lose sight of the fact that the attitude of the child toward good character is the all important factor. It matters little what the teacher's attitude may be; if the child has no interest in the matter, little can be accomplished.—M. R. Kirk, see Chapter XI

PROBLEMS AND DEVICES IN DEPARTMENTAL ORGANIZATION

HERMAN RITOW

Principal, Goethe School, Chicago, Illinois

IT MAY be of interest to principals who have not yet departmentalized their schools to learn of the difficulties that this administrative change involves. The views expressed here are based on the experience of the writer in two grammar schools, over a period of four years and are for this reason somewhat limited in scope.

The writer applied the departmental organization to great advantage in two schools. First, in the Hayes School, Chicago, where the 530 pupils above the first grade were divided in 12 divisions. Second, in the Goethe School where there are about 1030 pupils in 22 divisions. From the experiences in these two schools the writer believes that a departmental program can be applied to advantage in any school of six or more rooms, provided building conditions permit the movement of children or teachers without great loss of time.

The success of the change from a typical to a departmentalized school depends much on the overcoming of administrative problems. Half-hearted or careless planning by the principal or too sudden application of the program may doom it to failure. The problems to be met are the following: (1) the curriculum and subject time allotment, (2) the length of period, (3) subject allotment to teachers, (4) pupil or teacher movement, (5) manual training, household arts, and gymnasium programs, (6) extra-curriculum activities, (7) truancy, (8) pupil control.

The curriculum—In most cities the curriculum and the time allotment of subjects are decided by action of the Board of Education or of the superintendent. Yet principals with discretionary powers, should study the special needs of the school populations and should modify the curriculum to accord with these needs. Thus at the Hayes School the principal found his pupils were 96 percent colored and living in an unwholesome social environment. It was evident that provision had to be made in the curriculum for an unusual amount of character and health teaching. Changes were made to provide 50 minutes a week for character education and 80 minutes per week for health training. At the same time the allotments for science, gymnasium, and English were reduced. Since negro children show a decided vocal talent slightly more time was allowed to music than the regular schedule called for.

Similarly at the Goethe School, where the children come from the homes of laborers and of immigrants, it was found necessary to

devote more time to English, to history, and to manual training than was required by the new Chicago time allotment. Corresponding reductions were made in gymnastics and science.

The length of period—Age and grade are two important factors to keep in mind in deciding the length of period. For practical purpose we may say that children in the primary grades do best with 20 minute lessons, those in the intermediate grades probably do best with 35 to 45 minute lessons, and seventh and eighth grade pupils can keep interested in one subject for approximately one hour.

Yet the principal must not overlook the peculiar demands of each subject. In the lower grades, 15 to 20 minute drills in content subjects are almost ideal periods. Art and construction activities require at least a half-hour for efficient work. In the upper grades, manual training and cooking require 80 minutes or longer periods. Content subjects, such as arithmetic, correct usage, literature, composition can be taught well in 50 to 60 minute periods. Art and drawing can be successfully taught in 40 minute periods, but longer time allotments are advisable.

Teachers generally prefer the longer periods. The fewer changes are less bother and reduce pupil misbehavior. Later these problems will be discussed as opportunities for developing pupil self-control.

Another factor is the official length of the school day. For example, in Chicago the five hour day is reduced by recesses to four hours and thirty-five minutes. The total time can be lengthened by sending the classes into their rooms 15 minutes earlier, thereby making an available school day of 280 minutes. The 280 minutes can be divided into four periods of 70 minutes each, or five of 56 minutes each, or six of 47 minutes each, or seven of 40 minutes each.

Platoon schools frequently use the four period division of the day and can for all purposes be considered departmental schools organized on a four period basis, gymnasiums and special rooms being in use all day long. The advantages of the four period division are:

1. It can be used in very small schools, that is, in schools of four teachers or more.
2. It can be used to advantage in old type buildings with four rooms to the floor making it unnecessary for either teachers or pupils to move from one floor to another for change of classes.
3. It has the advantage over all other programs in fitting into the usual quartile division of the school day by recesses and noon hour. The time of passage coincides with recesses and lunch hours so that children move no more in this system than in the school with no departmental work.

The division into five periods of approximately 55 minutes each has practically no advantage over the four period program. In fact,

the extra period adds administrative difficulties in regard to the morning recess and the pupils' wraps.

The division of the school day into six equal periods will fit curriculum needs usually very well and provides a period of almost ideal length. Shortening the afternoon session and lengthening the morning session fits the recesses in very nicely with six periods a day; or, if desired, the afternoon recess can be omitted. The six period program, just as the five period and seven period programs, have greater administrative problems than the platoon or four period division of the day.

The seven period program has two advantages. First, the seven periods place the recesses and noon hour at the usual hours of the day. Second, by using the last period (or any other) for extra-curriculum activities and remedial study, the children may spend a morning and an afternoon period each day with their home room teacher. This plan permits the teacher to keep close check on attendance and reduces the possibilities of truancy.

In the first and second grades complete departmentalization seems inadvisable, because reading and correlated subjects make up more than half the curriculum. Also, children at six years need thorough acquaintance with one teacher who understands their half-articulate speech and ways. However, we can successfully departmentalize the special subjects even in the first grade, *i. e.*, art, music, health, nature study, social studies, character education, and penmanship. One and one half hours a day will be found sufficient for these minor subjects. By this scheme each teacher is relieved of five minor subjects and becomes the special teacher of one minor to six other rooms. Incidentally the principal is assured that no departmentalized minor will be neglected.

In any departmental scheme it will usually be found very convenient to have all the periods of the same length and therefore to subdivide the curriculum in equivalent or equal time allotments.

Alloting curriculum subjects to teachers—Having decided the standard period it is relatively easy to combine parts of the curriculum so that the time allotments cover the subjects to be taught. For example, the new Chicago course of study, as amended by the principal of the Goethe School, allows in the upper grades: 200 minutes to arithmetic, 200 minutes to English, 120 minutes to reading and literature, 80 minutes for physical education, 80 minutes for science, 280 minutes for social studies (history, 120, geography, 80, character education, 40), 80 minutes for art, 80 minutes for music, 160 minutes for manual arts, and 200 minutes for extra-curriculum

activities. A total of 1500 minutes, or 1200 minutes net for the school studies.

Dividing the curriculum among six teachers means each must take care of 200 minutes of curriculum studies. Therefore, in our upper grades it was necessary to assign one full-time teacher for English and one full-time teacher for arithmetic. Another teacher chose geography and science as her first choice so she was given geography, science, and health. One teacher chose literature and art in combination with gym classes. A fifth teacher was given history in combination with manual arts from special teachers. The remaining teacher had chosen music and was allotted character education both in combination with manual arts. The last two teachers were assigned to teach their subject specialties to 10 classes each. Assignments in the lower grades showed similar combinations of studies.

Two methods can be used to pick the subjects allotted to each teacher. One method has partly been described above. The teachers are notified of all the possible combinations of subjects and each teacher is requested to state her first, second, and third choices. It is usually easy to so arrange the program that each teacher gets either first or second choices.

The second method is to allot to each teacher the subject or subjects she teaches best. When this method was tried at the Hayes School the art supervisor and the music supervisor chose the same teacher for their specialties, while the principal wanted this teacher for reading and composition. It is the opinion of the writer that the teacher's own decision is a better guide to her special ability than a selection based on the judgment or experience of the principal. The latter method is most useful in deciding between two teachers who have selected the same subject for first choice.

Pupil or teacher movement—In any scheme of departmental organization the principal must decide whether the teachers or the pupils are to remain in the homerooms. Each choice has its advantages and disadvantages.

In one plan the teachers remain in their own rooms and the pupils pass from room to room in accord with their programs. This plan is the only possible arrangement for subjects requiring specially equipped rooms. Manual training, household arts, gymnasium, and the laboratory sciences can be studied best in rooms specially equipped and arranged for these activities. Freehand and mechanical drawing are also taught to greatest advantage in rooms equipped for the purpose. In subjects like English and mathematics where books can be repeatedly used by succeeding classes or where the Board of Education supplies the texts, a great saving in textbooks can

be effected by having the children move from class to class. One set of books can then be used for three or four classes and the cost of textbooks reduced more than 50 percent. If there is a definite budget allowance to each school for textbooks (as is usually the case in large cities) this money can be used to better advantage when the teachers remain in their rooms.

The disadvantages of having the children move from room to room are the following:

1. With each change from class to class the children must take their books and effects with them. This shift leads to many petty troubles and annoyances. Children are prone to forget books or pencils and to ask for permission to get them with consequent interruption of two classes.
2. The movement from class to class is time consuming.
3. Books, clothing, and pads are frequently lost.
4. Truants find it easier to remain absent from periods where the teacher is "easy" rather than inspirational.

Generally speaking the movement of teachers is more advisable in grades one to four inclusive. The movement of the children from room to room is more expedient in the upper grades from an educational or character training viewpoint. In any grade, however, the movement of the teachers causes far less *administrative* trouble than the movement of the children.

A device that reduces routine difficulties in pupil movement programs is to arrange the sequence of rooms to be used by any group of classes so that as far as possible movement is made between periods from each room to the *nearest* adjoining room. The reader is urged to study the text of the next section in connection with Tables 1, 2, 3, and 4.

Table 1 shows program of the seventh and eighth grades. These grades are divided into six divisions numbered 34, 36, 15, 16, 17, and 18, and are located respectively in rooms 304, 306, 105, 106, 107, and 108. Rooms 304 and 306 adjoin each other on the third floor. The other four rooms are on the first floor. The program shows that divisions proceed from gymnasium work on the third floor to classwork in adjacent rooms. Classes on the first floor proceed to the basement where woodshop and household arts are taught. Hence, the academic subjects which are followed by health work are taught in rooms nearest the gymnasium. Music and history, which are combined in time allotment with practical arts, are assigned rooms nearest the shops. This simple arrangement economizes time and eliminates behavior problems.

Table 4 shows the partial departmentalization in the first and second grades from 10:35 to 12:00 noon. Each teacher give three

half hour lessons in her specialty to five classes (exclusive of her own) during the week. The teachers move from room to room during the one and a half hour of each day completing the following series just three times each week (omitting the homeroom): 207, 206, 205, 103, 102, and 101.

For example in Table 4, the nature study teacher, whose homeroom is 205, will begin Monday at 10:35 in Room 103, will continue to 102 and 101 the same morning. On Tuesday at 10:35 she goes to Room 207, then to 206 and 103. At the end of each period she moves to the next room in the sequence, but always omitting 205, her homeroom.

TABLE 1—SEVENTH AND EIGHTH GRADE PROGRAM AT THE GOETHE SCHOOL

Group Grade Div. No.	Activities	Rm. No.	Period Number and Time						
			1 9:00 9:38	2 9:38 10:20	3 10:35 11:17	4 11:17 12:00	5 1:15 1:50	6 1:50 2:30	7 2:30 3:15
I 7A 34 ¹	Composition—E Usage, Grammar—U Spelling—W Remedial Study—Q	304	34 ¹ EUEWE	36 EUEWE	17 EUEWE	16 EUEWE	15 EUEWE	18 EUEWE	(36) ² 34 Q
I 8B 36	Literature and Library—L Art—R Remedial Study—Q Art Club—D	306	36 RRLLL	34 RRLRL	16 RRLLL	17 RRLRL	18 RRLLL	15 RRLLL	36 QQDQQ
I 8A 15	Geography—G Science—N Health—Y Travel Club—V Remedial Study—Q	105	15 GGNYN	16 GGNYN	34 GGNYN	18 GGNYN	17 GGNYN	36 GGNYN	15 GQQQQ
I 8A-8B 16	Arithmetic—A Remedial Study—Q	106	16 AAAAA	15 AAAAA	18 AAAAA	34 AAAAA	36 AAAAA	17 AAAAA	16 AQQQQ (15, 17, 18)
I 7A-7B 17	Music—M Character Ed.—C Orchestra—O Remedial Study—Q	107	17 M 43 M 17 M 37 M 17 C	18 M 18 M 38 M 18 C 31 C	15 M 31 M 15 M 38 M 15 C	36 M 36 M 43 M 36 C 37 C	34 M 37 M 34 M 43 C 34 C	16 M 16 M 31 M 16 C 38 C	17 QQQQQ
I 7B-6A 18	History—H Remedial Study—Q Glee Club—e	108	18 H 18 H 38 H 18 H 31 H	17 H 43 H 17 H 37 H 17 H	36 H 36 H 43 H 36 H 37 H	15 H 31 H 15 H 38 H 15 H	16 H 16 H 31 H 16 H 38 H	34 H 37 H 34 H 43 H 34 H	18 QeQQQ

¹ Division No. 34 starts the day in its homeroom 304. The letters EUEWE in the first period mean: Monday, composition; Tuesday, grammar usage; Wednesday, composition; Thursday, spelling; and Friday, composition. During the second period Division 34 is in Room 306. The last period finds Division 34 back in its homeroom for remedial study.

² Division 36 is sent to the homeroom of Division 34 on certain days so as to release a teacher for extra-curriculum activities. Note that Divisions 15, 17, and 18 are sent to Room 106 so as to release other teachers for club events.

TABLE 2—PROGRAM FOR GROUPS II AND III (GRADES 3, 4, 5 AND 6)

Group Grade Div. No.	Activities	Rm. No.	Period Number and Time						
			1	2	3	4	5	6	7
			9:00 9:38	9:38 10:20	10:35 11:17	11:17 12:00	1:15 1:50	1:50 2:30	2:30 3:15
II 6B 43	Practical Arts—T Boys' Council—B Girls' Council—F Crafts Guild—I Needle Guild—S Remedial Study—Q	4 and 3 and 2	31 T Boys 17 T in 18 T R. 4 17 T 18 T Girls in R. 2		37 Q Boys in 15 T R. 4 36 T 15 T 36 T Girls in R. 3		38 Q Boys 34 T in 16 T R. 4 34 T 16 T Girls in R. 3		43 T BF IS 43 T 43 T
II 5A 38	Composition —E Usage, Gram- mar—U Spelling—W Health—Y Penman- ship—P Remedial Study—Q	308	43 E 38 E 37 UW 31 E 43 PY		31 E 43 UW 38 UW 37 E 31 PY		37 E 31 UW 43 E 38 E 37 PY		38 P 38(43)Q 38(43)Q 38 Q 38 Y
II 5A-5B 37	Literature & Library—L Art—R Remedial Study—Q Nature Study—N	307	38 NL 37 R 31 R 43 L 38 N		43 NL 38 R 37 L 31 L 43 NL		31 N 43 R 38 L 37 NL 31 NL		37 N 37(43)Q 37(43)Q 37 Q 37 N
II 6A 31	Arith- metic—A Geography —G Remedial Study—Q	301	37 AG 31 AG 43 AG 38 AG 37 AG		38 A 37 AG 31 AG 43 AG 38 AG		43 A 38 AG 37 AG 31 AG 43 AG		31 A 31(43)Q 31(43)Q 31 A 31 G
III 5B 35	Composi- tion—E Usage Gram- mar—U Spelling—W Remedial Study—Q Journalism Club—J	305	EUEWE	LLLLL	RRMMM	PYPYC	GNHNG	AAAAA	QQJQQ
III 4A 24	Arith- metic—A Remedial Study—Q	204	AAAAA	EUEWE	LLLLL	RRMMM	PPPYC	GNHNG	QQQQQ
III 4A-4B 23	Geography —G History—H Science—N Remedial Study—Q	203	GNHNG	AAAAA	EUEWE	LLLLL	RR-MM	PPPYC	QQQQQ
III 4B-3A 22	Penman- ship—P Health—Y Character Ed.—C Remedial Study—Q Harmonica Club—Z	202	PPPYC	GNHNG	AAAAA	EUEWE	LLLLL	RR-MM	QZQQQ
III 3A 21	Art—R Music—M Remedial Study—Q	201	RRMMM	PPPYC	GNHNG	AAAAA	EUEWE	LLLLL	(35)1 QQQQQ
III 3B 28	Literature & Library—L Remedial Study—Q	208	LLLLL	RRMMM	PPPYC	GNHNG	AAAAA	EUEWE	QQQQQ

TABLE 3—PROGRAM OF SPECIAL ACTIVITIES

Type of Program	Day	Period						
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Gymnasium Program								
Boys' Council								
—B.....	Mon.	15, 16	34, 36	37, 38	37, 38	43, 31	43, 31	B & F
Girls' Council								
—F.....		boys	boys	boys	girls	boys	girls	
Dance Club								
—b.....	Tues.	15, 16 girls	34, 36 girls	17, 18 girls	17, 18 boys	35, 24 boys	35, 24 girls	b dance club
	Wed.					23 boys & girls	22 boys & girls	21 boys & girls
Library Program		Div. 38 7th Period—1st & 3rd Thursday of every school month. Div. 37 7th Period—2nd & 4th Thursday of every school month. Div. 15 7th Period—1st & 3rd Friday of every school month. Div. 16 7th Period—2nd & 4th Friday of every school month.						
Assembly Program		Group I & Divs. 43 & 31—7th Period on Thursdays. Group III & Divs. 37 & 38—7th Period on Fridays. Group IV & Kindergarten—9:15–10:00 on Fridays.						

TABLE 4—PROGRAM FOR GROUP IV (GRADES 1 AND 2)¹

Group Grade Div. No.	IV 2A 27	IV 2A 26	IV 2B 25	IV 1B 13	IV 1A 12	IV 1A 11
Specialty Taught by Div. Teacher	Penmanship—P	Art—R	Nature Study—N	Character Education—C	Health—H	Music—M
10:35 Mon.	206	205	103	102	101	207
Tues.	102	101	207	206	205	103
to Wed.	205	103	102	101	207	206
Thurs.	101	207	206	205	103	102
11:00 Fri.	103	102	101	207	206	205
11:00 Mon.	205	103	102	101	207	206
Tues.	101	207	206	205	103	102
to Wed.	103	102	101	207	206	205
Thurs.	206	205	103	102	101	207
11:30 Fri.	102	101	207	206	205	103
11:30 Mon.	103	102	101	207	206	205
to Tues.	206	205	103	102	101	207
Wed.	102	101	207	206	205	103
12:00 Thurs.	205	103	102	101	207	206
Fri.	101	207	206	205	103	102

¹ Departmentalized for part of the total school day. The numbers 206, 102, etc., indicate the rooms to which the teachers move as the children stay in their homerooms.

The method detailed above can be summarized in the following administrative steps:

1. Divide the time devoted to departmental work into a number of equal periods.
2. Divide the curriculum into subject groups of equal time allotment and into as many parts as there are classes taking part in the program. Assign to each teacher the subject she prefers or can teach best.
3. Arrange the rooms taking part in a sequence determined by proximity of rooms.
4. Circulate classes or teachers according to the sequence.
5. Put in the irregularities of program caused by practical arts and gymnasium classes, after the regular sequence has been properly programmed.

The hat and coat problem—In high schools each student is provided with a personal locker. In departmental schools it is much more advisable to permit children to take hat and coats with them at each dismissal and bring them at the end of recess and noon to the next room. At fire drills and at regular dismissals much confusion and loss of time can be avoided by arranging the program or room sequence so that each class is as close as possible to its wraps. Thus in Table 1 it will be noticed that two room sequences have been arranged: divisions 34, 36, and 15 use one sequence, divisions 16, 17, and 18 use the exact reverse sequence. By this arrangement the children hang their wraps in the room they occupy during the odd numbered periods, then during the even numbered periods each class is next door to its coats and hats. In case of fire drill or dismissal classes can obtain their wraps quickly. In the second place the movement of classes between the first and second (and subsequent) periods is reduced to an exchange between adjoining rooms.

The movement to adjacent rooms is true in every case of class exchange. The teachers can thereby keep close watch on the movement of their children. Had the program been arranged so that all classes moved in the same direction, there would be some classes moving from third to first floor and vice versa. Such shifting about results only in confusion and trouble later on when the children must get wraps for dismissal.

Extra-curriculum activities—To avoid interrupting the regular class work, extra-curriculum activities must be confined to one or two special periods per day. Since extra-curriculum activities frequently require more time than allotted, it is wise to place the period for these activities at the end of the day. For this reason at the Goethe School the seventh period was assigned for these activities.

Club activities, museum, park, and library visits, assembly preparations and rehearsals, and study periods are all held during this last period. Confining all special activities to one period obtains the

wholehearted cooperation of all teachers for these activities because special requests for pupils can be granted without interfering with any teacher's routine.

Truancy—Departmental programs, in particular when the children move from room to room, make truancy easier. Yet the desire for truancy is usually reduced because improved teaching and variety make school work more interesting. The following devices may be of help:

1. Have each class spend at least one period each day in the homeroom.
2. Let every teacher appoint an attendance officer for her division. Have these officers report to each teacher the day's absentees. Each class teacher reports to the division teacher the absentees during her special period.
3. Organize an attendance competition. Rate each class daily for attendance, marking one point off for every straggler, three points off for every tardiness per class, and 10 points off for every absence from class. The weekly score is 10,000 less the total of points off, divided by 100. Honor the class of each group with the highest score as the banner attendance room for the week and let it have a flag to display for that week. Reward the room winning the flag most often during the semester by a party, a banner, a shield, or some other form of distinction. In my opinion the banner is the best type of reward and as the semesters pass on more and more rooms will gradually win a decorative banner.
4. Notify the parents of each absentee unless the reason for the absence is known to be a good one. Investigate absences among the best girls and boys, because the first mis-step is the easiest to correct.
5. When the children persist in being absent or tardy inform the parents by letter on the importance of punctuality and regularity, and enlist their cooperation.
6. As part of the police or patrol corps organize a small group of junior attendance officers to make preliminary investigations for the truant officer.
7. Notify the truant officer promptly of every truancy.

Control technic—Experience shows that departmental work improves the conduct of the children as well as their interest in and love of learning. Good teaching begets good behavior. Yet supplementary control devices are often very useful.

1. Good Manners Competition. The teachers rate each class for behavior. At the end of the week the ranks of all divisions are reported to each homeroom teacher. We rate the best behaved divi-

sion as 1, the next in good behavior as 2, as shown in Table 5. The class in each group which has the lowest sum total of rankings by its teachers will be given the privilege of keeping the good manners shield or banner for the week. At the end of the semester award the banner or shield to the class that has won the competition the greatest number of times. The marks for each class period may be posted on the blackboard so that each division may see how it compares with others.

TABLE 5—THE DAILY AND COMPOSITE RATINGS IN GOOD MANNERS

Div.	Daily rating					Composite rank
	M.	T.	W.	Th.	F.	
15.....	1	2	1	1	1	1
16.....	3	3	1	3	1	4
17.....	1	3	1	1	2	2
18.....	2	4	4	4	2	5
34.....	2	2	2	1	2	3

2. A form of student government, preferably one in which elected judges are able to punish routine offenders quickly, can be used to advantage. A school penal code with definite punishments for common offenses can sometimes be used to advantage.

Summary—The departmentalized elementary school offers many well known advantages. The writer has taken these assets for granted. He has discussed the administrative problems involved in the installation of departmentalized organization. Chief among these problems are: the time allotment, the length of period, the allotment of subjects to teachers, the pupil or teacher movement between classes, program making, truancy, and pupil control.

Various practical devices are available to the principal who would solve the administrative problems with greatest ease. Useful as such devices can be, they do not release the principal from careful planning and manipulation of the departmentalized program.

TEACHERS should feel the importance of yard duty. It should be something more than police work if its maximum value is to be gained. It is an opportunity to study the child in informal activities. The increase in good physical tone and in good school morale is worth the time and effort spent in organizing yard duties effectively.—R. W. Kretzinger, see Chapter VIII

COMBINING THE PLATOON AND NON-PLATOON PLANS

RUFUS A. DUVAL

Principal, North Birmingham School, Birmingham, Alabama

SIX YEARS ago, when the Board of Education in Birmingham made it optional with the principals as to whether or not they would organize their schools on the platoon basis, the writer was one of those who requested permission to do so. Fortunately, we have a Board of Education that places responsibility on the school principal. Each school head manages all details of his school, so long as he is aggressively in line with the general policies of the Board. Hence, no standardized platoon plan was handed to any principal.

Organizing the upper grades—We gave considerable study and thought to both the objections and the advantages of the platoon organization. It seemed to us that the advantages of a platoon school center above the third grade, while the disadvantages are found below this grade. Hence, we tried to effect an organization that would give us, as nearly as possible, all the advantages of a platoon school and as few of the disadvantages as possible. We could not join with that group of enthusiasts who say the platoon scheme guarantees everything to gain and nothing to losses.

We believe that throwing little children into the routine of platoon school for their first experience away from home makes for losses which are vital in the early life of a child. Just where to begin the platoon school, of course, is a matter of judgment.

The North Birmingham School, where the writer has been principal for the past eight years, has had an average of 1000 children and 32 teachers. An analysis of the situation showed that 16 sections would include our junior fourth grade and sometimes dip into our senior third grade for one or two sections. This plan makes the senior third a border convenience; sometimes being included in the platoon school and sometimes not. Should the school increase or decrease in size, we would increase or decrease the number of sections in the platoon school so as to leave the mark of separation about the senior third grade. So far, the writer has not tried to justify his reasoning in the organization of this school, but has simply endeavored to explain what has really happened.

The lower grades—We should call attention to the fact that we do not refer to the 10 classes below the platoon school as "traditional or typical" for they are today a new type of one-room classes. The writer does not believe that there is a single teacher in this school, who does not favor the platoon school organization. We acknowledge

that the platoon plan has brought us a broader vision of child life. We have succeeded in putting the platoon spirit of enrichment, activity, and independence into these one-room classes through a most excellent group of teachers. These teachers have studied platoon school literature, sat through discussions of the platoon advantages, until now they have caught the spirit of the upper grade organization. They have woven many of its principles into the regular work in the one-room classes. In these classes the thought, position, and activity of every child is changed in some way every 20 to 25 minutes. With two daily basement and fountain periods of five minutes each and two play periods of 20 minutes each, there should be no stooped shoulders or other physical defects as a result of being tied down in school.

In these lower grades one can find all sorts of life-like actions. These good teachers, by use of action words or actions games, get responses in action. By means of flash cards and phrase cards, or words written on the board and covered with a regular window shade, children are instructed to do "what this says." It may say, "stand up," "go to the window," "raise your hands," or what not. In these rooms where teachers have learned to present their work through active play, all the physical benefits resulting from the platoon school are readily available.

We are not only taking care of the physical life of the children in these grades, but we are giving them the advantage of expert teaching. A schedule is arranged through the principal's office so that writing, music and art are taught by experts who go from room to room. If a teacher does not do any of the above subjects well, it has been arranged for him to do something else while an expert in these subjects comes to his class and teaches these subjects for him. In this way we are using an adaptable type of specialization, because the scope of work in all these lower grades is about the same and does not have a gap like going from the first to the eighth grade.

In fact, some of our most effective work is done in these lower grades where the work is unified around some vital interest and activity. The good primary teacher correlates the work of the tool subjects around the social experiences of the children. Getting the expressions of these experiences together with the dramatization of stories and the observance of special days does the same thing for the children in these classes that the auditorium period does for the children of the upper grades. This unified plan does not separate the subjects. It allows the teacher to teach children and not subjects. Very frequently, numbers, reading and writing all enter the same experience

so that it becomes difficult and inadvisable to draw a sharp line between them. The plan also enables a teacher to begin a recitation or end it as his judgment may direct. It enables him to follow the thought and inclination of his children which is more important at this age than bells.

Summary of advantages—If there is further need for the writer to justify his position in this organization, he may say that there is all the argument for a non-platoon division of any school that there is for junior high school. At best, there is a tremendous amount of new material for a child to learn and new situations for him to adjust himself to when he leaves home for school the first time. There is so much, in fact, that a “breaker” from home to platoon school makes a happy combination. Platoon school life presents more new situations than a young child can meet successfully.

Education is largely habit formation, and in order to form habits, one must have continued practice in that situation. The one-room, one-teacher situation is more favorable to definite and right habit formation and attitude than is the continuous change. In order for anyone to do one's best, one must be happy. A very young child is happier with his one-room, one-teacher, one-group, than he can be with the platoon school trying to keep up with various and sundry materials, caps and coats.

Again, the non-platoon unit is desirable because the equipment for the lower grades is very essential and must be prepared solely for these grades. An effort to go from the first grade to the eighth grade leaves too large a range for any set arrangement or equipment to cover satisfactorily. Not only this, but rarely ever would a teacher have enough breadth of vision to adapt himself one period to the understanding of a first grade child, and another period to the understanding of an eighth grade child. The inclination is too strong to average the difference, and make upper grade work too easy for upper grades, and lower grade work too difficult for lower grades.

Finally, primary teachers are specially trained for primary work, while the upper grade teachers frequently are not. With a program arranged as ours, the writer feels that we can come nearer reaching our goal of making education life itself for every child in every grade.

CHAPTER VIII

SCHOOL MANAGEMENT PROBLEMS

SELF-DIRECTION IN AN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

A. VIRGINIA ADAMS

Principal, East Avenue School, Vineland, New Jersey

DEMOCRATIC administration is that clever handling of a situation whereby children, teachers, parents, specialists, and janitors divide duties and lend aid in such a way that the principal finds the leisure of the Deity to whom a thousand years are but a day.¹ With such peace of mind born of genuine good-will the principal guides individuals belonging to the school, answers questions, holds conversation with big and little ones, admires, appraises, and is altogether human. Though this all sounds idealistic and impractical, it is truly living the "do unto others" of the Golden Rule.

Henry Turner Bailey has said, "In a work of fine art, every line, every element is significant, and all are related in such a way that the whole is greater than the sum of its parts." It has been our dream to make the administration of our school a work of fine art like a chord of music. In describing our program the writer hopes to show the gratitude she feels for many marvelous helpers and to suggest to other principals some useful procedures.

We have a 16 room building occasionally housing 18 teachers. The building has no auditorium or assembly room which fact alone has required originality in plan of administration. Since our taxable property is not great in value, the school's equipment is somewhat meager. This shortage has been a blessing in disguise, for it has encouraged much of the marvelous growth among teachers and children. Necessity is the mother of invention today as much as yesterday, and unfortunate, indeed, is the child or adult whose life presents no struggle for supremacy. We have no clerical help, and yet with this handicap we find time for others, as the 86 teachers and principals from distant cities who visited with us during the past school year.

¹The writer acknowledges much guidance from such books as: Hyde's, *The Teacher's Philosophy*; Tralle's, *The Psychology of Leadership*; Cobb's, *The New Leaven*; Lewis', *An Adventure with Children*; Yeoman's, *Shackled Youth*; and Maeterlinck's, *Wisdom and Destiny*.

The reality of administration is so vivid, yet so personal, that the setting down of the plan proves a difficult task. It is upon an intangible something we rely, a something one can *feel* and enjoy rather than talk about. Perhaps this something is called "spirit," or perhaps it is just called "common sense," but in either case it gives zest and love for our school and its work.

Our plan is simple—We allow persons the great pleasure of helping wherever and whenever they discover the opportunity. No helpers are appointed by anyone other than the individual himself. Any person large or small seeing a need, seeing a niche to fill, a spot in which to work appoints himself to that duty and continuously and faithfully attends to such matters of administration. Eyes are keen where hearts are light and praise is plenty and sincere; therefore, matters of routine receive adequate attention. To the boys and girls the school is a work-centered school. Errors they make, yet seldom the same error twice, for is not the school theirs to administer? Recently a member of one of our families was transferred to another school because of crowded conditions. The older brother, now twenty-one years of age, took the small sister to the city superintendent's office, where he entered complaint in this wise: "My sister must not be transferred. She cannot go to another school. You do not understand. When I was in that school I ran the school for Mrs. A. It is our school." And so, bless his heart, it is his school. He was little James from southern Italy, with an unusual power of organization, a sense of justice, and loyalty to duty. He can rightfully boast of achievement, for when tragedy entered the home of his principal James could report for his school at the end of her two weeks of absence, "All is well."

Perhaps the reader now visualizes the problem and the purpose back of our plan of administration. Division of labor, self-appointment to position, naturalness of setting, recognition of effort, and praise for achievement. The execution of this plan provides for duties attended to by children, teachers, parents, janitor, specialists, principal, and public.

Duties of children—Our boys and girls have built up a philosophy for living today, expressed at times thus: "We are Americans and American ends in *I can*." These boys and girls boast of no student council or of any authority other than being units of a single school organization. As principal, the writer arrives at the building by eight-thirty. The time of opening of doors for children to enter varies with the weather. This lack of fixed rules allows freedom for forming judgment and gives the human touch we so desire. Tony has

lived these past five years patiently awaiting his hour. It struck on the morning of September 4, 1929 when a dignified Tony was found caring for the early comers. By his efficiency, Tony that day elected himself as Captain of the School, and each day serves as added proof that Tony's judgment of this matter was most excellent, although at first his initiative was a surprise to several grown-ups. Tony knows how well his principal enjoys a good joke, a story, an opportunity to aid a teacher, and so Tony often administers while Mrs. A. supervises.

When muddy days come Harry meets the host of babies at the door, helps them remove galoshes, and close umbrellas. Harry was small, not so many years ago, and he knows how it feels to have a friend.

Vineland is widely advertised for its beauty; therefore if, for no other reason, there must never be paper on our grounds. This problem is easily managed, for, as the pupils pass in and out, they pick up bits of rubbish and place them in handy receptacles. Many hands make light work. In this connection, we should not forget Charles, four years retarded, according to a Binet test, who has assigned himself as caretaker.

When pupils enter our school careless in morals the principal has little cause for worry. There are several hundred standbys, knowing what is right, who will quickly explain that stealing, swearing, sneaking are things "not to be done" in our school.

Invitations, letters of thanks, articles for newspaper publicity are cared for by Nancy or Thelma or Joe. These children have reasoned that whether principal is present or absent, idle or busy, the courtesies of every day life must go on.

Tuesday is Bank Day, or Thrift Day. For more than three years the bank bag containing material has returned from the bank each Monday quite unobtrusively arriving upon the desk, mutely testifying to administrative cooperation.

During the World War music played a major part in a nation's successful policy of democratic administration. Music is useful at our school. The following words were written by a fifth grade to the tune of "Smiles":

In our school we're very happy
In our school good health is the rule
That is why we try not to be absent
Tardy, slow, or show no self control.
We all work to try to beat our record
And uphold the morals of our school
We are working for one great big motive
Citizens of East Avenue.

The words, loved greatly by the student body, have bolstered a spirit which in turn gives the principal and teachers many hours for pleasant supervision instead of wearisome administration. Day by day we continue planning, making judgments, doing that which will develop in others a behavior pattern not for school alone, but for all of life.

Duties of teachers—First, and greatest, by far, is that conscious determination within each individual to do, to be, to know, and to solve. Teachers with such desires are bound to read and to discuss, to visit and to question, to experiment and to check, thereby making teaching a profession, and each classroom a charming place for the occupants.

Our teachers, not to be outdone by pupils, become "understudies" of the principal. They feel the responsibility for the success of the entire school-unit. They travel and bring back ideas, welcome visitors, aid others with investigations and achievements, and make it a pleasant duty to sell the school to the public. Yet such teachers can laugh, tell jokes, and be happy, normal persons.

A school faculty thus equipped releases the principal from so many, many unnecessary or trifling details in administration that it is not hard to find time for much cheerful supervision, guidance, and advising.

Duties assumed by parents—Our parent-teacher association has the slogan: "The child is the starting point, the center, and the end."¹ The aim placed upon the printed yearly program is to be "A progressive P. T. A. in a progressive school." With such aim and such slogan no parent-teacher association would be guilty of taxing the principal with arranging programs, entertainments or other detail, which has so frequently used the time needed for supervision.

The philosophy of our district prevents nagging or calling attention to minor matters. Patrons are not willing to pay either principal or teachers for time spent investigating trifles, such as neighborhood quarrels and childhood's imaginative wrongs. Such philosophy may be worded: "Good business is never done except in a happy frame of mind."

Parents accept the obligation to send boys and girls to school regularly, clean, and healthy. They know that the home can facilitate school administration by sending children ready for the day's activities. Such parents have a keen sense of administrative values. Sometimes they seem to be asking in their homes: How can we save

¹Dewey, John. *The Child and the Curriculum*. University of Chicago Press, 1902.

our principal for the supervision which stands by patiently watching, guiding, or applauding creative effort?

Duties of the janitor—Our janitor has greater school spirit than many other janitors brought to my attention. Since he was once an English gardener, he holds the self-appointed office of landscape artist and interior decorator. He is never satisfied with his assigned tasks but devises surprises which bring him the thanks of boys, girls, teachers, and parents. M. G. is a gentleman who understands the value of patience with thoughtless children and busy teachers. His skill with all responsibilities saves the principal many wrinkles. Allowing a janitor freedom of action is one important formula for the efficient, democratic administration of a public school.

Duties of specialists—Supervisors and special workers help by reporting strengths in teachers and pupils, by keeping cumulative record cards, by planning observances for special days or weeks, by checking supply needs, and by adding their cheering laughs to the happiness of the building. We like to have them visit us and become a part of our "construction gang."

One specialist we especially enjoy is our city superintendent. He performs his duties as only a big man does, namely, by allowing others to understand and work out the common problems of the school system. By this cooperation of city and building administration the group releases superior officers for the greater duty of getting into close communion with little children. The superintendent dispenses with so much of the unreal and focuses definitely upon the real object of education, thereby making democratic administration a reality, not only a vision.

Duties of the principal—We summarize the principal's contribution to democratic administration as follows:

- (1) To plan definitely, not alone for the day or week, but for the end desired
- (2) To allow others to work, trusting to their judgment, realizing that the leader of the symphony orchestra does not play—he conducts
- (3) To execute his special duties with tact and despatch
- (4) And last, but by no means least, never to take himself too seriously.

Duties of the public—School administration relies greatly upon the clubs and organizations maintained by the people of the community. Our outside help includes: the Rotary's responsibility for the school's band, the Elks' assistance with the crippled kiddies, the Woman's Club's provision of milk to our undernourished pupils, and

the Kiwanis' aid to clean sports. These and many other helps are ours for a suggestion only.

Schools sometimes have special friends. We delight in the friendship of a wise and patient man from the "outside" world. He has met with us and given financial aid because it has been a pleasure for him to see our school thrive. Verily the great men of history are not all recorded in books.

Summary—Now you know the administration which seems to us really democratic. The substance of the whole matter is to emphasize essentials, or to do the things that count. If one's school is a factory it must be run as factory with great concern for things mechanical, but with this type of administration we concern ourselves little. The thing that counts here is the child.

Our administrative policy may be summarized as follows: division of labor in order that all the creative energies and social virtues develop for each individual through freedom. It has been our way of solving the necessary problem of social control. Since it so largely approximates the natural home life, which should be the heritage of boys and girls, we recommend the democratic way to others.

THE writer is not a fanatic as regards intelligence and achievement tests, and he has no sympathy with those who would relegate a child to the "dumb bell" class because he fails to get a high I. Q. or I. R. in a group test. Yet these tests, when rightly used, can supply valuable information to the teacher and give him an insight into the child's mind which can be gotten no other way.—Leonard M. Patton, see Chapter X

MAINTAINING COMMUNICATIONS WITHIN THE BUILDING

O. D. ENFIELD

Principal, Eastman School, Los Angeles, California

KEEPING in touch with teachers and pupils of a large elementary school is often a troublesome problem. Its solution is closely tied up with the efficient use of various devices in the management of a school. Most of the administrative problems connected with a well organized school, such as yard duty of teachers, supervised play, safety patrol and safety education, may be greatly facilitated by means of well-organized devices for keeping in touch with teachers and pupils. These devices will be discussed under the sub-heads of the following article.

Circulating notices—How best to avoid continuous interruptions of classroom work is a question that is always before us as principals. Few principals realize how much of the teacher's valuable time is used in reading notices sent during school time. A record kept over a period of two weeks will reveal some startling facts. The writer was chagrined to find that teachers were interrupted as many as 10 times during a single day. Each notice required on an average of two minutes to read, this meant 20 minutes each of 40 pupils' time. Multiplying this by 30 teachers you see why this is an important phase of administration.

Notices to teachers and pupils are of two kinds, emergency and regular. Emergency notices are sent by monitors at 9 A. M. and at 1 P. M. before classes are in regular session. Regular notices are best managed through teachers' organizations. All matters pertaining to safety, thrift, visual aids, and library may be put over to teachers and pupils through committee chairmen. In our school we use the following plan of committee organization.

TEACHERS ORGANIZATION OF THE EASTMAN SCHOOL

1. President
2. Secretary
3. Treasurer
4. Representatives to the City Teacher's Club (3)
5. Chairmen of groups
 - a. First and second grades
 - b. Third and fourth grades
 - c. Fifth and sixth grades

} These three chairmen meet the second Thursday each month
6. Committees
 - a. Library
 - b. Playground
 - c. Safety
 - d. Thrift
 - e. Visual education

} Each committee has representatives from the different grades. Most meetings at the call of the chairman

7. Council

- | | |
|---|---|
| a. General chairman | } Six persons who meet the fourth Thursday of every month |
| b. Chairmen of groups
(See 5 above.) | |
| c. Principal | |
| d. Vice-principal | |

Bulletin board and mail boxes—These provide excellent means of keeping teachers and pupils in touch with school routine. The bulletin board for teachers contains all bulletins issued by the superintendent's office and by supervisors of special subjects. All bulletins are reviewed by clerk and principal and the more important items are marked to call special attention. These notices are the basis for a daily calendar of meetings which is placed in mail boxes.

The bulletin board for pupils contains all notices pertaining to use of playground apparatus, safety posters, cafeteria menus, athletic events, and paper drives.

Mimeographed announcements—Mimeographed announcements such as letters to parents, letters to teachers, and principal's notes are a great saving of teachers' time. Letters to parents will be found to be a valuable means of putting over school activities of extra-curriculum nature. Letters to teachers provide a confidential conference that is well worthwhile.

The principal's notes are placed on the bulletin board each Thursday and contain references to the superintendent's bulletins and reviews of teachers' meetings. In this way teacher's meetings become a matter of record. This procedure has proved most valuable in getting important notices over to teachers.

The teachers' workbook—The teachers' workbook as used by the writer is still in the making. Teachers tend to take down notes incorrectly or to lose them altogether, and must bother the office with many unnecessary questions. Usually such inquiries pertain to schoolroom administrative procedures, such as keeping registers, arrangement of desk, making reports, and transferring of pupils. Much of the difficulty was eliminated by means of a sheet of instructions for teachers. Later it was found necessary to circulate the principal's program so that teachers could send pupils to the office, or come themselves for conference at convenient hours.

THE PRINCIPAL'S PROGRAM AS OUTLINED IN THE TEACHERS' WORKBOOK

- | | |
|-------------|---------------------------------------|
| 8:30- 9:00 | Office hours for parents and teachers |
| 9:00- 9:30 | Mail |
| 9:30-10:30 | Supervision |
| 10:30-10:45 | Yard |
| 10:45-11:30 | Supervision |

- 11:30-12:00 Clerical
- 12:00-12:30 Lunch and conference with teachers
- 12:30- 1:00 Yard and seeing pupils and teachers
- 1:00- 1:30 Clerical
- 1:30- 2:30 Supervision
- 2:30- 3:00 Conference with primary teachers
- 3:00- 3:30 Reports for plans for next day's work.

In a school of a thousand or more pupils it is necessary to have a schedule for visual education, library room, nurses schedule and others such as physical corrective work, speech correction, adult classes in millinery and sewing.

In this particular school the counselor service has taken on a new function and in doing so many of the counselor's duties have been delegated to teachers. This change has necessitated a schedule for testing.

The playground committee worked out a set of rules for the playground and placed a copy in the hands of each teacher.

PLAYGROUND RULES

1. *Accidents*—In case of accident, the office should be notified first and then the nurse. If the nurse is not present, notify parents and if parents are not at home, the child should be taken to the Emergency Hospital. In any case first aid should be given.
2. *Assignment of yard duty*
 - a. Primary teachers care for court and halls.
 - b. Third and fourth grade teachers east side around swings.
 - c. Fifth and sixth grade teachers west side around swings.
3. *General*
 - a. Morning teachers see that monitors put up ropes and swings and supervise same.
 - b. Teachers are to see that balls and bats are put away when bell rings.
 - c. Children not allowed in court at any recess.
 1. Morning and Noon—Grades 1st and 2d only.
 - d. No child is to remain on grounds from 2:00 to 3:00 without note from parent giving valid reasons.
4. *Schedule for apparatus*
 - a. Slides and swings for kindergarten, first and second grades.
 - b. Maypoles on west side are for boys in third grade and up and on east side for girls in third grade and up.
 - c. Bar south of bungalows for fourth, fifth, and sixth grade boys.
Bar of east side for girls only.
Small bar for grades 1, 2, and 3.

O. D. ENFIELD, *Principal*
EDITH J. HANSON, *Vice Principal*
IDA IRENE WHEELER
FLORENCE RAY ELLIOTT
Playground Committee

As stated earlier the teachers' workbook is still in preliminary form. Yet the mimeographed pages of devices assembled under one

cover has proved to be invaluable both from the standpoint of time saved and improved administrative technic. Following is a list of contents of the workbook:

CONTENTS OF TEACHERS' WORKBOOK

1. Principal's and vice-principal's program
2. Sheet of general instructions
3. Directory of teachers including grade and room number
4. Sheet of classification scheme
5. Sheet of various schedules
6. Sheet pertaining to attendance
7. Schedule of testing program
8. Yard or playground rules
9. Principal's visitation record
10. Teachers' administration organization
11. Teachers' instruction organization
12. Scale for rating teachers
13. Ideals of a superior teacher
14. Excellencies of teaching
15. Teachers' self rating blank
16. List of professional reading

Summary—In this article the author has given devices which are already well known to most principals. *Yet the practices, unique in the Eastman School, may offer suggestions and additions to those already in current operation.

In the mind of the author it seems the following conclusions might be drawn: First, by the use of these devices teachers are taught business-like methods; second, efficient devices certainly make for more accurate reports of various kinds; third, the time saved for pupils and teachers amounts to hundreds of dollars during a school year; and fourth, the time saved for the principal is invaluable.

SEE page 135 for suggestions on how you can be of help to the Editorial Committee.

THE DELEGATION OF EXTRA-CLASSROOM RESPONSIBILITIES

EDGAR A. STANTON

Principal, Lawton School, Seattle, Washington

THE GREAT number of duties for which the elementary school principal is responsible makes it imperative that many of them be assigned to others. A pupil or a clerk can attend to many details as well as or better than the head of the school. There are other matters that may safely be left to the judgment of a teacher or nurse. This leaves the principal freer for those questions of pupil adjustment, supervision, and community contacts that he alone can decide. Few people will disagree with the foregoing statement as a general proposition, but in actual practice among principals there is great variation of application.

Part of this difference in delegating duties comes from the diversity in organization of the schools themselves. In a platoon school with a special physical training teacher the coaching of athletic teams is not the same as in a smaller institution of the traditional type. Where a clerk comes every day she can undertake duties that she could not easily perform otherwise. In some situations pupils can be trained more easily to assume responsibility.

Plan of procedure—This last year one of the principals' study clubs of Seattle, Washington, undertook to find the present practice in the delegation of extra-classroom responsibilities among its own members and those of another similar organization. Because of the character of the membership of the clubs it was felt that the practice of the principals included would show desirable methods. The questionnaire attempted to get three kinds of information: (1) how some sixty duties common to most Seattle schools were assigned; (2) who selected the responsible persons (thereby indicating pupil participation in management); and (3) the effects upon teachers and pupils when extra-classroom duties are assumed by them.

Twenty-six replies were received, 14 from women principals and 12 from men. Eleven of the schools represented have the platoon organization. Seventeen have eight grades, seven have six, while two have five.

The data on the assignment of responsibilities are given in Table 1. Replies to the second and third sections of the questionnaire were not satisfactory for tabulation. However, several general conclusions on these last two sections have been included in the next paragraphs of interpretation.

TABLE 1—THE ASSIGNMENT OF EXTRA-CLASSROOM RESPONSIBILITIES IN TWENTY-SIX SEATTLE SCHOOLS

Management Activity	Number of schools Assigning Duty to each Person or Group								
	Principal	Principal and Teachers	Principal and Pupils	Principal and Clerks	Teachers	Teachers and Pupils	Pupils	Clerks	No Answer
1. Halls.....			2		3		18		3
2. Stairways.....		2			2		17		5
3. Basements									
Boys.....	4				3		17		2
Girls.....	3				5		18		
4. Grounds									
Before school..	4		5		1		8		8
Recess.....	5		8		5		6		2
Noon.....	5		5		4		9		3
Play period....		2			15	5	3		1
After school...	4				4	4			14
Cleaning.....						1	25		
5. Auditorium									
Stage.....					3		11		11
Chairs.....							12		3
6. Lunchroom									
Cashier.....	1			1	7		9	1	7
Order at tables	4				4		12		1
Picking up....					4		20		1
General charge	10				2		5		1
7. Milk distribution									
Collect money..					7		7	3 ¹	6 ²
Giving out....					3		12		11
Free milk.....	3				3		4	2	5 ²
8. First aid.....	9	4	3		1		2	1 ¹	6
9. Ringing bells ..							25		1
10. Lost and found..	5				1		13	6	1
11. Projection machine									
Use.....	4				3		16		3
Ordering slides	6				9		4	2	5
12. Phonograph records..	2				14		9	1	
13. Firedrills.....	13		3	2			7		1
14. Running mimeograph...				1			1	21	3
15. Running typewriter...							1	24	1
16. Repairing playground balls...	4						12	1 ³	2
17. Decorate classrooms...		7			11		5		3
18. Library									
Decoration...		1			8		4		13
Check books...		1			7		11		7
Care of books		5			5		10		6
19. Stockroom and bookroom									
Fill orders....	4		3	1			10	7	1
Care for.....			3	4			9	9	1

¹ Nurse (2). ² Cook. ³ Hired out.

TABLE 1—THE ASSIGNMENT OF EXTRA-CLASSROOM RESPONSIBILITIES IN TWENTY-SIX SEATTLE SCHOOLS—(Continued)

Management Activity	Number of schools Assigning Duty to each Person or Group									
	Principal	Principal and Teachers	Principal and Pupils	Principal and Clerks	Teachers	Teachers and Pupils	Pupils	Clerks	Janitors	No Answer
20. Maps.....	2				2		8	2		12
21. Art pictures.....	2				10		4	1		9
22. Banking Room collection.....		8			12		5			1
Building collection.....	6				2		7	4		7
23. Assemblies										
Singing.....	3	3			17					3
Programs.....	3	1	10		8		2			2
Orchestra.....					7	17 ¹				2
24. Safety patrol.....	12		5		5					4
25. Weigh pupils.....				6 ²	11		2	6 ²		1
26. Coaching										
Volley ball.....	1				8				1	16
Soccer.....	4				12		1		2	7
Handball.....	3				9				1	13
Baseball.....	5				16		1			4
27. Girls' athletics.....	1	1			13	1				10
28. Accompany										
Teams.....	5	8			9					4
Rooters.....	1	6			8					11
29. Copy pupil records.....					12 ³	1		10		3

¹ Special instructor. ² Nurse or teacher and nurse. ³ Two receive clerical help.

General interpretation—In some progressive schools the head of the institution is performing directly many operations that in other buildings are successfully carried on by the teachers or even pupils.

There are many variations of successful practice. A study of the individual returns shows that this holds even when the conditions and organization of given schools are as nearly as possible the same. Principals agree that pupils should ring the bells and clean up the grounds, and that the clerk with occasional assistance from the pupils should operate the typewriter and mimeograph. Beyond this, accurate generalizations are difficult or impossible.

It is very evident that boys and girls can be trained to assume a great many responsibilities. The individual reports show that regardless of the grades included in a school the older pupils can help greatly in management. One can hardly claim originality when advocating considerable pupil participation in the building load on the grounds that the educational growth of the boys and girls is promoted and the more valuable time of an older person conserved.

However, one should be careful not to have a child perform a minor routine duty for a considerable period after it has become mechanical. A boy may not exhaust the possibilities of the position of playground monitor in a semester, but the same does not necessarily hold true of washing dishes in the lunchroom.

Principals believe that participation in the extra-classroom responsibilities by teachers promotes growth of those engaged, but in order to assign the load equitably the delegation should be well planned.

The platoon organization in Seattle, though justified on other grounds, has not made it easier for teachers to assume many extra-classroom duties.

Conclusions—It is evident that among progressive principals more attention could profitably be given to the consideration of the delegation of extra-classroom duties. If pupils can manage lost and found articles in thirteen buildings should principals attend to them in five others? Whether the clerk or the teachers had best copy pupils index cards depends somewhat upon the amount of clerk time available. Whether the principal should delegate the management of the school safety squad may be determined by traffic conditions and the ability of upper grade teachers. Definite answers cannot be given without study of the particular problems involved. Perhaps this portrayal of conditions will encourage principals to analyze their own situations and to make every effort to rid themselves of routine management tasks.

Educational institutions throughout the country have been striving to reduce the annual toll of motor vehicle injuries and fatalities among children. Nevertheless it is doubtful if there has been any other problem in recent years which has suffered as much from opinionated guess work, ungrounded theories, and a superfluity of free advice.—G. C. Graham, see Chapter IX

YARD DUTY ASSIGNMENTS

R. W. KRETSINGER

Principal, Luther Burbank School, Oakland, California

ONE of the principal's problems in planning for the new school term is to organize the playground with the least difficulties and hardships for teachers and still obtain maximum results. The welcome change that has come about in the morale and spirit of the average school playground in the past years is sufficient evidence to prove the value of well organized school yards. For the most part order and contentment among children has come out of the chaos and conflicts of the uncontrolled school grounds.

Value of the play period to the teacher—At no period during the school day is there a better opportunity to develop a fine spirit of fair play among the pupils than during the play period. No time is as effective in building that essential feeling of comradeship between pupils and teachers and principal.

One progressive school uses the playtime for teachers to study children reactions in varied situations. At no time, perhaps, do children enter into activities as freely and unsuppressed as the recess and noon hours. From a close study of children at free time activities much interesting and important data can be found on problem children.

There is no doubt that the average teacher, as a rule, does not cherish her time on the yard. Most of them feel that it is one of the necessary matters of mere routine of school organization. Whenever the teaching force of a school can grow to feel that these periods are of real value in creating good feeling, assisting discipline, developing desirable citizenship and physical skills, then that school will be outstanding in the training of its pupils.

Various types of playground control—School ground organization varies greatly among elementary schools. Enquiry, by the writer, among principals of elementary schools showed that each school's organization was different from every other one in some manner. No doubt, these differences in playground control are desirable. Each school is a separate and distinct unit as far as its pupils, teaching personnel, and surrounding community are concerned. One cannot say, even after careful study of this subject, that any one type of yard organization is best. The type *best* for one school may not be suitable for another.

Let us discuss briefly some of the types of yard organization, keeping in mind that each type may be entirely satisfactory for certain situations.

School A has no yard schedule for teachers. No teacher is on the yard during the period before school in the morning, the recesses, or noon hour. The principal of this school is entirely successful in the work. He states that everything has run smoothly. Pupil monitors do what supervising is done. This type of control perhaps is not desirable in most cases. The school is open to too much criticism in case of accidents. Many parents, even at this time, after much stress has been placed on pupil participation, do not feel that children of elementary school age can accept such responsibility with safety. In many cases this has been proven to be true.

School B has a yard schedule prepared by the principal for the semester. In this school of over 900 pupils the same two teachers are on yard duty from 8:40 to 9:00 o'clock, all recesses, and from 12:30 to 1:00 o'clock each day for one week at a time. For several weeks then they have no yard duty. The custodian, together with Junior Traffic Boys, have charge of the yard from 12:00 o'clock to 12:30 at noon hour. The important question in regard to this organization is whether it would not be too strenuous for a teacher to cover all of the yard periods each day for one week. It may be well for every teacher to have some free period to himself for relaxation each day. If the custodian is the right type, one who has a sympathetic insight into child character and motives and who is liked by the children, he may be of great assistance during this noon hour.

School C uses practically the same program as B except that each teacher serves during all yard periods for just one day at a time. In this school a committee of teachers makes the schedule for the semester. This delegation of responsibility is an excellent idea and is in accord with the present day emphasis upon teacher and pupil participation.

School D uses a type of organization in which each teacher supervises just one of the yard periods a day for one week. For example, teacher X this week supervises the yard from 8:40 to 9:00 A. M. Next week he would supervise the morning recesses. The week following the noon hour would be his to supervise. Having covered all of the periods he would have two weeks with no yard duty. The teachers favor the plan in this school because it allows every teacher some free time every day.

School E had programmed the 20 minute physical education period each day in each room just before one of the recess periods. A program such as this permits the physical education activity to run on through the recess period. Often, it is true, the pupils are just getting thoroughly warmed up to their physical education work

when the period ends. An added recess period is an advantage. The classroom teachers as a rule stayed with the class to the completion of the activity.

The above schools are types. There are many variations of these organizations in other schools of the city.

Should games be under teacher control?—Today, in many schools, whatever type of yard organization is used, the organization of games during all free periods is placed under the direction of one specially chosen teacher. This teacher is chosen because of his love of athletics, his ability in games, and his understanding of children. He acts as a supplement to the regular yard teacher or teachers.

The "play" teacher has charge of forming complete schedules of games covering definite periods of time. One week is a very satisfactory unit. These schedules include inter-class boys games and girls games. It is well to schedule "A" and "B" teams for both boys and girls. In this way most of the pupils have an opportunity to participate. The schedule includes varied games such as batball, basketball, baseball, handball, and similar types. The games chosen are those in season, the ones stressed by the course of study for the period, and also those games that fit in with the program of the local recreation and playground department.

A Referee Club is organized. This group meets once a week to discuss any problem that has arisen during the week and to study rules of games. These referees are chosen after passing tests on rules of various games together with the recommendation of the teachers. The position of referee is held to be an honor and a real privilege. The referees run the game schedule under direction of the teacher director. Such a plan keeps a large proportion of the older pupils busy in constructive play.

School D, cited above, has organized a small group of reliable fifth and sixth grade girls into a Play Directors' Club. The group organizes the play of the primary children during free periods. The plan has been very effective. There is an objection to this plan of having every free period filled with completely organized and scheduled games. The pupils are carefully directed during their required physical education period. At some periods during the day, no doubt, children would like to have complete choice of their own activities. It is true play should not be too closely controlled. To remedy this danger of too much oversight of play, some schools have the scheduled organized games only during the noon hour. At recesses and in the morning the pupils organize their own games as they wish.

Closely connected with this problem of playground is that of pupils' lunch hour. The method of dealing with this problem varies

a great deal in schools. School B, cited above, requires all pupils who eat lunch at school to remain in their rooms to eat under the charge of a class monitor. This conformity is required every day, rain or shine. It is thought to be more sanitary, less apt to leave the grounds in an unsightly manner, and easier to check on any trouble that might arise since all pupils are in definite places.

Other schools having no cafeteria, use the same type of organization except that in good weather children are required to eat outdoors in the sunshine.

Whatever plan the school uses it is well to permit no pupil to play games or to use apparatus until after a certain minimum time has been spent at lunch. If this is not done pupils bolt their food or throw it away in order to gain the first chance at a bar, a ring, or a handball court.

Basic principles and conclusions—Whatever type of yard organization the school has, several principles hold true:

1. Pupil monitors can well be used in the control of yard and toilets. This assignment is worthwhile training for children. It gives them a desired sense of responsibility. Most children consider it a privilege, but teachers must check these monitors at times in their work. They will find some pupil monitors who are over-zealous in their duty, others partial to friends and unfair to those they may not like so well, and others too timid to be at all effective.

2. The teacher on yard should inspect toilet rooms at times. The custodian and man principal can do this for boys' toilets. If there is a gang with low standards of morals the toilet-rooms often become the source of much obscenity, vandalism, and bad training for others.

3. The yard teacher should keep especially close control of any apparatus that may be a source of accident. Accidents are, of course, a hardship to the injured child and too often are the source of ill-feeling of parents toward the school.

4. Every teacher should be scheduled alike for yard duty, unless in some unusual case, the teacher has other school duties to perform. The teacher-librarian would not be on yard duty at any time. His extra time should be spent in library work. The teacher who organizes and directs the game program during free periods should have no other yard duty. There may be other teachers in certain schools who should be excused.

5. An efficient system of handling playground supplies must be provided. If the school has enough equipment perhaps the best method is for each room to have its quota of balls and bats. The

rooms are held strictly accountable for these. Their own ball monitors keep accurate check each play period. If there is a limited amount of equipment it is best to have a head ball-monitor for the school with his assistants. It is the duty of these monitors to check the equipment from a central location.

6. Perhaps most important of all, teachers should feel the importance of yard duty. It should be something more than police work if its maximum value is to be gained. It is an opportunity to study the child in informal activities. It is one of the best means of promoting good relationships between teachers and pupils. The increase in good physical tone and good school morale is worth the time and effort spent in organizing yard duties effectively.

IT IS now well-understood that a principal needs to budget his time and systematize his work if he is to devote an adequate amount of time to supervision. Careful planning and thoughtful organizing ought to result in a system of administration which will save time and help to produce a more efficient school.—Ida V. Flowers, see Chapter IV

MANAGING THE SCHOOL CAFETERIA

WILLIAM S. BRISCOE

Principal, Chabot School, Oakland, California

WHAT is the principal's responsibility for the school cafeteria? How can he perform his duties without seriously encroaching upon the time required for supervision of instruction? The writer will attempt to answer both questions by describing in some detail his experiences with a school lunchroom. Emphasis will be placed upon the principal's rôle, for even the delegation of duties to a cafeteria manager does not free the administrator from certain responsibilities. Some of these specific duties are as follows:

- (1) To determine the need for a cafeteria
- (2) To select the manager and cooks
- (3) To advise on the menu
- (4) To direct the serving and the dining room management during the lunch period
- (5) To inspect the sanitation and cleanliness
- (6) To oversee purchasing
- (7) To check and audit the accounting
- (8) To analyze costs
- (9) To meet any special problems that arise.

Determining the need for a cafeteria—A cafeteria is needed and justifies itself if a large number of children carry lunches, if a cafeteria would improve the quality of the food they eat, if it would improve the conditions under which the food is eaten, and if the parents want a cafeteria and will have their children patronize it. How to obtain these facts should be sufficiently obvious. A survey of the patrons by questionnaire sent out from the school or through the parent-teacher association is one good way. The parent-teacher association ought to support the idea before organization goes forward.

Selecting the manager—Too much care cannot be exercised in the selection of a manager. It is of the first importance that she should be an excellent cook. The quality of the cooking is undoubtedly the main factor in selling the cafeteria to the children and to the parents. Second, the manager should be economical in the saving and cooking of food. Her third qualification should be good health. Finally, she ought to be conscientious, reasonably easy to work with, and preferably have had experience in quantity cooking. The last experience is not indispensable if she is intelligent, and if the teachers assist her by taking the lunch orders as soon as school opens.

The responsibilities of the manager need to be carefully outlined and definitely understood. The following list of duties and responsibilities has been found useful in our school:

- (1) The cafeteria manager shall be responsible for the general management of the cafeteria.
- (2) She shall outline the duties of helpers and inform the principal of these.
- (3) She shall make up the menus at least two weeks in advance and shall have them approved by the school nurse—one copy of all menus to be filed with the principal.
- (4) All food shall be ordered by the manager from firms agreed upon by the manager and the principal, except purchases out of petty cash which may be made at her discretion. The manager shall keep an order book and a file of delivery slips and invoices and shall check all deliveries against delivery slips.
- (5) The manager shall check the inventory and report thereon to the principal and the treasurer once each month.
- (6) The manager shall cook or direct the cooking of all food, and shall taste all food before it is offered for sale.
- (7) She shall oversee the serving table during lunch hour.

Advising on the menu—The menu, to be simple, tasty, healthful, and inexpensive, requires careful attention. In collecting and studying menus and suitable dishes, the principal may find it advisable to assist his manager. Further aid can be given by a P. T. A. cafeteria committee. Such practices protect the cafeteria from unfounded rumors concerning the nature and quality of the food served. Foods that do not pass the periodical inspection of the school nurse must be eliminated. Some expensive dishes, those which cannot be served for five cents a helping, will have to be ruled out. Such standardization not only facilitates the direction of the menu, but also simplifies the finances.

A cafeteria committee appointed by the superintendent's council, and assisted by the Research Division of the Oakland Public Schools, has prepared, for high schools, the suggested menus and portions given in Tables 1 and 2. These tables are also useful for elementary schools.

TABLE 1—SUGGESTED MINIMUM MENUS

Meat-Vegetable Menu	Meat-Substitute-Fruit Menu
1 Soup (preferably vegetable stock)	Milk, chocolate, or cocoa
1 Meat or animal protein	1 Egg or cheese dish (may be dessert such as custards, ice cream, etc.)
1 Concentrated vegetable, such as potatoes, lima beans, navy beans, etc.	
2 Succulent or leafy vegetables, such as string beans, asparagus, spinach, etc.	
1 Vegetable salad, containing 2 or more vegetables	1 Fruit salad
1 Bread (preferably whole wheat)	1 Bread (preferably whole wheat)
1 Dessert (not including ice cream)	2 Desserts including ice cream, such as cooked fruit, custards, etc.

TABLE 2—RECOMMENDED STANDARD PORTIONS AND PRICES FOR HIGH SCHOOLS

Food	Price in Cents		Standard Portion	Explanation
	JHS	SHS		
Soup.....	5	5	1 Standard ladle.	
Salad				
Canned or mixed fruit or Vegetable				
Diced.....	5	5	2 Standard serving spoons.	Recommended that 2 standard portions be served on 1 plate for those desiring larger salads.
Sliced.....	5	5	No standard portion possible yet.	
Fresh Fruit or Vegetable				
Diced.....	5-10	5-10	2 Standard serving spoons.	
Sliced.....	"	"	"	
Meat or Fish.....	5	5-10	2 Standard serving spoons.	
Potatoes (includes gravy).....	5 5	5 5	1—No. 12 scoop. 2—No. 24 scoops.	
Other vegetables.....	5	5	1—No. 3½ Fruit dish (Sauce dish)	
Meat dishes..... (including gravy)	5 maxi- mum	5-10	No standard portion possible yet.	Recommended that meat substitutes be served if present prices prevail. Otherwise money lost on meats will have to be covered by profits on other foods.
Macaroni, etc.....	5	5	1—No. 3½ Fruit dish (More accurate than 2 serving spoons.)	
Sandwiches				
Plain.....			2 Average slices sandwich bread.	Unless bread slicer is used and set for uniform thickness, portions cannot be exactly standardized.
Toasted.....	5 5	5 7	Filling and butter. Same as above.	
Bread or rolls.....	1 3 5	1 3 5	1 Slice bread. 1 Roll and butter. 2 Rolls and butter.	
Hot bread				
Corn bread and butter	5	5	1 Cut—4" x 3" x 2"	
Biscuit.....	5	5	2	
Muffin.....	5	5	1	

TABLE 2—RECOMMENDED STANDARD PORTIONS AND PRICES FOR HIGH SCHOOLS
(Continued)

Food	Price in Cents		Standard Portion	Explanation
	JHS	SHS		
Butter.....	1	1	1 piece (Cut 60 pieces to lb.)	
Desserts.....	5	5	1 Custard cup or	Recommended against bulk on account of waste—cannot accurately calculate profit.
Custards and puddings			1 No. 3½ Fruit dish.	
Fruit sauces.....	5	5	1 No. 3½ Fruit dish.	
Jello—and 1 tsp.			1 No. 3½ Fruit dish or	
cream.....	5	5	1 Standard mold.	
Ice cream.....	5	5	1 Slice. (Cut 8 to quart)	
			1 Small paper tub (2 fluid ounces)	
			1 No. 24 scoop.	
Cake				
10" tin—2 layers.....	5	5	1 Cut (10 cuts to cake)	
8" tin—2 layers.....	5	5	1 Cut (8 cuts to cake)	
Pie				
12" tin.....	5	5	1 Cut (7 cuts to pie)	
10" tin.....	5	5	1 Cut (6 cuts to pie)	
9" tin.....	5	5	1 Cut (5 cuts to pie)	
Milk.....	5	5	1 ½ pt. bottle.	
Orange juice, etc.....	5	5	1 ½ pt. bottle.	

Directing the service and the dining room—The cafeteria service should be prompt. Children should not spend time in line that should be given to play. At the peak load 10 children per minute should pass the cash register. No child should have to wait longer than five to eight minutes. This speed is possible if the serving organization is efficient, if the lunch hour is divided into serving periods, and if the children are trained to make choices quickly.

In allotting dining room duties, the manager had better assume responsibility for the steam table and the serving counters. An assistant may be held responsible for keeping the serving tables supplied with dishes and food. The manager and assistant may each have a number of pupil assistants whose duties are definitely understood.

Ordinarily it will be found advisable to divide the lunch hour into serving periods of approximately 10 minutes each. At Chabot School it has been possible to serve 200 children in 25 minutes by having the lunch hour divided into one ten and three five minute

periods. Teachers in grades one, two, and three arranged their programs so that a 15 minute health period came just before lunch. One group went to the cafeteria 15 minutes to twelve, one at 10 to twelve, the fourth grade at five to twelve, and the fifth and sixth grades at twelve o'clock.

This plan was found not only to simplify the task of the cafeteria workers but it did much to diminish the restlessness and rowdiness of the waiting line. Moreover, children will not utilize the cafeteria if they must give up too much of their play time.

The management of the dining room is a teaching matter. At our school it was advisable to begin training children to use the cafeteria while they were still in the kindergarten. The teacher took the children to the cafeteria before or after lunch hour and had them practise passing in the serving line. At Hallowe'en and at Washington's Birthday they decorated the cafeteria with their drawings and cut paper work. Once each semester they had a party there. The aim, in the kindergarten, was to develop in the children a desire to eat in the cafeteria, a pride in its appearance, and a knowledge of how to buy a lunch.

The first, second, and third grades were accompanied to the cafeteria by their teachers, who directed the selection of food and in general observed the conduct of the children. During the health period the children discussed problems of the cafeteria, such as selection of food, manners, and courtesy.

Pupils of the fifth and sixth grades assisted successfully in keeping order, in serving, and in taking the money.

Inspection of sanitation—The cleanliness of the lunch room has been checked from time to time on a sanitation scale¹ (next page).

Overseeing the purchasing—It is advisable that purchasing be done by a central agency for several cafeterias in order to secure the advantages of large lot and contract buying. Where such an arrangement is not possible it is best for the principal and manager to agree upon a few firms from which all purchases shall be made. Exceptions might be made for fresh vegetables, eggs, and butter which may be bought more cheaply out of petty cash at the produce markets. This plan usually gives better service and makes it easier for the principal to keep a continuous check on the buying.

It is not unusual for stores to mail bi-monthly statements and to give discount credits as though invoices were paid separately. Such

¹ Prepared by Mr. C. C. Grover, Research Division, and Miss Leslie G. Smith, Director of Home Economics, Oakland Public Schools.

SANITATION SCALE

I. FREQUENCY OF CLEANING

A. *Tables, Floors, and Counters*

Dining room	Kitchen	Serving counter	Dining tables
Should be mopped once per week.	Should be mopped 3 times per week.	Should be cleaned 5 times per week.	Should be cleaned 6 times per week.

In the dining room, surface of floors, finish of tables, and counters should be such as may be cleaned easily.

Special attention should be given to steam table, urns, and ice cream cabinets.

B. *Equipment*

Stove	Work tables	Sinks
Should be wiped daily and scrubbed weekly.	Should be wiped daily and scrubbed weekly.	Should be well cleaned daily.

Attention should be given to oven when liquid overflows.

Beaters	Bowls	Chopper	Body of mixer
Should be sterilized* daily.	Should be sterilized* daily.	Should be sterilized* when used.	Should be wiped after use.

C. *Dishes, Cooking Utensils, and Refrigerator*

Dishes	Cooking utensils	Refrigerator
Should be sterilized* daily.	Should be sterilized* daily.	Should be wiped out daily and scrubbed weekly.

* Sterilization is used here to indicate rinsing in boiling water.

II. PROTECTION OF FOOD

Serving counter	Supply rooms	Kitchen
Food should be on counter not more than one hour before serving. It should be free from flies.	Should be well ventilated. Flour, sugar, vegetables, etc., should be in mouse-proof containers. Should be free from flies.	Food should be covered as much as possible until ready to be served. Should be free from flies.

III. PERSONAL SANITATION

Hair	Dress	Lockers and dressing room facilities
Should be covered with cap or hair net.	Wash dress or apron uniform should be provided.	Lockers should be provided for wash dresses, aprons, and street clothes. Lavatory should be provided.

A physical examination, given by the Health Department of the Public Schools, or by the City Health Department, should be required of every employee who handles food.

a plan makes account keeping easier for the treasurer and auditing of the accounts much easier for the principal.

Checking the accounting—Accounting involves not only the book-keeping, but the management of inventory records, the cash, the plan for ordering supplies, and the filing system.

A. The cash—There are various methods of handling the cash. Some schools sell tickets which can be punched as used, the cash being collected in the school-room or in the cafeteria. The checking against ticket sales is made in the school office.

Tickets are a convenience to parents but require additional bookkeeping, inasmuch as a liability account must be set up to show the outstanding tickets. If possible, it seems most desirable to have children pay in cash for each article purchased. Such a practice decreases record keeping for the school and teaches the children to take care of money. Some losses are to be expected, but children also lose tickets. When the children are young and the lunch money seems likely to be lost, it can be deposited with the teacher in a lock box containing a series of compartments with an aperture above each and the child's name upon each compartment. Each child as he comes into the room drops his lunch money into the aperture next to his name, or the teacher does it for him. It is then an easy matter to pass the money out again at lunch time.

If the cafeteria has a cash register, checking the cash is simplified. Without a register the cash can be checked by means of sales slips. If a number of five and one cent tickets are printed, a check can be secured by having one pupil receive cash while another drops tickets into a box for the amount of each tray that passes. The total of the cash should equal the total of the tickets. Perhaps the customary procedure is to depend upon the accuracy and honesty of the cashier. Many schools appoint a teacher to receive the cash, but this seems unnecessary, for sixth grade children can be taught to handle the cash accurately and rapidly. Two sixth grade children in our school have made records of two and three months respectively without a single error.

The principal ought to call for a daily record of receipts, and to check the cash personally at frequent intervals. If accurate records are kept he will be able to know within a few cents of how much the cafeteria must take in to pay for itself, provided of course the menus are fairly standardized.

B. The inventory—An accurate inventory once each month is desirable. This task is greatly facilitated by the use of an inventory book which can be made by the children of the upper grade classes. Arrange the food supplies, paper plates, and other articles in alphabetical order and with prices indicated. A small card file may be used instead of a book. Figuring inventory prices and totaling the inventory may be used occasionally as an arithmetic project for one of the upper grades. The manager, however, should be responsible for the stock. She should possess the only key to the storeroom. Moreover, by requiring all employees of the cafeteria to sign the payroll night and morning at the principal's office, the opportunity for filching is greatly lessened.

C. Orders and invoices—The manager of the cafeteria orders all food as needed. Where standard methods of central purchasing are not possible, record keeping will be greatly simplified, service improved, and the task of checking by the principal facilitated, if purchases are made from a few reliable stores. Odds and ends can be purchased out of petty cash. The cafeteria manager should have a file for each firm. She should check deliveries against delivery slips or invoices, indicate their accuracy by initialing them, and file such slips or invoices in their proper places. These slips should be checked periodically against the statements sent to the principal's office.

D. Keeping the accounts—Bookkeeping is simplified if all entries are made at the time the bi-monthly statements are paid.

The invoice files constitute a record of the accounts payable, and ordinarily no other record of bills payable is necessary. At the end of each month or bi-monthly period the cafeteria bookkeeper should collect all invoices from the manager, check them against the statements, and pay them by check. Careful notes should be made on the check stub of the amount, the payee, and for what the item was paid.

Receipts, consecutively numbered, should be issued to the cafeteria manager for the total food sales for the month as evidenced by daily bank deposits.

No books other than a columnar cash book are necessary. A ten column cash book with headings as shown in Figure 1 would perhaps afford adequate analysis.

E. Explanation of the accounting sheet—Column 1. Enter here all bank deposits. Inasmuch as these come from food sales, the total of this column gives the total food sales.

Column 2. Enter here all payments by check. Since no payments are made unless by check, except from petty cash, the total of this column gives the total of expenditures.

Entries made in Column 2 should be entered again under one of 7, 8, 9, or 10 or distributed between them according to the nature of the payment. Thus a payment of \$10 for labor will appear in column 2 and again in column 9.

Column 3 is merely a balance column. The last balance should check with the bank account.

Column 4 is an asset account which shows the amount of money in petty cash, for which the cafeteria manager is responsible. Thus, if \$15 is kept as petty cash, the manager is responsible for that sum less the amount of the receipted bills she may have for purchases made from petty cash. When she wishes to reimburse the petty cash fund she turns in her receipted bills to the treasurer who credits them and writes a check to her for the total thus restoring her petty cash fund. For this transaction no entry is made under petty cash, the entry being made in column 2 and distributed over columns, 7, 8, or 10 according to the nature of the purchases, practically all of the items falling in column 8. Only two entries appear in column 4, one at the beginning of the year when the petty cash account is opened, and one in red ink at the end of the year when petty cash is closed into the bank.

Column 5 is an asset account the first entry of which shows the value of inventory at the beginning of the month, and the last entry (in red) the value at the end of the month.

Column 6 is a book account for depreciation. The amount which is to be set aside for depreciation is entered each month. The total of the column represents the total amount which is set aside for depreciation. In figuring the unencumbered bank balance, this amount less the total of items in column seven should be subtracted from the bank balance.

Column 7 is used for entering expenditures for replacements and repairs. The total of this column represents a deduction from column 6. It shows the amount of the depreciation reserve which has been spent for repairs or replacement.

Columns 8, 9, and 10 are expense accounts. These were explained above in discussing column 2.

Analyzing costs—Analysis of costs under conditions described here, where the menu is standardized and labor routinized, has shown that the costs of Chabot cafeteria were as follows:

Item	Percent of gain
Cost of food.....	59.5
Salaries	31.0
Profits	4.5
Overhead	2.5
Depreciation	2.5
	100.0

Careful study by the Oakland Cafeteria Committee has lead them to the conclusion that salaries should not amount to more than 30 percent of the total income. Experience would seem to indicate that food costs may not run higher than about 63 percent. It would be folly to insist that no more than a certain percent should be spent for food. Of course, if there is profit beyond a reasonable saving for emergencies, it should be returned to pupils in improved quality of food or service, or in increased size of servings, or in reduced prices.

Inasmuch as the menu and other factors may be standardized, a simple scale can be made up which will aid the principal in keeping track of the financial situation from day to day, the determining variable being the daily income. A scale which was prepared for one school is shown in Table 3.

TABLE 3—ALLOTMENT SCALE FOR CAFETERIA EXPENSES

Daily income	Labor and depreciation	Food and overhead (62% of income)	Total costs for day	Loss or gain
\$22.00.....	7.10	13.64	20.74	+1.26
21.00.....	7.10	13.02	20.12	+ .88
20.00.....	7.10	12.40	19.50	+ .50
19.00.....	7.10	11.78	18.88	+ .12
18.68.....	7.10	11.58	18.68	0
18.00.....	7.10	11.16	18.26	— .26
17.00.....	7.10	10.54	17.64	— .64
16.00.....	7.10	9.92	17.02	—1.02

Meeting special problems—The following reports are given to show how the principal may use cost analysis in meeting special problems. In this case the manager resigned because of ill health. The statistics of Tables 4 and 5 tell the story.

TABLE 4—FINANCIAL STATEMENT FOR JANUARY, 1929

Food sales		\$430.67
Purchases	\$254.88	
Initial inventory	84.42	
To be accounted for.....	\$339.30	
Less final inventory.....	81.49	
Cost of goods sold.....		257.81
Gross profit.....		\$172.86
Less expense:		
Salaries	\$136.80	
Depreciation	10.00	
Garbage and laundry.....	4.00	
Total expense		150.80
Net profit		\$22.06
Percent of cost due to food costs 59 percent+		

TABLE 5—FINANCIAL STATEMENT FOR FEBRUARY, 1929

(Cafeteria under a new manager)

Food sales		\$390.50
Purchases	\$308.08	
Initial inventory	81.49	
To be accounted for.....	\$389.57	
Less final inventory.....	102.62	
Cost of goods sold.....		286.95
Gross profit		\$103.55
Less expenses:		
Salaries	\$132.80	
Equipment	1.50	
Service and laundry.....	3.00	
Total expenses		137.30
Net loss		\$ 33.75

Analysis of the costs shown in Tables 4 and 5 is as follows:

Percent of costs due to food costs: January, 59; February, 73; Up, 14 percent.

Percent of costs due to food costs first five months: 60.

Percent of costs due to salaries: January, 31; February, 31.

Decrease in income: 10 percent (this was offset, however, by a short month).

Remedy: (1) Check over the menus carefully to see if more expensive food is being served; (2) check to see if helpings are bigger; (3) check to see if there is more waste.

Result: (1) Found cooking a little more costly; (2) found servings to be slightly bigger than formerly, jello servings measured one-seventh bigger than formerly.

TABLE 6—PROFIT AND LOSS FOR MARCH, 1929

Total food sales for the month.....	\$400.21
Initial inventory	\$102.62
Purchases	242.62
To be accounted for.....	\$345.24
Final inventory	104.10
Cost of goods sold.....	241.14
Gross profit	\$159.07
Less expenses:	
Salaries	\$129.80
Garbage	2.50
Depreciation ..	10.00
Total expenses	142.30
Net profit	\$16.77

Summary—If the preceding discussion has not been of value to anyone the cause of its futility is, doubtless, in part the obviousness of the theme, for it does seem obvious that the principal can perform his functions as supervisor of the cafeteria most efficiently if he:

1. Employs a good manager.
2. Develops a menu standardized as to food values and costs.
3. Makes the dining period give educational account of itself in the training of children in health habits and in self-control and courtesy and in self-management.
4. And, if he provides for an adequate accounting system that the state of finances may be known to him and to the manager, and if such a system provides for such financial analysis as to insure wise management.

JOB analysis should take into consideration the specific duties and obligations which the principal has to perform. These should be arranged according to their frequency, periodicity, and length of time required. From a study of these values the principal should work out a practical time schedule and try to adjust his work and habits so as to permit him at least to approximate the schedule.—George D. Taylor, see Chapter V

MAKING THE LUNCHROOM AN EDUCATING FACTOR

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EVERY experience in the child's life should contribute to his education in intellect and noble character. Every piece of school equipment should be put to the test as an instrument for this purpose. All the machinery of organization should be made to give an account of itself as to how it will contribute to this ideal. The purpose and objectives of the school should be carefully weighed to determine their value in the process of character formation. Since "every hair casts a shadow," every influence should be on the right side. It is the numerous little and often unobserved things that are most powerful in shaping the lives of the children. From the top of the divide the water may be easily sent to opposite oceans. Near the beginning the course of the stream may be changed by small influences. Life gathers force from small tributaries at first, and with these cuts a channel deep and difficult to change. For a pure and wholesome current, the little stream should take the right course and all of its tributaries should be free from poison.

An influence in education that has power far beyond what is usually recognized is the school lunchroom. Through it the pupils are trained in the courtesies and proprieties, or they are trained in boorishness and selfishness; they are trained in good manners or bad manners; they are trained in honesty or dishonesty; they are trained in cleanliness or slovenliness and foulness; they are trained in carefulness or carelessness; they are trained in consideration for others or in disregard for the rights and feelings of others. This kind of training has more to do with the shaping of the destinies of the individual child than anything else, and, hence, the lunchroom is a very important factor in his education.

Cleanliness in the lunchroom—For a really successful and efficient school lunchroom some things are desirable and others are highly essential. First among the desirable things is a commodious room, well constructed, well lighted, well ventilated, and conveniently situated. The room should be large enough to accomodate all the pupils of any one lunch period without crowding, allowing them ease and freedom at the table.

The floors should be of such material and construction as to insure the greatest degree of cleanliness and the least degree of noise. If milk or soup is ever spilled upon the floor, it should be possible to clean the floor readily without leaving grease stains. The floor should be smooth and not easily penetrated by grease. Not only should the floor be clean, it should *appear* clean at all times, for the sake of the

subconscious influence upon the children. There should never be any discolored spots or streaks of stain upon it. The greatest care should be given to the composition and construction of the lunchroom floor. If there must be economy in the construction of the floors in any part of the building, let it be in some other part of the building, or even in every other part of the building rather than in the lunchroom.

Every part of the lunchroom and kitchen should be well-lighted. Sunlight should be admitted freely here, both for the sanitary effect and for the cheery appearance and pleasure that it brings. It is more difficult to keep a dark room clean than a well lighted one. No school lunchroom is ever properly lighted solely by electricity. Germs and vermin cannot easily endure the sunlight, but they flourish in the dark. The pupil's appetite frequently fails in the poorly lighted lunchroom, and everything should be done to promote the appetites of undernourished children especially.

The walls of the lunchroom should be clean, bright, and attractive. Excellent pictures upon the walls here will be of greater benefit to the children than in any part of the building. Consequently there should be a few of the most attractive and pleasing pictures upon the walls of this room. Everything should be done to make the lunch a feast and a pleasure for the children. The room, in its construction, decoration, and furnishings, should have some of the attractiveness and refinement of a good dining room in a private home, not only for the physical welfare of the children, but for the refinement of their lives and manners.

The serving counter should be commodious. There should be a bountiful supply of food of wide variety, attractively displayed upon it without crowding. There should be steam compartments in this counter for keeping all foods hot that are to be served hot. There should be a refrigeration ice cream cabinet, and an iced chamber for milk. The greatest care should be exercised to keep all these foods perfectly wholesome and most appetizing.

The tables on which the children eat should be clean and attractive at all times, and they should be of such material and construction as to be easily cleaned. There should be separate tables reserved for teachers.

In the elementary school the lunchroom should be situated on the first floor if possible. This floor is in every way the most convenient situation. The access to it and the exit from it are most easy. This situation provides the easiest supervision, and a great abundance of sunlight. The children can pass easily from first floor lunchroom to the playground without disturbing other school activities.

The most highly essential requirement for a school lunchroom is cleanliness. A lunchroom that is not decidedly clean should not exist. If the lunchroom is not properly located and constructed, cleanliness becomes a much more serious problem, but if it cannot be kept perfectly clean, it should be abolished. It should be considered a high crime to prepare food for children in a dirty school kitchen and serve it to them in a dirty lunchroom. Health and life depend upon cleanliness here.

There should be sufficient help in the kitchen, and the help should be well trained and efficient. The helpers should be attractively clean and neat in person and dress at all times. They should know the hygienic requirements for a good kitchen and they should conscientiously observe them. They should keep ceiling and walls brushed down. They should wash and scour the floor daily, using hot water.

The pantry room should be large, well-lighted, and as near vermin proof as it is possible to make it. It also should be kept scrupulously clean. The walls and shelves should be brushed down, and the floor thoroughly cleaned daily. No dust of flour or other food should be left upon shelves or floor, nothing that would attract insects or vermin. The floor should be scalded and scoured frequently. This cleanliness should be done for the sake of the health of the children. All foods, except canned foods, should be kept in metal containers, so that it will be impossible for rats, mice, or roaches to get into it. If such animals or insects are permitted to visit the food bins, the contamination may in time reach the children unless the most scrupulous care is insisted upon. The storage pantry should never be in a basement or other place where the walls or floor become damp in rainy weather.

Of course only the best of foods should be served to children. They should be fresh and well prepared. They should be of a high food value, and suited to the digestive powers of the boys and girls. They should be the best possible for the building of strong healthy bodies. They should also appeal to the appetites of the children without being highly seasoned or much sweetened.

Courtesy in the lunchroom—When all the above conditions have been properly provided for the securing of good behavior on the part of the pupils at lunch is not a difficult task. It is largely a matter of education and training. Our children do not all come from homes of refinement. Many of them have not been trained in table manners or dining room etiquette. Since this is a very essential part of their education, attention should be given to it in all the departments.

In one school of which I shall speak this training in the proprieties is closely linked up with all the departments and all subjects taught.

The teachers find various ways, even in arithmetic and geography, to link this important part of education with the subject being taught. However, most of the training is more direct. The auditorium and physical education teachers take the leading responsibility in this training. They give the pupils definite instruction in the proprieties and amenities of the dining room. The children talk about good table manners, and then are given every possible incentive for practising them in the lunchroom.

For the sake of deepening the impression the principal also stresses the value of good table manners and proper dining room conduct, illustrating and enlivening the teaching by means of story and anecdote. The principal's chief work in this training, however, is done in careful planning for smooth, quiet, harmonious, orderly service and movements in the lunchroom. He prevents disorders by foreseeing them and providing against them. Confusion and bad deportment do not arise if every occasion for them has been removed. Efficient planning is extremely essential and the principal recognizes his responsibility for this work.

The principal determines in advance the time for each lunch period; the sequence of classes at the cafeteria counter; the place of the different kinds of foods on the counter; the assignment of tables to the different classes; the signals by which the different classes are to come; the disposition of trays, table ware, and milk bottles; and all the other details that will aid in the orderly serving of large groups of children. He arranges that the pupils shall come by classes, and proceed to the table designated for their respective classes. For each table a host or hostess is appointed, one who can be depended upon to set a good example in table manners and one who will show every courtesy possible to his or her "guests," the members of the class. These hosts or hostesses are instructed never to use any authority but that of courtesy, fine manners, and persuasion.

A "Courtesy Mentor" is also appointed from the upper grade pupils to be generally helpful throughout the lunch period. He moves from place to place, giving whatever assistance may be needed, calling the janitor or dishwasher as their services are required, helping the new pupil to a happy adjustment to his environment, and doing the many little necessary things that a good father or a good mother would do for the children while they are at dinner.

At the close of each lunch period stars are awarded to those tables where courtesy and refinement have reigned. Among the specific items looked for are: observance of the proprieties, good posture, quiet conversational tones, care in keeping bits of food off the floor, placing bits of paper and remnants of lunch into the trash can, and

returning trays and tableware to the places designated. Once a week all tables that have been star tables during the five days are decorated as "HONOR TABLES" with placard, school colors, and flags or flowers. The pupils of every class are anxious to make their table a star table. Everyone watches with a good deal of concern for the daily report of star tables. On Mondays, those classes which have won honor for their tables, are delighted when they arrive in the lunchroom and see these decorations, which add so much pleasure to their lunch. When a class fails to win a star for their table, they find their teacher regretting that they have not done so and inquiring the cause, which gives occasion for more instruction in good table etiquette. The pupils respond beautifully for the class spirit usually wins over the individuals who are careless and indifferent.

Summary—After the principal has provided for the detailed management of the pupils in the lunchroom and for the systematic instruction of pupils in good table manners, he gives enough personal supervision to see that all difficulties are overcome.

Convenience, system, and efficiency in the serving room makes for good deportment of the pupils. If pupils have to stand in line for 10 or 15 minutes before they can obtain their lunches, it is not at all surprising that they become restless, impatient, and disorderly. Prompt service, then, is one of the first essentials to good quiet order in the lunchroom.

The fact that at each lunch period the tables and floor are thoroughly clean and attractive makes for good behavior at lunch. In our school there is no lounging on the tables, no play in the lunchroom, no loud talking, no boisterous laughing, no visiting around. Pupils do not run from place to place in the room, but walk in a good orderly fashion wherever they go. They put their discarded wrapping papers and remnants of lunch into cans provided for that purpose, thus keeping a clean lunchroom floor throughout the lunch period. All this is done as a result of the careful teaching in classrooms and through the power of an ideal carefully fixed in the minds of the pupils.

The systematic teaching of good manners insures, to a very great degree, good deportment in the lunchroom. But the task is not accomplished once for all. It is a frailty of human nature that we assent to what is right or desirable, but often do something else. We know that practice after teaching is necessary to secure the desired results, and the teachers in this school follow up their teaching to see that it eventuates in proper conduct. They do not relax their teaching or watchful care until the ideal is fixed and practised as a thing desired. The splendid behavior of our pupils at lunch has won distinction for the school throughout the city in which it is situated.

STIMULATING GOOD ATTENDANCE

H. D. VINCENT

Principal, School 16, Troy, New York

PROMPT and regular pupil attendance is one index of an efficiently administered school. If space were available, the point could be developed by both subjective and objective data. For the present purpose we may recall (1) that the child's presence in school is necessary for regular academic progress, (2) that promptness in attendance tends to establish a useful life habit, and (3) that few schools can afford to sacrifice the state financial support which comes from a high attendance status.

Probably few school workers would agree on what constitutes good attendance.¹ Frequently, individual classrooms strive for "perfect" attendance. While this is a worthy effort, it cannot be achieved for the entire school on the basis of the total number of children enrolled. In some school systems 90 percent attendance is considered entirely satisfactory. Personally, the writer has never been satisfied with 90 percent attendance, because he has found that this can be exceeded. In the subsequent discussion procedures will be described which make 95 percent an attainable record even for the entire school.

The home influence—The home has much to do with the attendance of pupils. The writer recently made an investigation to determine what class of children was responsible for most of the tardiness and absence in school. Attendance was checked from the homes of children whose parent were lawyers, clergymen, teachers, merchants, and laborers. Table 1 shows the average tardiness and the average absence per pupil for a year from each of certain occupational groups. Of course, the sampling was far from random since data were available from only one elementary school.

TABLE 1—AVERAGE TARDINESS AND ATTENDANCE OVER A ONE YEAR PERIOD

Occupations of the Fathers	Average tardiness per pupil per year	Average absence per pupil
Lawyer	0	1.5
Clergyman	1.4	1.4
Merchant	.7	6.3
Teacher	2.0	10.5
Laborer	.8	9.1

¹ Methods of computing attendance vary in different States and local school systems. Obviously, attendance records based on all pupils enrolled during the year tend to be lower than those computations based on actual number of pupils belonging at any one time. In figuring our 96 percent attendance record we counted only those pupils who were actually members of our school each month.

Table 1 indicates that the children of lawyers are more punctual than any others, while children from the homes of teachers make the poorest record. From the standpoint of actual attendance the record appears best for children of clergymen and lawyers, while the poorest record is made for children of teachers and laborers.

Opinion of children—We investigated the pupils' opinion as to the most important cause for good attendance. Various causes were given by those reporting. About 30 percent said "to win the half holiday." About 20 percent reported "good health" as a cause of good attendance. About 15 percent gave "interesting school work" as a cause for good attendance. Another group of about 12 percent gave as an answer "to get an education." Various other answers were given in small numbers, such as: the assembly, physical training, manual training, graphing attendance, report cards, and good habits.

This, too, is an interesting study and it will be much more so if carried out on a large scale. Certainly, we teachers should like to know just what incentive is best to encourage attendance.

The half-holiday reward—We give the class having the best attendance record of each month a half-holiday, to be observed the Friday following the first day of the month. It may be said that this has worked well in the schools of Troy, New York, for many years. It is not a bit burdensome for the teachers to determine the mark each month, because a complicated system is not used. We simply grant the holiday to the group with the lowest rate of absence and tardiness per pupil. For example: Count each half day of absence and each tardy mark as a point against the class. Find the aggregate number of absences and tardy marks for the class during the month and divide this by the number of pupils in the class. If there are 30 marks and 30 pupils, the rate or average per pupil is one. If there are only 15 marks for 30 pupils, the average would be .5 per pupil. This average can usually be computed mentally, and in any case only a few moments will be required to obtain the result.

At times the writer has questioned the pedagogical soundness of the half-holiday plan. But when the question has been left to the teachers and the pupils to decide it has always been retained. Even parents are in sympathy with the plan, which fact would indicate that it does not endanger pupil welfare in any sense.

Graphs of attendance records—Several children, as quoted above, gave "graphing attendance" as a cause for good attendance. Probably these reports came from pupils whose teachers keep a graph of attendance on the blackboard. Experience has taught that this is a

paying proposition. For example, one particular class succeeded in winning so often that the teacher became a bit humiliated. She finally decided to eliminate the graph which she had been keeping before the children, thinking that some other class would win. But, to her surprise, toward the end of the month she discovered that many of the pupils had kept a graph secretly and the class won the half-holiday in spite of the teacher. At the time, this was the only teacher in the school who stressed the attendance graph. It is needless to say that when the news spread other teachers adopted the method.

The graph may sound like extra work for the teacher, but it need not be. Pupils delight in making the form for the graph and they are much interested in keeping the daily record. They usually draw as many horizontal lines on the blackboard as there are pupils in the class, and number them at the left side from the bottom up. Then they make as many vertical lines as there are school days in the month. The exact corners are placed properly at the top. On the first day of the month, a dot is placed in the square that indicates the number of pupils present that day and so on. These dots are connected with a line from day to day, and the object of the class is to develop a straight line across the top of the graph. It is evident that every absence makes a break or drop in the line. Tardiness may be indicated by placing a dot for each case for a given day at the bottom of the column. Or, each tardy mark may be considered as an absence. Graphing attendance in this way is merely putting the "law of effect" into practice. It has been the cause of perfect attendance for a whole month in at least one class.

The warning bell—A factor that has a bearing on punctuality is the warning bell. In a school of five hundred pupils, for example, there is always some one whose "clock was slow." A pupil may think he has plenty of time to reach school; but just as he gets within sight of the building, he may hear the warning bell. If he hustles, he may get to his seat before the final bell rings. Without the warning bell, many such cases would develop into tardy marks. Some principals may ignore "one minute late"; but when concessions begin, there is no end to the number of cases that will appear for solution. It is probably better to require all to be in the room when the last bell rings. Simply being in the building somewhere is not a safe method to follow. It will sooner or later lead to a dispute.

The time extension—A scheme which cultivates a good feeling between the home and school is the idea of granting an extension of time at the request of parent or pupil. It may happen that a child who is usually 100 percent in attendance may find that for some

reason he cannot get to his room at the proper time. By this plan, he or his parent may call the principal's office and request a certain definite extension of time in which to enter the class. The principal grants the request with the provision that the pupil will not be late if he reaches school within the time agreed upon. The writer believes this extension is as justifiable as it is to excuse a child a half hour before school is out. We find that the plan works well because it stimulates cooperation with the parents and often eliminates worry and unhappiness. Of course certain pupils may abuse this privilege, but that can be handled easily by any intelligent principal. The writer once discovered a boy in the corridor about eight minutes after school had been called. The boy was watching the clock and making no attempt to get to his room. When asked why he did not go to his room he replied, "Oh, I had a 10 minute extension."

The school assembly—Another fine incentive to good attendance is the assembly. The great disadvantage in this, however, is the fact that it does not come every day. Certainly when the assembly opens a session children are quite apt to be present and punctual. Most assemblies have music of some kind. If there is an orchestra, and there should be, the pupils will be interested. The fact that some pupils play in the orchestra not only encourages punctuality among them, but it holds them in school longer. Most pupils are interested to hear the announcements. They want the latest school news. Some pupils participate in school programs. Sometimes they even write their own plays and present them. The assembly is an interesting and profitable phase of the public school. There is no doubt that it stimulates school attendance.

Teachers must set a good example—If a principal comes late, he need not expect his pupils to be on time. Teachers, too, who come late are in a poor position to challenge a single pupil's tardiness. The habit of running too close to the edge, so to speak, on the part of a teacher is bound to lead to dissatisfaction sooner or later. The example of the superior always has a great effect on the inferior.

Summary—The writer had the experience of transferring to a school that was notoriously tardy and poor in attendance. The number of tardy marks ran into the hundreds for the month. By practising the methods stated above and by careful vigilance the record has become an envious one. The tardiness now does not average more than two a day for 500 pupils. Many classes do not have a tardy mark or an absence for a whole month. Statistics at the state department will show that the average daily attendance for the year of 1928-1929 in our school was 96 percent.

In conclusion, the writer wishes to express the belief that one of the big and important duties of the supervising principal is to get his school promptly at work and keep it working. One prominent educator has said, "Make the pupils of a school so interested in school work that they will be like race horses on a track waiting for the word 'go'." When this happy state of affairs is reached, no doubt all pupils will be in school every day possible and there will be no tardiness. Meanwhile, school keeps and the practical administration must stimulate interest in "good attendance" itself.

MODERN business does not wait for panics to effect retrenchments. Physicians do not wait for epidemics before taking measures to improve public sanitation. Modern navigation provides itself with devices for warning ships of coming storms. The school will never be in step with modern progress until it supplements personal experience with that perfectly legitimate supplement of experience, scientific foresight.—Charles H. Judd, see Chapter I

ACCOUNTING FOR ELEMENTARY SCHOOL FUNDS

LESTER H. RICH

Director of Educational Expenditures, Detroit Public Schools, Detroit, Michigan

A METHOD of recording receipts and disbursements of school funds in each individual elementary school in Detroit began in September, 1927. This arrangement is an extension of the so-called "Internal Accounting System" which was adopted in 1918 for all intermediate and high schools. It follows the general scheme in that it provides for uniformity of method and periodical check by an auditor employed by the Board of Education.

The procedure is comparatively simple. It cannot be technical because the people who handle it are, for the most part, untrained in bookkeeping theory and practice. It does not need to be complex since the transactions cover comparatively few activities. For recording the data, each school is furnished with an ordinary bound cash book such as is carried in stock by any stationery store. The left hand page provides for entries of receipts; the right hand page, for entries of payments. Inside the cover is pasted a printed sheet of directions, including an illustration (Figure 1) of representative records for a month as they should be made in the book.

DIRECTIONS ON ELEMENTARY SCHOOL FUNDS

1. The principal shall designate some one as treasurer of school funds.
2. All moneys collected from school activities shall be turned over to the treasurer in total and all payments made by check.
3. The money shall be deposited in the bank.
4. The account shall be carried in school name and checks signed by the principal or treasurer.

FIGURE 1—ILLUSTRATION OF REPRESENTATIVE RECORDS

<i>Dr</i>		<i>Cash</i>	
Sept. 1	Balance on hand at beginning	750.00	
5	Receipts from entertainment	125.00	
12	Receipts from sale of school paper	50.00	
15	Receipts from sale of school paper	75.00	
20	Receipt for ads in school paper	15.00	
			465.00
			465.00
Oct 1	Balance	392.50	

5. When money is received, make an entry in cash received book (cash Dr. page) by writing in date, from what received and amount.
6. When money is paid out make entry in cash disbursements book (cash Cr. page) by writing in date, check number, for what given and amount.
7. At the end of each month deduct total cash disbursements for month from total cash receipts for month (plus balance at beginning of month) and carry balance forward to next page as balance on hand at beginning of following month.
8. See that your book balance at the end of the month plus outstanding checks equals balance given on your bank statement.

The central office exercises supervision over expenditures for equipment only. In such cases, permission is secured by the principal before contracting for the purchase. This is done mainly in the interest of economy. It offers each school the advantage of the savings effected by an organized purchasing department buying in quantities on competitive bids. The secondary purpose of this requirement is to prevent schools from buying equipment which the Board of Education can furnish or the use of which is prohibited in the schools.

The practical value of the system, we believe, is quite generally accepted by the principals and other administrative officers. They are relieved by it from criticism of carelessness or dishonesty. This criticism is not a remote possibility. Balances totaling approximately \$40,000 at the end of the year 1928-29 remained from collections of \$200,000 during that year. In addition to the savings effected, the benefits derived from sound business methods in handling public funds cannot be denied.

FIGURE 1—ILLUSTRATION OF REPRESENTATIVE RECORDS—(Continued)

Cash		Ce	
Sept 1927	7 ck #1 for goods to make costumes	20.00	
	10 ck #2 for printing school paper	50.00	
	16 ck #3 shoes for poor child	2.50	72.50
	30 Balance on hand (\$665.00 - \$72.50)		592.50
			665.00

THE RADIO AN AID IN EDUCATION

ESTHER H. HARRISS

Principal, Jefferson School, Muskogee, Oklahoma

NEW SCIENTIFIC discoveries are of no benefit until put into practice. Such thoughts led the writer, a principal of an Oklahoma elementary school, to have a radio installed in her school. There was no fund to draw on to pay for the instrument, but the dealers were so kind that eventually the radio was installed. After the first program broadcast by Walter Damrosch and his orchestra, the pupils and teachers of the school decided that the radio set should become a part of the school's equipment. This decision was made good by presenting two programs to the patrons, friends, and former pupils of the school. The proceeds of these school events were ample to pay for the portable receiving set that had been selected to meet our needs.

Arrangement for programs—Pupils of the fourth, fifth, and sixth grades were assembled each Friday morning for the programs broadcast by Mr. Damrosch and his symphony orchestra. Before coming to assembly, the pupils discussed the program with their music teacher. In the assembly room the program was written on the board so that the children could be informed about each number. In this way, it was easy to follow the remarks of Mr. Damrosch, and to understand the selections being given.

Correlations and special day programs—Art classes made booklets under the music teacher's supervision. The folders contained the programs, the pupils' reactions, and answers to questions raised in class. In this way, the school radio gave concrete assistance in correlating music, language, and writing.

Often during the lunch hour, and on rainy days, many musical programs were enjoyed. The lectures given by government experts have proved interesting and instructive to the upper grades.

The radio proved a great aid for special occasions as: Flag Day, Education Week, Armistice Day, Easter, Christmas, and New Year's. On such days beautiful musical selections and inspiring lectures were broadcast during the school day hour. Parents frequently visited the school at broadcasting periods to "listen in" with the pupils and teachers.

Appearance of the room and pupil participation—Realizing that music is an expression of beauty which is reinforced by the right surroundings, an effort is made to have the assembly room attractive. Flowers were placed about the room, and pictures that related to the programs were hung in conspicuous places.

Pupil participation was an interesting feature of the radio hour in this school. When the children were familiar with the music, they took part by singing, humming, marching, tapping, or clapping time. Several times pupils have appeared in attractive costumes and danced to the radio music.

All subjects aided by radio—It is generally agreed that music lends itself most readily to school broadcasts. But it has also been found that nature talks, travelogues, political, historical, and biographical talks given over the radio correlate with the subjectmatter of the school curriculum. The English of the children improves in class as the children tell about the interesting things that they have heard.

History in the making was brought to the schools several times during the last school year; the inaugural proceedings at Washington were heard by the pupils as had been the Republican and Democratic conventions during the summer.

Arranging for programs and broadcasts—Care should be exercised in arranging for the broadcasting programs. The children must not be crowded too closely together as they become fatigued and restless. The receiving set must be adjusted so that every word can be heard distinctly, otherwise inattention may cause losses in enjoyment.

Conclusion—Teachers and pupils of our school, as well as many others throughout the country, are agreed that the radio is not just a passing fancy.¹ It is a means by which all the subjects of the curriculum may be enriched. The teacher who is an artist can utilize it by making broadcasting programs an incentive to better work in English, penmanship, art, geography, history, and speech.

Frequently the regular schedule of the school is interrupted, in order to catch special programs but these special events are bringing joy and a wholesome atmosphere to many schools. Teaching will do well to enlist the radio as an instructional device and hail with pleasure the coming season of broadcasting.

¹ The Editorial Committee was unable to print several short contributions on the radio and school work. It is interesting to note the ingenious efforts of principals to acquire school radios in spite of financial limitations. For example, A. R. Morgan, Sherman School, Saint Louis, Missouri, reports that the Board of Education, the patrons, the teaching staff, and the children provided the essential equipment for 20 classrooms at a cost slightly over \$800.—*Editorial Committee.*

CHAPTER IX
HEALTH AND SAFETY EDUCATION
*INSTRUCTIONAL CONDITIONS AND THE HEALTH
PROGRAM*¹

LORETTO DE S. WILKINSON

Principal, Nathaniel Hawthorne School, Rochester, New York

AS PRINCIPALS, we owe it to the teachers whose work we are required to direct and supervise, to protect their teaching hours from many and various kinds of interruptions. Irregularity of attendance on the part of pupils probably is the greatest source of interruption. This would not be agreed to at first by teachers, as the teacher is more apt to be concerned about those things which interfere with the lesson or day's program. In other words, unless the interruption is of a type that disturbs the entire class the teacher as a rule does not think of it as destructive to instructional conditions. This attitude may be explained by the fact that the usual types of interruption affect only the work of the pupils who are present. But when the matter is considered in the light of the successful continuity of progress of the individuals in the class, and when it is realized that absences mean not only a loss to the pupil for the day, but because of this loss the pupil is not as well prepared to receive and profit by the instructional program when he returns to school, the seriousness of absence is evident. Furthermore, because of this difficulty which teachers have with the pupil who has been irregular in attendance, the teacher has to give extra and additional explanation which is a cause of delay and interruption of the regular instruction. Therefore, any program that the school system can devise that will improve pupil attendance without an injustice to pupils and parents will directly improve the teaching situation within the classroom and school.

The school's positive interest in the child's absence—Pupils' absences may be due to a number of causes such as truancy, illegal detention on the part of parents for the purpose of having the child help at home or at the store, taking a child on a trip, religious holy days, illness of the pupil and contagious sickness in the family. Compulsory education laws and programs for educating the community to understand the necessity of regular consecutive attendance has done much to reduce a number of these types of absence, par-

¹ The writer acknowledges the helpful advice of George Taylor, Principal, Susan B. Anthony School, Rochester, New York.

ticularly of the illegal and trivial kind. Absence on account of health, on the other hand, while regrettable has been considered as largely unavoidable. The general attitude of parents and teachers has been that a sick child has no place in school, that he is a menace to other children, that he is not in either physical or mental condition to profit by instruction. For generations the attitude has been that any absence was legally excusable after the parents or pupil sent word that the child was ill, regardless of the fact that the sickness might range from diphtheria or scarlet fever or a broken bone to some slight indisposition which would not have prevented the same child from attending a party or some other form of social event.

The present tendency seems to be in the direction of recognizing that the school has not only a right to be concerned in the health of the pupils, but also has a direct responsibility in promoting the health program and providing services to combat sickness and ill health. Many school systems are thinking of this along the line of the general welfare of pupils, and are taking the stand that a strong body and a right attitude toward health and health habits is just as important an objective in education as any other objective. Schools which have experimented with health programs on this basis are now finding that the work is justified not merely because of the health result obtained, but because of the improved instructional teaching situation due to the improved regularity of attendance of pupils and their greater ability to participate in the school program and profit by instruction. In the following discussion the writer will endeavor to show the problem as it was found to exist in the school in which she was principal, the means taken to meet the problem, and some of the more immediate results obtained together with suggestions for safeguarding the success of the venture.

Our school and its problems—The racial changes in this district have been noticeable. The German and Dutch have now given way to the Latin races. The Hollanders were a thrifty class, plodders in their work and obedient to the rules of school because of strict home discipline. The Germans were mostly of the poorer class. The community had many saloons at one time and the children suffered much for want of shoes and nourishment. Children usually left school very early, withdrawing to go to work about the time they were confirmed, according to German custom. This group was not as ambitious for education as our later population.

The present population is largely Italian of the Sicilian class. Italian is spoken in the homes. The younger children learn English from their older brothers and sisters and in many cases are unable

to converse with their mothers who know only Italian. The older children speak both languages. There are four Jewish families and one colored family who send their children to this school.

The present administration of the Nathaniel Hawthorne School began in September, 1909. The school at that time was well organized, had high scholastic attainments and an enrolment of 280 pupils. Many of the families represented were apparently in need and were receiving help from charitable organizations. The children were undernourished and our particular work seemed to lie in the field of social service. The aid of friends was enlisted in financing milk for children and from 18 to 25 of the most needy children were given milk at once. It was served to them in the teachers' dining room which was lighted through the cellar windows and by a dull flicker from a gas jet.

The cause of this apparent poverty lay in the fact that the fathers were out of work and seemed to have little ambition to find jobs. These fathers were invited to the school office and jobs were found for them. Then, as boys and girls became old enough and found it absolutely necessary to go to work, jobs were located for them through the school. Every store, factory, and city department was enlisted and up to 1919 the school was a veritable employment agency.

So much was personal advice appreciated, that the principal was even requested to select a wife for a good German father who had been left a widower with three children, two of whom had been placed by us as telephone girls while the youngest one, a boy, was in our sixth grade. The father came to the school and said he had advertised for a wife and she had arrived. Would the principal please look her over and tell him if he would be wise to take her? This was done and he was advised to send her back to the place whence she came, which he did. Again he advertised and again judgment was passed, this with more favorable result which terminated in a marriage and as the fairy story goes "they lived together happily ever after."

When the tract of land north of Fernwood Avenue was opened we found that the Italian people were to be the settlers. There were but a few in 1911, but from then on we could not keep up with the rapid influx. It was necessary, owing to the distance, for these children to bring their lunches. Our sympathy being aroused for these children, extra lunches were provided by many of the teachers to be sure that the children had sufficient food to carry them through the afternoon. Milk was provided through the generosity of the same

friends. Clothing was solicited from the Needle Work Guild. Such help continued until we moved into the new building. From this time on we found that the Italian population had increased, and that they were demanding much of the school. We began to make a study of conditions and found that these people were buying land to such an extent that no attention was paid to the welfare of the children as to health, cleanliness, or feeding; hence, the beginning of our ever untiring health campaign and character training.

Our health program—The Tubercular Association through the kindness of Mrs. Julius Hendrickson, secretary of the Association and Dr. Mary Hoyt, physician for the Association, enabled us to hold meetings which were not well attended. Then we began sending to the homes letters giving details as to health care in its relation to feeding and cleanliness. When our health education department opened nutrition classes we were one of the first schools to welcome the opportunity for such instruction and aid to our families. After carrying this class work for a couple of seasons we felt that the number of children actually being benefited was too small for the amount of money expended, and it was a constant effort to get the mothers to attend these classes even though our entire efforts were for the benefit of their children. We decided that our best procedure was to focus attention upon getting the children to work for self-improvement. A health campaign was launched and every teacher made charts as aids to interest. From that day on, health has been our watchword.

In the spring of 1920, Drs. Mary and Henry Hoyt gave, as far as we know, the first preschool examinations to all children who expected to enter our kindergarten or first grade the following fall. As we kept going further and further into our health conditions, we felt that the inspection given by the Health Bureau was not sufficiently detailed and after many interviews with Drs. Goler, Roby, and Johnson consent to our urgent request for a complete physical examination was granted. Consequently in 1926 such examinations were given to 277 children. The letter on the next page was sent to parents preliminary to the health examinations.

The serving of milk has continued since 1910, increasing from 25 half pints which were at that time furnished free up to the present time when our number varies from three to four hundred. Recently the majority of the children have been paying four cents and only those who are financially unable to pay receive milk free. Money for the free milk which was at first provided by the "Milk for Schools Committee" is now furnished by the Community Chest.

FIGURE 1—LETTER SENT TO PARENTS PRELIMINARY TO HEALTH EXAMINATIONS

NATHANIEL HAWTHORNE SCHOOL NO. 25
North Goodman and Bay Streets
Rochester, N.Y.

Dear Parent:

Your school offers an unusual health service to you this year. We believe it is the first time that such a service has been offered by any grammar school in this state.

If you desire it, the best physicians that can be obtained by the school, through the Health Bureau, will give your children a most careful physical examination.

This examination will tell you one of three things about your children.

1. If they are perfectly well and strong.
2. If they have some defect that causes them discomfort.
3. If they have some unseen disease, not yet active, but which may later cause serious illness or death.

Do you want your child to have this health examination?
We hope you do.

We are enclosing a request card which if signed and returned to this school at once will give you this health service. It means better boys and girls. It means a better school. Can we afford to pass it by?

Sincerely yours,
Loretta deS. Wilkinson

NO CHILD WILL BE EXAMINED UNLESS THE PARENT
AGREES TO BE PRESENT AT THE EXAMINATION

About 1915, we concluded that we were developing in our district a maudlin sentimentality and usurping the care that should be given by parents. Believing in the solidarity of the home as the real foundation for our democracy, we decided that we were taking too much responsibility and that the appreciation which the parents should be getting from their children was coming to the teachers; also, that the parents were very willing to permit us to take what was rightly their responsibility, while they bought more and more land, built houses and blocks and purchased automobiles. We then made the rule that no child would receive free books or free milk until either the father or mother came to see the principal and it was found after investigation that they were needy. A plan was made by which we would care for two out of three children or three out of five, but the family would have to provide for a certain proportion. It was hard work at first, but we at least stuck to it as the way to develop self-respect in the family unit. Our free book and free milk lists have been reduced to a minimum considering our population of 1115. In the fall term we allow children to be considered indigent and of the 375 children taking milk during the month of March, but 59 bottles were provided free.

During the days when the greatest of all blessings reached us—a nurse, we were washing the children at school and teachers occasionally went into the homes to give baths. Again we decided we were destroying the most precious thing on earth the real unity of mother love and child dependence, so a campaign on cleanliness was started. It was announced that all children would have to be cleaned at home. Of course, this was uphill work but we enlisted the social workers in factories and when we found that a family was being neglected, we called for the mother. She was sent from her work to the school where she was told her duty.

When we were furnished services of a school nurse she took an active part in our already established plan. She goes into homes and teaches mothers how to bathe the children and how to keep heads clean. The presence of the school nurse has enabled us to initiate much corrective and preventive work in the health field. This may be summarized for the last year as shown in Table 1 on the next page.

Summary—Absentee pupils interfere seriously with the instructional program. Not only do these individuals miss the daily work, but they take away from the energy of the teacher and the opportunities of other pupils. Improvement of instruction often depends on getting the absent pupil back into school.

TABLE 1—CORRECTIVE WORK DONE BETWEEN 1926 AND 1929

Type of treatment	Number of pupils
Tonsil operations.....	151
Eyes examined and eyes treated.....	79
Glasses procured.....	40 prs.
X-ray pictures taken at dispensaries.....	44
Toxin-anti-toxin given to protect children against diphtheria.....	892
Number of children vaccinated successfully against small pox.....	218
(These were either kindergarten children or new children who had not been vaccinated.)	
Number of children taken to Dental Dispensary for dental work.....	2332
(Most of these were taken several times.)	
Total number of children who have been taken to dispensaries.....	2728

Some schools resign themselves to interruptions caused by absent pupils. Other schools bring pressure to bear upon the parents to eliminate trivial excuses. In our school we tried a more aggressive and positive attack. Much poor attendance, due to sickness and illness, is preventable.

Several years ago, we launched a health program in which we did many things for the pupils and parents. Such an attack had value, but it was too paternalistic on our part. We as teachers were depriving the parents of the right to care for their own children. Our new emphasis is upon *self-improvement* by pupils with the aid of their parents. We discover physical difficulties, our nurse follows up the work in the homes, but the parents must carry the chief responsibility.

We believe our program works. Hundreds of children are now living healthier lives because of our efforts. We are sure that the additional days of attendance in school and the new buoyancy of health have increased the effectiveness of our academic instruction.

A CLEAR, straight-forward program of information to the community describing conditions, and telling the aims of the school is of inestimable value in securing confidence from, and the support of, the people of the district. It appears that the community study and public relations programs are rather inseparably connected.—John Thomas, see Chapter XIV

AN EFFECTIVE HEALTH PROGRAM

R. C. T. JACOBS

Principal, Silberstein School, Dallas, Texas

IT HAS ALWAYS been our purpose to cooperate fully with the health departments of the school, the city, and the state, and to carry out every suggestion from any source that would promote the health and physical welfare of the children. Much had been accomplished before we began the intensive program described herein and more still needed to be done to bring the children up to the desired degree of physical efficiency. However, our 1928-1929 program may be suggestive to principals in other cities.

Preliminary health activities—Looking forward to the proper celebration of Child Health Day, we intensified our health instruction and health work by a "health drive," beginning early in April. The joint resolution of Congress designating May 1 as Child Health Day, and asking the President to proclaim it as a day to be observed throughout the nation was posted, read, and discussed. Then, we set to work in real earnestness to make the day the beginning of an epoch in school. Before this time we had weighed and measured all the pupils, and had listed all those who were either overweight or underweight. We had given special attention to any who appeared to be undernourished and had endeavored to interest the parents in bringing their own children up to standard weight, or normal weight for their age and height. The physical education teacher, the kindergarten teacher, and the playground teacher all gave special attention to these children, and provided a daily regimen at school that would promote health building for them. A special rest period was provided for kindergarten and lower grade children about midmorning, so that those who were below par physically might rest and sleep. Just before the rest began these children were served milk lunches. The cooperation of the parents was sought, and the value of milk as a food was stressed for all the children. Milk was furnished free by the Parent-Teacher Association to children whose parents could not afford to buy a sufficient quantity for them.

Launching the health drive—On April 6, the following letter was addressed to all the teachers in the school:

May 1 is Child Health Day, as authorized by Congress and proclaimed by the President of the United States. It should mean much for the health and physical welfare of the children of this community. In fact, every child with any sort of remediable defect should receive corrective treatment before May 1, and abundant information should be given out for the preservation of the health of all the children. Let us find out the physical handicaps of our children as early as we

can and exert the full power of our influence toward having these handicaps removed.

Please examine the reports which the School Health Department has made of each of your pupils, and patiently, persistently, perseveringly, and persuasively follow up the report until all corrections have been made. This is a work of mercy, and also a work of patriotism, as well as a work of education. It should be one of the most fruitful pieces of work that we have ever undertaken. May we feel the handicap of each of these children just as though it were our very own. If we take up the work in this spirit, we are sure to accomplish results that will bring great pleasure to ourselves in the realization of the immense good that we have brought to the children.

When the work of weighing and measuring the pupils had been completed, and when the school physicians and nurses had made their inspections, a report was put into the hands of each home-room teacher, which showed the physical condition of each of his pupils. With this report before him, he could more intelligently and effectively follow up his morning inspection. He could give advice about the removal of defects, the amount of rest and sleep needed, and the advisability of a milk diet. The daily habits of the pupils were studied by the teacher in order that he might motivate a better health regimen. The teachers endeavored to develop desirable health habits and attitudes. The parents were encouraged to consult the teachers as specialists in child nurture and development. The teacher in turn advised that a physician be consulted when there appeared to be some physical derangement beyond the possibility of removal by ordinary hygienic measures.

The morning inspection became much more than a perfunctory observation of the pupils. The teacher knew the defects of the individual pupil as they were tabulated by the physician's report. He directed his skill and persuasive powers toward getting the defects removed, watched daily for improvement, and felicitated the pupil and parent on every sign of progress toward a better physical condition. His joy over corrections and gains in health was always prized by the pupils, and his personal sorrow over any deterioration in the health of any one of the group was felt by all. School spirit was a strong factor in the promotion and maintenance of health.

Cleanliness was required. A pupil with soiled hands or dirty fingernails was not permitted to pass inspection until he met the requirements for cleanliness and health. The pupils were strongly impressed with the fact that they should thoroughly wash hands, face, neck, and ears, clean the finger nails and brush the hair every morning before breakfast. Although the requirements of the home did not always measure up to these standards, the pupil did not dare face public sentiment at school without showing a wholesome regard for

the laws of cleanliness. Soon the school was changed from one in which the pupils were careless of appearance and indifferent to any sentiment of cleanliness to one in which all were clean and attractive in appearance. The desire for approval by teachers and classmates was a strong force. The laws of cleanliness and health became fixed as health habits, and their observance became cheerful obedience.

The Rules of the Game as formulated by the Child Health Organization of America were learned first:

- A full bath oftener than once a week.
- Brush teeth at least twice a day.
- Sleep long hours with windows open.
- Drink as much milk as possible, but no tea or coffee.
- Eat some vegetables or fruit every day.
- Drink at least four glasses of water every day.
- Play part of every day out of doors.

Other rules were added to these as it seemed desirable. Individual pupils were given certain rules for the care of the health or for overcoming certain handicaps to their highest physical wellbeing.

Enlisting the parents—On April 8, the principal of the school sent out the following letter to every patron of the school:

The Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled on May 14, 1928, passed a joint resolution "That the President of the United States is hereby authorized and requested to issue annually a proclamation setting apart May 1 of each year as Child Health Day and inviting all agencies and organizations interested in child welfare to unite upon that day in the observance of such exercises as will awaken the people of the nation to the fundamental necessity of a year-round program for the protection and development of the health of the nation's children."

The teachers of your children have been faithfully teaching the fundamental principles of health and hygiene throughout the term, but from now till May 1 they will make a "health drive" as a fitting preparation for the celebration of the day. America is committed to the ideal of sound, buoyant health for every child, and every American has a part in helping to realize this ideal so that every child may have a fair start in life.

We are asking the children to observe certain simple health rules until these become fixed as health habits, and we shall be very glad if you will remind your child, from time to time, of the importance of any of these rules that he may need to fix as habits in his daily routine.

If a child has any defects or handicaps to health, we hope that these may be removed or corrected as soon as possible. It is our desire at this time to mobilize all the forces which can promote the health and happiness of the children. Consequently we are asking you as a loyal patron of the school, as a citizen, as a member of a church or a lodge, as a parent, to lend the full strength of your influence and help to this great cause.

Silberstein School stands first in so many good things; let's make it first in the health and happiness of its children also.

Our Health Day program will begin at 2:30 on May 1. We give you a cordial invitation to be present.

An enthusiastic response followed. The parents gave us their most hearty cooperation. Clean-Up Week came within the time of our health drive, and the reaction of one upon the other intensified both. Clean-Up Week meant more to the school and the community than it had ever meant before. There were many additional reasons found for cleaning up and keeping clean because of the health drive. The children carried the message into the homes as they had not done before and their interest brought about improvements in many homes.

In cleaning up for health the parents and children eliminated many fire hazards. Trash and rubbish were removed and the community took on an improved appearance. Now adults cleaned up for the sake of child health when previously an appeal for Clean-Up Week had never brought results. Parents who cared little for cleanliness of person or environment became interested in our drive because they saw that health gave children a better chance in the world.

On April 10, the school director of health, on invitation of the principal, addressed the Parent-Teacher Association on the nature and importance of health work in the public schools. The address was an excellent one. It was free from technical language, and full of good practical information and helpful suggestions for every one who has the care of a child. The mothers entered heartily into the spirit of the address. They asked many questions and received very sympathetic answers as to how to guard the health and physical welfare of their children. Many listeners went away glad that they had come and with a positive desire to cooperate fully in the health work. This spirit was a direct change in attitude for many in the community, for earlier the attitude of many of the homes was that of opposition to health work in the public schools. Our health drive, the splendid work of the Health Department, and the cooperation of the teachers almost completely changed the attitude to one of friendly accord and eager helpfulness.

A health celebration—From the beginning of the health drive, plans were made for a great celebration and observance of Child Health Day. The children looked forward to it as an opportunity for a first-class good time. All pupils without defects and those who had defects removed, or cleared up as nearly as possible, were to be our prize winners. The program called for the decoration of prize winners with blue ribbons, a great parade of all of the school, many out-door stunts, and games that would especially appeal to the children. The announcement of our plans for Health Day added intensity to the enthusiasm of both children and parents for health and cleanliness.

There was a friendly rivalry among the classes as to which had the greatest number of prize winners on Health Day. After inspection every morning the children wished to know who had had defects removed since the day before and how many could be added to their list of prize winners. Each class wished to know if any other group had a greater number of prize winners than they had. Many children were working strenuously to have defects removed for the sake of personal efficiency, and also for the sake of surpassing the records of other classes. Day by day the health drive gained momentum from one source or another, until finally one of the dental clinics gave notice that it could take no more children until they had two or three weeks to care for those who had already applied for corrections. But that did not stop the dental work; it scarcely checked it. The children simply turned to other dentists.

The following standards of the American Child Health Association were agreed upon as necessary for our prize winners to meet before the health celebration:

STANDARD REQUIREMENTS FOR A BLUE RIBBON

(Prize Winners)

I. Is mentally normal:

If he has the mental capacity to attain a general average of "A" or its equivalent in school work.

II. Is physically normal:

A. If he is of standard weight.

1. Not more than 10 percent under or 20 percent above the average weight for his height.

B. If he is free from remediable defects or chronic disease.

1. Hearing normal and no chronic discharge from ears.

2. Vision 20/30 or better in both eyes—with or without glasses and eyes free from any chronic infection or abnormal condition.

3. Nasal breathing unobstructed and nose free from any chronic discharge or exudate.

4. Tonsils rated as normal or removed.

5. All teeth (both permanent and temporary) free from cavities—or all cavities filled—and all badly decayed teeth extracted.

6. No enlargement of the thyroid gland and no marked chronic enlargement of the glands of the neck.

7. The skin and scalp clean and free from any chronic disease or abnormal condition. No evidence of anemia.

8. No orthopedic deformity—such as club foot, or marked bow legs, or any other marked physical deformity.

9. Posture satisfactory.

10. No evidence of chronic organic disease involving the heart, lungs, or other organs or the nervous system—such as tuberculosis, heart disease, nephritis, chorea, or habit spasms.

III. Is reasonably cooperative in the practice of certain health habits:

A. Is physically clean.

1. Face, neck, ears, hands, and finger nails cleaned daily.
2. Teeth brushed daily.
3. One complete bath at least once a week.
4. Clothes clean and neat.
5. Clean handkerchief daily.
6. Good personal habits of cleanliness such as clean desk, floor and surroundings.

B. Obtains sufficient sleep.

Child must sleep from eight to ten hours at night with windows open.

C. Eats well-selected foods.

1. Drinks at least one pint of milk a day.
2. Eats some vegetables daily—such as carrots, beets, peas, beans, onions, or tomatoes.
3. Eats some greens regularly—such as cabbage, spinach, or lettuce.
4. Eats some fruit daily.
5. Eats some cereal daily.

NOTE:—Other foods may be added. Those mentioned in the outline above are the protective foods and are essential to good health.

D. Obtains plenty of fresh air and exercise.

Spends some time daily in outdoor play or exercise.

E. Clothing.

All extra garments—such as heavy coats and sweaters, rubbers, overshoes and boots removed while in classroom, provided the room temperature is 65 degrees or over.

IV. Is satisfactory in his behavior and attitude in the school environment and is amenable to ordinary school discipline.

Teaching and correlating health with other studies—The teachers endeavored to so guide and train the pupils daily that health principles would become *health habits*. Attention was given to the formation of health habits in all the grades, but in the kindergarten and primary grades special stress was laid upon this work. It was the desire to fix the habits as early in the life of the child as possible, and then to require respect for the habits throughout the whole school life. The daily inspection was not only instrumental in determining when a pupil lapsed from the health habits, but helped to reinforce all habits.

The teaching of health was correlated with all the other branches taught in school and with the everyday interests and needs of the child. A "thrift drive" had just put the school in the lead of all the other schools in the system in banking. The pupils and patrons were very proud of this record. The health drive brought the opportunity to teach the children that the greatest thrift was wise care of health and vitality. Attention was called to the losses resulting from failure to observe the rules of health. School spirit and community pride operated strongly to build up the sentiment for health. "We must be healthy to be really thrifty," was the constant thought of the pupils,

"and unless we are the healthiest school and community in town, we can no longer claim the distinction of being the thriftiest. Let's be health-thrifty!" The patrons of the school caught the slogan and joined in.

During the drive the civics class devoted its attention to "health civics." The pupils studied both public and private sanitation. They learned about the persons who were directly responsible for the care and cleanliness of the streets in their community; for the disposal of garbage; for the providing and care of parks; for the supply and purity of the water; for the drainage of ponds and stagnant pools; for the removal of any nuisance that would endanger health; and the many other problems of public hygiene and sanitation. They were given an understanding of the duties of the good citizen in relation to public health, what things he should notice daily, and how he could best discharge his civic obligations.

The menus worked out in the domestic economy department were studies with reference to health. Special menus were made for undernourished children. Because many of the girls had brothers or sisters in the lower grades who were underweight and undernourished, the home-making classes were particularly helpful.

Not only was the health work correlated with all the other school work, but during the health drive each teacher scheduled a portion of each day with her class for special health instruction. These lessons were made definite, practical, and appealing. However the greater part of the work was carried by the physical education department. The formation of special classes; the providing of mid-morning and mid-afternoon milk lunches; the sending home of special reports and special literature; the securing of help from associations, organizations, clinics, and individuals; the posting of bulletins and the designing of attractive and appealing posters were all a part of the work of the physical education department.

The art department also should be mentioned for the number and excellent quality of the health posters, placards, and banners which created an enthusiastic interest through art for health. The penmanship department set health copies and practised them. The "Rules of the Game" (see above) were written as copies until all the pupils were familiar with them. Numerous other health sentences and slogans were brought into the writing department and practised as copies. The arithmetic department built its problems on the profits derived from health and the losses sustained from sickness. The music department wrote and sang health songs. The auditorium department staged health plays and pageants. The history and geogra-

phy departments found abundance of material in their subjects for stressing the value of health.

Special cases—Children who were more than 10 percent underweight were studied by the nurse and the teachers, after the ordinary methods of bringing them up to the standard weight had failed. Careful provisions were made for their daily routine, or for medical treatment. Systematic health examinations were provided for these children and a follow-up plan was instituted, so that all handicaps to health and vigor might be removed. Parents were informed of major and minor defects. Where the parents showed indifference to treatment of defects, a campaign of persuasive education was continued until the child was given adequate care. If the parent was too poor to afford medical treatment, outside agencies were called upon for aid. A number of these were very helpful. Clinics, clubs, organizations, and individuals, aided in this work, recognizing it as an opportunity for most effective service to the cause of child welfare and betterment.

Building sanitation—The hygienic care of the school building was stressed. The attention of the custodian and janitor was called to the relation of their work to the health of the children and teachers. Emphasis was placed on the necessity of a properly heated, ventilated, lighted, and cleaned building. It was explained how over-heating or under-heating of the building or improper ventilation would result in ill health for pupils and teachers. The ill effects of dust were discussed, and the necessity for scrupulous cleanliness throughout the building was stressed. The teachers also gave close attention to these items.

Attention to individual differences—It is well to keep in mind that while a constant effort was made for the betterment of the health of the group as a whole, there was a direct interest in the health and welfare of each individual child. No one was satisfied so long as the health of any child was below what it should be for that individual. Consequently, the objective of the school was the finest possible growth for each child and a positive gain in health-habit formation. In time, each child came to realize something of his personal responsibility for his own health, and for helping to build the health of others.

The interest of the teachers went deeper and farther than the class as a whole. They dealt to each child according to his individual needs. The physical welfare of the child, his behavior reactions, in group or alone, his mental and social characteristics, his environment in home and neighborhood were studied with a view to bringing the child to a happy, healthy adjustment to life.

The parents often realized their need of advice and counsel in dealing with their children. Frequently, the adults visited the school to confer with principal and teachers about the welfare of individual children. The teachers sought a closer cooperation with the home so as to obtain the highest welfare of the child in the home and in the community as well as in the school. In the health drive the interest of everyone was centered upon the health, physical, mental, and moral of the individual child; and the teacher became more interested in the growth of the individual pupil than in the teaching of subjectmatter. Positive physical and mental health became the teacher's objective so that each child might attain the highest possible degree of happiness and usefulness.

Influence on the teachers—As a result of the health drive the teachers themselves have come into a deeper interest in the standards of personal health. There has been a marked faculty improvement in vigor and positive mental outlook on life. All feel a keener sense of the duty of being healthy and happy. Self-rating according to certain health standards is commonly practised. All are committed to the idea of a thorough physical and medical examination as often as once a year. Since the standard of health among the teachers is higher the absences due to sickness have been less than formerly.

Though this health work would seem an additional task for the teachers, it has been a delightful one. In fact the teachers' burdens have been lightened through the improved health conditions of their pupils, and the better distribution of their own time and efforts. They have also derived personal benefit from keeping certain high health standards in view while practising health habits in a happy environment. The wholesome attitude of the teacher toward both physical and mental health, could not fail to produce a very happy result for his own health and well-being. The teachers have felt greater satisfaction than ever before in the successful accomplishment of their teaching.

Summary—The final check-up on May 1 of the health drive showed the improved conditions noted in Table 1.

TABLE 1—PHYSICAL DEFECTS CORRECTED DURING
THE HEALTH DRIVE

Teeth cleaned (pupils).....	151
Teeth filled	92
Teeth extracted	199
Gums treated	13
Eyes treated	44
Eyelids treated	23

TABLE 1—PHYSICAL DEFECTS CORRECTED DURING
THE HEALTH DRIVE—(Continued)

Glasses fitted	20
Adenoids removed	29
Tonsils removed	39
Tonsils treated.....	23
Nose treated	13
Throat treated	34
Skin diseases cured.....	32
Scalp troubles cleared	24
Underweight corrected	155
Overweight corrected	44
Orthopedic corrections	4
Sinus operation	1
Other corrections	10
Total	950

Table 1 shows a total of 950 corrections, or an average of one for every pupil in school. But the good results are not all summed up by this table. The work of having defects removed has gone right on since May 1 as a result of the drive. A number of pupils who still have defects have assured their teachers that their defects would be cleared up as soon as the summer vacation arrived. The attitude in the community toward the health work has been greatly improved. The children have received intensive health instruction and their habits of cleanliness and hygiene are much above what they were before. This has been an intensive *educational* campaign in which health was tied to every school subject in such a way as to react favorably on that subject as well as promote health and physical efficiency.

ON CHRISTMAS day the children above the kindergarten received 792 copies of 551 different books. Our librarian rated only 59 of the books as among the best books for children.—Sara E. Chase, see Chapter XIV

A QUESTION OF WEIGHT

C. I. FLEMING

Principal, Clinton School, Saint Louis, Missouri

FOR SOME YEARS we have been told that the health of any child who is 10 percent or more underweight needs to be investigated. While accepting the fundamental assumption that a serious deviation in weight indicates the need of skilled attention to the general health of a pupil, we have come to question this criterion of "10 percent (or more) underweight" as the most *satisfactory* method of discovering the pupils who need attention. As a matter of fact it would be somewhat strange if the child of a father weighing 102 pounds and of a mother weighing 90 pounds was not "underweight." Let us consider the question of the base upon which this percent is usually figured.

Is the ten percent criterion satisfactory?—An examination of the method of constructing an age-height-weight table shows that the weight given for any given age-height represents an average of a number of individuals of that age and height. Thus when we speak of a pupil being 10 percent underweight we are referring to the fact that he or she weighs 10 percent less than the *average* boy or girl of that age and height. Now it is obvious that a deviation of 10 percent from an average is a far different and a far less serious matter than a similar deviation from an optimum. Granting that the average offered by the table is a perfect one (not all the tables agree), the 10 percent underweight does not offer the most satisfactory method of discovering these pupils whose general health should be investigated.

Those of us who use the findings of the weighing of pupils in our schools have passed some unsatisfactory moments in attempting to work out this problem of underweight children. We have, at the request of the school doctor, invited parents to confer with us about the health of the child who is 10 percent or more underweight. In some such interviews, no matter how tactfully handled, certain hyper-sensitive mothers, who have always prided themselves on being good providers and excellent cooks, have resented the implication that their cooking was not good for their children. Others, after the conference at the school, have taken the child to the family physician for a thorough examination, only to be told, "Your child is perfectly sound." We know that the relief of some of these worried parents is apt to be expressed vocally in terms not redounding to

the credit of the school's medical officer, and not enhancing the community's confidence in the service rendered by the school.

Changes in weight a better index of health—A discussion with our director of school hygiene¹ brought out the fact that he had been reasoning in a similar way, and was preparing to experiment with a method which would substitute failure to increase weight over a period of months for a condition of underweight at a given time as the basis for discovering and helping pupils who were in need of attention. After using one form for keeping this record during the closing months of the school year 1928-29, the revised card shown in Figures 1 and 2 was furnished for experimental use in 1929-30.

At the time of the first weighing, one of the cards (Figures 1 and 2) was filled out by the teacher of each pupil in his room. A dot was placed on the heavy "weight-at-start" line in the column over the September heading, and the height in inches and the weight in pounds entered in the spaces provided. These cards were kept by the teacher until one month later when the pupils were again weighed. This time a dot was placed in the column over the October heading as many lines above the heavy "weight-at-start" line as the pupil had gained half-pounds. If a loss in weight was found, the dot was placed below the heavy line. In case of any loss, the card was sent home for the parents' signature. One month later the pupils were again weighed. After the weight was recorded by a dot on the proper line in the November column, a line was drawn connecting the three dots, thus showing the trend in weight over the three months period. All cards were then sent to the principal's office. Table 1 shows the results of the weighing of 459 pupils over a period of three months.

TABLE 1—CHANGES IN WEIGHT OVER A PERIOD OF THREE MONTHS

Group	Changes	Number of pupils	Percent
1	Loss of weight.....	19	4.1
2	No gain.....	16	3.5
3	Loss in one month only.....	66	14.4
4	Gain in weight.....	358	78.0
		459	100.0

The cards of all pupils shown in groups 1 and 3 of Table 1 were sent home for the parents' signature. The attention of the school was then centered first upon the four percent who had shown a steady loss of weight during the three months. These pupils were

¹ Dr. Humphrey, Director of Hygiene of the Saint Louis Public Schools.

FIGURE 2

The teacher may use this space each quarter for special remarks. Parents should examine and return the report.

First Quarter

.....

Parent's Signature.....

Second Quarter

.....

Parent's Signature.....

Third Quarter

.....

Parent's Signature.....

Fourth Quarter

.....

Parent's Signature.....

DIRECTIONS FOR MAKING GRAPHIC WEIGHT CHART

Weigh all children each September. Begin weight record on dark line indicated by the words "Weight at Start." Each horizontal line represents $\frac{1}{2}$ lb. The physical measurements give a cross section picture of a child's physical status at the time they were made. The most important question is not, how large, or how small, at a given age, since children vary in size with nationality, heredity, etc. It is more important to know whether the child is growing properly. A child who fails to gain in weight over a period of three months, should be referred to the School Doctor for examination.

referred to the school doctor for examination. The parents were invited to visit the school for a conference and plans were made for the parts the school and home could play in building up the child. Since there was no talk of "under-weight" with its resented implications, these interviews proved pleasant and helpful. In a few cases where it was known that the child was already under the care of a competent physician, the card was merely sent home for the information of the parent and of the physician in charge of the case.

The cases of those pupils who showed no gain (Group 2 in Table 1) in weight were also sent home for the parent's signature. At the recent inspection of the weight-record cards of pupils, the names of every child attending school from three families were found in these two classes. A diagnosis of malnutrition was at once anticipated. The absence of a child was made the excuse for requesting the attendance officer to make a call. This call revealed the fact that in these families medical attention was a secondary need and that economic assistance was required. The unfortunate condition of one family had not even been suspected, as it was due to a temporary injury to the wage earner who had never before found himself in straitened circumstances, and had been too proud to appeal for aid. No discussion of weight will be held with the parents of these children until the results of a month of good food can be recorded by the school scale.

After these more serious cases have been cared for, a closer examination can be made of those pupils whose records show a loss of weight in one month only (Group 3 of Table 1). If coupled with an underweight condition, a physical examination may prove advisable. Among the 78 percent who show a gain there may be a few individuals whose gain is so slight that, coupled with under-weight, a follow-up may be necessary. The factor of under-weight is not ignored, but becomes important as a symptom of physical disability when strengthened by the unsatisfactory rate of growth.

Supplementary outcomes of the weighing practices—If the discovery of the physically inferior pupils was the sole result achieved by the use of the weight-record card, the expenditure of approximately 30 minutes per month for each room would be amply justified. The relationships established with the homes would be well worthwhile. However, there are other gains.

This method of weighing at regular intervals aids in attaining one of the objectives in health education—that of voluntary periodic physical examinations. Children become interested in watching their own weight record. It is not an uncommon thing to have youngsters

who show weight losses at the regular period to ask for another test during the noon periods to see whether they have started to gain.

Applications of weight data in the health instruction have not been forced, but have been forthcoming, usually from the children's questions. "What makes us lose weight?" led to a study of the relation of cleanliness and sleep to weight and health. An interesting chart of daily activities was worked out by the pupils. Only last week the mother of one of those pupils remarked that she no longer took the child out to late parties as she had done. In another room the losses in weight attendant upon colds and other minor diseases graphically brought home to the pupils the relation between general health and weight. The possibilities of securing the pupils' interest in the study of foods is obvious. From the standpoint of health education alone, the method of recorded monthly weighings is worthwhile.

We have found that our expenditure of 30 minutes per room per month has brought a more satisfactory method of finding those pupils who are in need of health service; has aided in promoting cooperation between school and home; and has contributed definitely to the subject of health education.

THE professional burgeoning of the elementary school principalship has brought with it many problems of a reconstructive nature. Perhaps none of these is more crucial than that of hewing the principal's desk clear of its long accumulated wreckage of reports, routine, and red tape, so that the time and talents of the principal may be released for professional leadership.—Worth McClure, see Chapter VI

ACCIDENT FACTS AND SAFETY EDUCATION

G. C. GRAHAM

Safety Engincer, Board of Education, Detroit, Michigan

NOT LEAST important among the many foundlings which have been left upon the educational doorstep has been the problem of preventing school child traffic accidents.¹ With the advent of compulsory education laws there has developed a somewhat justifiable parental attitude which has insisted that if the state compels children to attend school it must provide for their safety enroute.

Educational institutions throughout the country have been striving to reduce the annual toll of motor vehicle injuries and fatalities among children. Nevertheless it is doubtful if there has been any other problem in recent years which has suffered as much from opinionated guesswork, ungrounded theories, and a superfluity of free advice. Sidney J. Williams has rightly said, "There are at least one hundred million traffic experts in the United States."

Making a survey of accidents—Realizing that a school child traffic protection plan could hope to succeed only if it were based on a foundation of fact, all unsubstantiated opinions and theories were forgotten and exhaustive endeavor made to analyze the problem at hand. A survey of all accidents to Detroit public school children, over a period of from two to five years, was made by the Detroit Board of Education in conjunction with the Police Department, Department of Public Works, and the Public Lighting Commission.

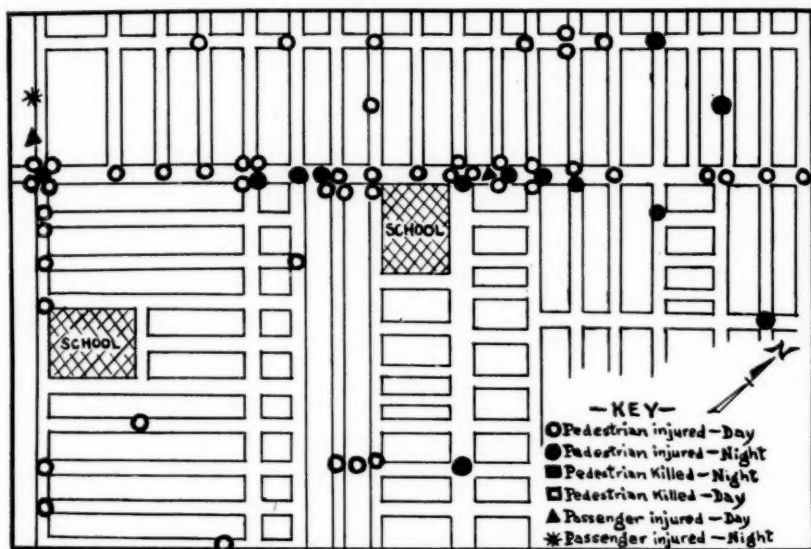
Obviously, our first problem was to find out where these school child traffic accidents were occurring. A comprehensive city-wide spot-map was made, upon which the location of every accident was indicated. By varying the color and shape of the spots we were able to distinguish between fatalities and injuries, pedestrian and passenger accidents, as well as injuries occurring during the hours of daylight and darkness.

Figure 1 shows a small section of such a map. The whole map revealed at a glance the fact that many areas and intersections which were constantly being brought to our attention as very hazardous were, in reality, comparatively free from accidents while other corners and localities heretofore considered reasonably safe were

¹While the data of this contribution are limited to Detroit the careful survey technic and the scientific analysis should be suggestive to many principals in other cities.—*Editorial Committee.*

experiencing considerable difficulty. Likewise, some thoroughfares had surprisingly high accident frequencies.¹

FIGURE 1—SECTION OF DETROIT TRAFFIC SURVEY. MAP SHOWING ACCIDENTS TO CHILDREN DURING 1927 AND 1928



Interpretation of the data—Tables 1 and 2 show typical practices in analyzing accident spot-maps. The mile circles shown in Table 1 were drawn upon the large spot-map with the business district as the center. These radiating circles were particularly helpful in the interpretation of results. It was found that the number of accidents per square mile increased as the central section of the city was approached and the congestion and consequent potential conflicts were increased.

A similar analysis was made of all accidents occurring during the hours of darkness in order to ascertain if there were any localities with numerous accidents whose cause might be attributed to poor street lighting. The results were negative.

Accidents were then segregated into groups by schools and individual school accident rates established on the basis of the number of accidents per 100,000 school population, which is the standard unit

¹ Mr. Graham included tabulations of the hazardous streets, intersections, and areas as indicated by the large spot-map, but space limitations make it impossible to include these local facts. The reader should not limit the possible interpretations of the spot-map to the data shown in Tables 1 and 2.—*Editorial Committee.*

of accident frequency measurement. These tables (summarized in Table 2) disclosed the fact that pupils from approximately 25 percent of our 235 schools were responsible for about 50 percent of our accidents. Manifestly a more concerted accident prevention effort directed at this group would be productive of a greater reduction of motor vehicle fatalities than an equal effort disseminated throughout all of the schools.

As a further aid to localizing traffic casualties the schools with the heaviest accident rates were indicated on city maps by circles whose areas were in one case in direct proportion to the number of accidents suffered by pupils of the school, and in another instance were in proportion to the school's accident frequency rate. This graphic portrayal of schools with heavy accident rates showed a decided localization in poorer neighborhoods where foreign or negro peoples were predominant.

TABLE 1.—ACCIDENTS IN 1927 TO DETROIT PUBLIC SCHOOL PUPILS

Mile Circle	Area—Square Miles	Total Accidents	Total Accidents per Sq. Mi.	Fatal Accidents	Fatal Accidents per Sq. Mi.	Pedestrian Accidents	Pedestrian Accidents per Sq. Mi.	Non-Pedestrian Accidents	Non-Pedestrian Accidents per Sq. Mi.
1	1.5	81	52.7	1	.7	68	44.0	13	8.7
2	4.4	234	51.6	6	1.4	206	45.5	28	6.1
3	8.1	247	29.6	6	.7	210	24.9	37	4.4
4	11.2	309	26.9	7	.6	258	22.4	51	4.5
5	13.1	300	22.2	14	1.1	268	19.9	32	2.3
6	16.8	209	12.1	4	.7	179	10.7	30	1.7
7	21.6	119	5.3	6	.2	92	4.1	27	1.2
8	25.4	69	2.6	3	.1	57	2.2	12	.5
		1569							

TABLE 2.—CHILD ACCIDENT RATES BY MILE CIRCLES IN 1927

Mile Circle	Sq. Miles	Public School Child Accidents	Elementary School Enrolment	Accidents per Sq. Mile	Accidents per 100,000 School Population	Accidents per 100,000 School Population per Sq. Mile
1	1.5	79	2,778	52.7	2,843	1,895
2	4.4	227	15,395	51.6	1,474	335
3	8.1	240	16,777	29.6	1,430	177
4	11.2	301	29,163	26.9	1,032	92
5	13.1	291	37,123	22.2	784	60
6	16.8	203	25,665	12.1	791	47
7	21.6	115	15,993	5.3	719	35
8	25.4	67	11,324	2.6	592	23

NOTE: Accidents beyond the eight mile circle not shown in above computations.

Following these considerations of where mishaps occur, attention was focused on causes. The police accident records were again studied and the summary of causes is shown in Table 3. The figures are fairly accurate except that the first item comprising 1139 accidents, attributed to "running in the streets," is somewhat general due to the lack of details contained in many of the police reports. A careful inspection of this report shows that approximately 60 percent of the total accidents can be attributed to apparent violation of safety rules on the part of the injured children.

The hours when accidents occur is shown in Table 4. There is a very perceptible decrease in accidents during the hours schools are in session. The most important indicator, however, is the large percentage of accidents occurring between the hours of 4 P. M. and 7 P. M., amounting to 33 percent of the total. This period covers the play hour and clearly indicates the need for greater playground facilities and extensive safety patrol organizations to safely convey children to and from these playgrounds.

A further inspection of the records showed that 424 accidents occurred on school days during the hours when children might be expected to be going to or from school. All of these cases were traced through personal interviews, correspondence, and telephone calls in order to determine the exact number occurring to children enroute to or from school. The results are shown in Table 5. It will be noted that but 8.5 percent of the total casualties occur to pupils going to or from school. Of this group more than half were the result of violations of safety rules over which the present protective system would have had little effect. This leaves a balance of

TABLE 3.—CAUSES OF CHILD ACCIDENTS IN DETROIT IN 1927 AND 1928.

Cause	1927	1928	Total	Percent of total
1. Running in street.....	556	583	1139	37.0
2. Crossing street at intersection.....	347	314	661	22.0
3. Collision (passenger during).....	247	226	473	15.4
4. Crossing street not at intersection.....	151	142	293	9.0
5. Playing in street.....	106	115	221	7.0
6. Riding bicycle.....	60	57	117	4.0
7. Hitching.....	43	32	75	3.0
8. Standing on sidewalk.....	23	13	36	1.0
9. Coasting.....	14	7	21	.7
10. Standing in safety zone.....	14	5	19	.6
11. Getting off street car.....	8	1	9	.3
Total.....	1569	1495	3064	100.0

about 4 percent of the total accidents enroute to or from school which might be minimized by more adequate physical protection.

It should be quite clear from this analysis that the protective measures now employed are apparently coping with the problem in excellent fashion and that the remaining 96 percent of the accidents can only be appreciably minimized by effective educational measures. Thus our major efforts should be directed toward that goal. Conversely, if we should cover the city with officers, patrols, semaphores, and pedestrian tunnels during dismissal hours, but little reduction in accidents could be expected. As a part of this study a list was compiled showing the schools having the greatest number of accidents

TABLE 4—TIME OF DAY WHEN ACCIDENTS OCCURRED IN 1927 AND 1928

Hour		1927	1928	Total
A. M.	12 to 1.....	17	6	23
	1- 2.....	4	2	6
	2- 3.....	3	1	4
	3- 4.....	0	1	1
	4- 5.....	0	0	0
	5- 6.....	3	1	4
	6- 7.....	3	1	4
	7- 8.....	19	15	34
	8- 9.....	59	49	108
	9-10.....	20	21	41
	10-11.....	32	38	70
	11-12.....	90	98	188
Total.....		250	233	483
P. M.	12 to 1.....	113	115	228
	1- 2.....	68	62	130
	2- 3.....	87	55	142
	3- 4.....	144	111	255
	4- 5.....	169	163	332
	5- 6.....	175	198	373
	6- 7.....	153	157	310
	7- 8.....	125	142	267
	8- 9.....	123	124	247
	9-10.....	82	65	147
	10-11.....	38	33	71
	11-12.....	22	26	48
Total.....		1299	1251	2550
A. M. total.....		250	233	483
P. M. total.....		1299	1251	2550
Time not stated.....		20	11	31
Grand total.....		1569	1495	3064

to pupils enroute to or from school. This list enabled us to single out the schools which apparently had inadequate protection for their pupils, thereby suggesting places where remedial measures should be adopted.

Next, a traffic protection map was developed which showed the locations of all policemen, school janitors performing traffic duty,

TABLE 5—SUMMARY OF TIME, CAUSES AND RESPONSIBILITY FOR CHILD TRAFFIC ACCIDENTS IN 1927 AND 1928

I. Time of accidents:

Hours	Number of Accidents	Percent of Total
Total accidents, 1927-1928.....	3064	100.0
Accidents occurring during hours children go to or from school	424	13.8
Accidents occurring to children actually enroute to or from school.....	259	8.5
Accidents occurring during hours children go to or from school to children not so doing.....	109	3.5
Accidents about which details could not be procured.	56	1.7

II. Causes of accidents:

Cause	Number of Accidents	Percent of Total
1. Crossing at unprotected intersection, apparently obeying safety rules.....	61	23.6
2. Crossing at middle of block.....	27	11.0
3. Playing in street.....	27	11.0
4. Crossing with signal.....	24	9.2
5. Crossing against signal.....	18	6.9
6. Looked only one way before crossing.....	18	6.9
7. Ran from between parked cars.....	17	6.5
8. Struck by turning auto at intersection.....	13	5.0
9. Not crossing at proper school crossing.....	9	3.5
10. Struck on the sidewalk.....	7	2.8
11. Riding bicycle, struck by auto.....	6	2.3
12. Broke away from older escort.....	5	1.9
13. Crossing alley-way, struck by car.....	5	1.9
14. Do not remember details of accident.....	3	1.1
15. Passenger on vehicle.....	2	.8
16. Miscellaneous causes	17	6.6
Total	259	100.0

III. Responsibility for accidents:

Child's Behavior	Number of Accidents	Percent of Total
Total accidents to public school pupils enroute to or from school who were <i>violating</i> safety rules....	144	55.6
Total accidents to public school pupils enroute to or or from school who were apparently <i>obeying</i> safety rules	112	43.2
Total doubtful cases.....	3	1.2
Total	259	100.0

automatic semaphores, rubber "Stop" signs, amber flashers, and pedestrian subwalks. Comparisons were made with the accident spot-map to ascertain the character of physical protection adjacent to heavy accident frequency locations and in some instances it was found that existing protection was inadequate and corrective measures were adopted.

Another comparison was made to show the ratio of protection per square mile, in the various mile circles, to the number of accidents. The uniformity of the results indicated that protection was being supplied in direct proportion to the number of casualties experienced.

The records then yielded another analysis in the form of an age chart as shown in Table 6. Thirty-nine percent of the mishaps occur to children between the ages of six and nine, leaving little doubt as to the school grades where the greatest effort must be exerted to cultivate a safety consciousness that will carry over into the play hours.

Another development shown in Table 7 lists injuries by month and sex. Nearly twice as many boys are injured as girls. This of course would be expected in view of the character of their respective play habits.

The accident frequency by months shows a very decided increase in accidents during the spring and fall of the year with a rather unexpected decrease during the months of July and August, which is somewhat difficult to fully explain, except that many children are vacationing at that time, playground facilities are more adequate, and public parks more frequented. The number of motor vehicles on the streets increases, and the consequent congestion cuts down the average speed.

TABLE 6.—AGE OF CHILDREN IN 1927 AND 1928 ACCIDENTS

Age in Years	1927	1928	Total
4-5.....	5	0	5
5-6.....	146	94	240
6-7.....	224	250	474
7-8.....	206	196	402
8-9.....	176	151	327
9-10.....	150	129	279
10-11.....	121	134	255
11-12.....	112	113	225
12-13.....	113	104	217
13-14.....	88	73	161
14-15.....	91	75	166
15-16.....	121	162	283
Not Stated.....	16	14	30
Total.....	1569	1495	3064

TABLE 7.—CHILD ACCIDENTS BY SEX AND MONTH IN 1927 AND 1928

Month	1927			1928			Grand Total
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	
January.....	32	22	54	61	19	80	134
February.....	59	35	94	56	23	79	173
March.....	100	48	148	67	36	103	251
April.....	93	44	137	98	31	129	266
May.....	92	64	156	92	60	152	308
June.....	125	53	178	76	68	144	322
July.....	98	37	135	101	55	156	291
August.....	95	44	139	87	49	136	275
September.....	100	61	161	103	68	171	332
October.....	87	67	154	89	65	154	308
November.....	76	50	126	76	33	109	235
December.....	64	23	87	53	29	82	169
Totals.....	1021	548	1569	959	536	1495	3064

The number of mishaps recorded in the city was allocated to the various police precincts in order to determine which of these precincts was having the worst record so that proper steps might be taken to increase police vigilance in proper areas.

Numerous graphs were made for the purpose of determining the rate of child accident fluctuation as compared with the adult rate. Comparisons were made with other cities and the country as a whole.

Summary and conclusion—An accident survey was undertaken for the purpose of ascertaining the real accident facts in Detroit. The following data were obtained:

1. By the aid of an accident spot-map of the entire city, the location of all school child accidents, both day and night, for a period of two years was shown. These tabulations showed that many hazardous streets were not so recognized. Some protective revisions were made on the basis of these results.

2. Accidents were segregated by schools and school accident rates established. Generally speaking, the foreign and negro congested areas reported the most accidents. These data indicated the locations where educational and protective efforts could be concentrated with best results.

3. Accident causes were established as an aid to adequate safety education and proper protection. (See Tables 3 and 5.)

4. The hours of greatest accident frequency were determined so that increased police vigilance might be maintained during those periods. (See Table 4.)

5. The number of accidents occurring to children enroute to or from school was found to be less than nine percent of the total, and

more than half of these were not controllable by ordinary protective measures. This study added greater emphasis to the need for safety education rather than increased physical protection.

6. Accidents to pupils enroute to or from school were isolated by schools in order to determine which schools and localities were lacking in proper protection during these hours.

7. A traffic protection map was evolved which could be consulted in conjunction with other spot-maps to find the extent of existing protection at hazardous points. A supplementary chart showed the proportion of protection to accidents by mile circles.

8. A table of casualties by age groups showed the need for concentrated educational effort in first, second, and third grades. (See Table 6.)

9. A chart of injuries by sex reveals the need of greater effort among boys rather than girls. (See Table 7.)

10. June and September were shown to be the months of greatest accident frequency and an increase in the safety activity program during those months should be most appropriate. (See Table 7.)

11. The segregation of accidents into police precincts enabled the police department to better direct its activities.

In conclusion, during the year 1928, Detroit effected a saving of approximately 20 percent in motor vehicle fatalities. The greatest saving was accomplished in the school-child group where the reductions amounted to about 34 percent. This reduction is in some measure due to the information obtained from this survey and the excellent cooperation received from the pupils, principals, teachers, parents, the police and other city departments. The solution of a school-child traffic problem clarifies itself in direct proportion to the number of facts which are determined.

HAVE you used the index in the back of this Year-book?

LAUNCHING A SAFETY EDUCATION PROGRAM

ANNA A. CONDON

Principal, Waterside School, Stamford, Connecticut

SEVERAL YEARS ago, a health education program was written based upon the needs of the children in Waterside School and built around their three-fold development; namely, the physically-fit child, the mentally-fit child and the social-morally-fit child. Although every real safety situation, which has arisen in the daily life of the child has been utilized in connection with the program, we feel that incidental safety instruction is inadequate. The time is opportune to launch a cooperative teachers' project for the purpose of building a Safety Education program based upon the needs, interests, and capacities of these children. This program is to permeate the daily activities of the school, becoming as it were, an integral part of the life of the school.¹

I. Need of safety education in Waterside School—Safety education becomes imperative for the following reasons:

- a. Location of the school on a dangerous corner—a highway of trade where accidents could readily occur.
- b. Many mothers are factory workers, leaving their children to care for themselves in the home and on the street before and after school hours.
- c. Stamford has its quota of accidents. In 1927 4 children were killed, 112 children were injured, 9 adults were killed, 288 adults were injured, and 1002 accidents occurred.
- d. Incidental teaching of safety is inadequate.
- e. Safety education is a *means* of teaching the child
 1. To value and conserve human life
 2. To adjust himself to modern civilization in all its complexity
 3. To live an active, happy, and satisfying life.

II. Psychological basis of a safety education program

Naturally such a program must be placed on a psychological basis for psychological principles are just as necessary here as in any other subject. Therefore, the program will be arranged under such headings as:

1. *Situations and activities*—All real situations in the home, street, school, playground, etc., will be utilized.
2. *Outcomes (immediate and remote)*—In terms of safety habits, safety attitudes and safety knowledge.

The laws of learning, too, must be borne in mind if the best results are to be obtained.

1. *Law of readiness*—Learning becomes more effective if the opportune time is utilized for presenting the lesson. The children must realize a felt need for the solution.

¹ Busy principals will appreciate Miss Condon's analysis of the principal's part in launching a safety program. Such an outline aptly illustrates the foresight emphasized by Dr. Judd earlier in this yearbook.—*Editorial Committee.*

2. *Law of exercise*—Doing the thing is more essential than talking about it.
3. *Law of effect*—Gaining satisfaction from what is done will help to form right habits.

III. Interesting teachers in a safety education program

a. *General—(Teachers' meetings)*

NOTE—Each teacher will be provided with a copy of "An Introduction to Safety Education" by Harold Rugg and others.

- b. *Group meetings*—Primary (Kgn., 1st, 2d, 3d); Intermediate (Gr. 4, 5, 6)
- c. *Safety literature*—(See bibliography)
- d. Speakers on safety through the P. T. A.

IV. Plans for the first meeting of teachers

Each teacher will receive a mimeograph copy of the following information at least one week previous to the meeting:

NOTICE TO TEACHERS WATERSIDE SCHOOL SEPTEMBER, 1929

Your Commissioner of Education, Dr. A. B. Meredith has sent the following data to all school officials in Connecticut:

- a. 86 children were killed by accident in Connecticut in 1927. 2890 children were injured in Connecticut in 1927.
- b. 90 percent of these accidents might have been prevented.
- c. Approximately 20,000 children are killed in the United States every year.
- d. Reports of the U. S. Census Bureau show that accidents rank third in the causes of death to children under 5 years; first to children from 5 to 9; first to children from 10 to 14; and second to children from 15 to 19. Among children of school age there is no disease which takes as many lives or even half as many lives as accidents. Of the 25,800 persons killed in automobiles in 1927, approximately 6,000 were under 15 years of age.

A general teachers' meeting will be devoted to the discussion of Safety Education in Waterside School. In the meantime give the following questions your best thought:

1. Analyze the situation as you see it in Waterside School. Do you see the need of a Safety Education program?
2. Question your pupils to discover the hazards at home; analyze that situation as well as you can. (Special effort will be made to encourage these parents to attend the P. T. A. meetings on Safety.)
3. Question them about community hazards.
4. How many mothers work in stores, factories, etc.?
5. What play hazards arise after school and before school?
6. Survey pupil experiences—Hitching on trucks, buses, trolleys, short cuts over railroad tracks, "jay walking"; skating or walking on thin ice, coasting on Selleck Street hill; carrying dangerous weapons, etc.
7. How may safety instruction help in such situations?
8. What greater educational value has safety instruction than prevention?
9. Do you think the school should be responsible for such instruction?

10. Do you think that the incidental safety teaching that is being done at present will suffice?
11. Can children adapt themselves, without help, to the complex conditions of life today?
12. What suggestions have you to offer to help safeguard child life?

V. The first general meeting¹

- A. Discussion
 1. Need of a safety education program
 2. Value of safety instruction
 3. Necessity of loyal cooperation of each member of the staff if the plan is to succeed.
- B. Plans to initiate the program
 1. Analysis of the situation
Needs and hazards of school, playground, street, home, community.
 2. Statement of general aims of safety program
 3. Statement of general objective of safety program
 4. Principles underlying such a program
 5. Arrangements made for group meetings—the result to be unified safety education program.

VI. The second general meeting

- A. General aims. (Purely suggestive)
 1. To create in each child a real desire to acquire and practise safety habits; to develop right attitudes and ideals toward safety and to acquire the necessary safety knowledge so that he may be able to cope successfully and intelligently with every new situation that might arise in his every-day life or in the life of his associates. } Pupil Participation
 2. To secure the active cooperation of the parents through the following means:
 - a. The children
 - b. Home visitations by teacher and nurse
 - c. Attending safety programs in school
 - d. P. T. A. meetings.} Parental Participation
 3. To help to launch a city wide campaign for the general safety of the community. } Community Participation

NOTE.—Safety education is not only a training in prevention of accidents but it is also a vital part of training in useful and intelligent citizenship.

B. General objectives

NOTE.—These will be determined by the needs revealed in the analysis of the situation. A committee will work at a plan of surveying home and school needs and of securing data from the Police Department and Department of Motor Vehicles in Hartford. Another committee will work out community hazards.

Tentative objectives

Wholehearted participation of pupils, parents, teachers, principal, community, etc., in: (1) Making homes safe, (2) making street safe, (3) making school safe, (4) making schoolgrounds safe, (5) making Stamford a safe city.

NOTE.—No mention is made of health for as has been already stated this school has a health program which provides for all phases of health including first-aid.

¹The principal is doing project teaching in launching this safety program. Therefore, he will give opportunities for informal and wholehearted discussion, thereby enlisting full teacher cooperation.

C. Principles underlying a safety education program¹

1. Real situations in home, school, street, playground, community. Draw upon child's own experiences.
2. Activities including use of games, dramatization, industrial arts, sand table representations, excursions, English, reading, art, social studies, music, arithmetic, club organizations, etc.
3. Outcome (immediate and remote) in terms of safety habits, safety attitudes and necessary safety knowledge.

VII. Group meetings of teachers

NOTE.—Each group will elect its own chairman, arrange time and place of meetings, but principal will work in each group contributing his part to the success of the program. He must inspire, guide, and direct his group if sympathetic cooperation is to be obtained and the program is to have unity. The principal will evaluate their contributions in terms of aim, objective, and outcomes. Suggested outlines are as follows:

A. Primary grades (Kgn., 1, 2, 3.)

1. Personal safety stressed in coming to and from school, at school, at play on schoolground, at home, riding in street cars, etc.
2. Civic virtues—obedience, helpfulness, punctuality.
3. Safety education program will consist of a list of activities with their outcomes in habits, ideals, attitudes, and knowledge. (Teachers will have an opportunity to use their best skill, originality and initiative in making their work vital.) See tentative program for Kgn. and Grade 1 in the next section.

B. Intermediate grades (4, 5, 6)

1. Personal safety of primary grades utilized for the purpose of acquiring new safety habits, attitudes, and knowledge on higher levels of intelligence.
2. Home, street, play, fire, and civic protection. In these grades the preadolescent has a sense of responsibility for not only his own safety but also for his associates, and his community. (Later his state and nation.)
3. Club formation in the 4th and 5th grades culminating in a safety squad in the 6th grade (highest grade). Safety committees in 4th and 5th grades working in closest cooperation with safety squad.
4. Participation in community activities.
5. List of activities with their outcomes, as in preceding grades. Of course, needs will determine the content of the program. Social studies will be drawn upon in these grades.
6. Civic virtue: Service! (See Safety Project for 6th grade.)

NOTE.—These group meetings will be regarded as opportunities for the teachers to engage in free discussions of common interests and common problems. The extent of teacher participation is the real test of good group meetings.

VIII. A tentative safety education program for primary grades

NOTE.—Personal safety stressed—to and from school, at school, at play, at home. Much pleasurable participation will develop correct attitudes and dispel fear.

TEACHER'S RÔLE—"Provide those situations which call the active virtues of citizenship into play and make their exercise satisfying."

¹Activities will be constantly stressed because growth comes best through self-activity in typical life situations.

Situations and Activities.

Outcomes in terms of habits, attitudes, ideals and knowledge.

Games

Play—Going to and returning from school

Policeman, street corner, autos, wagons, pedestrians.

Play—being lost

name

address

parents' name

telephone number.

Habits of going directly to school

Habits of going home directly from school

Habits of not playing in the streets

Knowledge of direction

Respect for those in authority

Useful knowledge if child is lost.

Dramatization

Traffic officer

children-trolley signals, etc.

Habit of waiting for traffic officer to signal

Knowledge of signals

Attitude of regarding the officer as a friend.

Language

Relating home experiences

Looking at books and talking about pictures

Looking at safety posters and talking about them

Listening to talks given by pupils in intermediate grades or by members of safety patrol.

Safety knowledge

Attitude of safety being developed

A desire on their part to safeguard themselves

Respect for and obedience of traffic patrol. Spirit of cooperation engendered.

Art

Cut-outs of various things pertaining to safety.

Music

Safety songs

Many interesting ones for primary classes.

Habit of using a scissors correctly

Pleasurable attitude toward safety.

Playground activities

Reading:

Signs

Posters, etc.

Spirit of fair play; cooperation

Safety knowledge.

Housekeeping activities

Putting away all playthings and supplies.

Fire drills.

Spirit of helpfulness at home and at school

Helpfulness in making the school a safe place—obedience to rules.

Sandtable activities

NOTE—See Mae E. Spahr's Safety-first project for first grade Waterside School. Patty Hill Block activities in kindergarten.

Civic virtues for primary grades

Helpfulness

Obedience

Punctuality.

IX. A safety project for the fifth and sixth grades

A. Aims:

1. If children are to be happy, useful and intelligent citizens of the complex life of today, they must receive adequate instruction in accident prevention.
2. To develop skills, ideals and attitudes toward accident prevention by using actual situations that arise in the city, or to develop a safety consciousness on the part of the children.
3. To have the children make an analysis of the situation around the school for the causes of accidents and then plan to eliminate them.
4. To lead them to organize a safety squad service.

B. Materials:

1. Newspaper clippings from the local press concerning accidents to children.
2. The data collected as a result of their investigation about the school situation and of the city (the necessity for heavy traffic in cities today).
3. Safety-first literature.
4. Clippings from newspapers about accidents during the preceding months or any months decided upon by the class.
5. Material obtained from the police department and traffic officers.
6. Literature from the National Safety Council.
7. Literature from the Department of Motor Vehicles.
8. A talk by one of the best traffic officers.

C. Approach:¹

An article from the local paper about an accident to a school child; or a mishap to a child in Waterside School. Class discussion will follow as to why accidents occur. This will lead them to analyze their own dangerous situations.

Location, trolley and bus service, stealing rides, passing trucks, rushing out into the streets without looking, crossing at wrong places, and roller-skating on roads.

Out of this discussion will arise a desire to study more about this matter in order that they may instruct the younger children. Then a desire to form a traffic squad or a safety patrol will naturally follow.

D. Activities growing out of the approach:²

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. Planning for the safety campaign. Organization of committees (appointed by class). | Outcomes
Learning how to work together in groups. |
| a. Information committee.
This committee will receive and read all clippings brought in by members of the class.
Committee will attend a coroner's inquest following an accident in Stamford.
Committee to report to class and distribute materials to class. | Getting information first-hand about a social institution. |
| b. Lecture committee.
Plan three-minute talks to be given at Assembly or to lower grade. | Ability to talk. Sharing experiences with the group in a social situation. |
| c. Poster committee.
To make safety poster to be placed in various classrooms, in the corridors and at the exits of the school. "Go and Stop" signs. | Ability to express an idea briefly, tersely. To use in primary grades to illustrate talk given by pupils of Grades 5 and 6. |

¹ Purposing leading toward self-activity.

² Planning, executing and judging activities.

- d. Graph committee.
 - 1. To plot graphs showing number of accidents during a series of years in Stamford. Members to get this material either from Committee I or from old files of papers at press office.
 - 2. To plot a graph for 1925, 26, 27.
- 2. Formation of a traffic squad.
 - a. Visit the police department.
 - b. Receive permission to mark crossings at corner of the school.
 - c. Permission to work with traffic officer of city department.
 - d. To serve before school, at noon and after school. Their insignia will be nickel badges. (traffic squad)
 - e. This traffic squad will be under the guidance of the sixth grade teacher and principal. The group will organize, and write its own constitution.

Skill in handling statistics.

First hand knowledge of a social institution.

Cooperating with Stamford Police Department.

A spirit of real helpfulness engendered-service.

E. Natural Correlations:

1. English

- Oral {
 - Personal experience
 - Reproductions of articles read
 - Three minute speeches for lower grades
 - Dramatization
 - How to get off a street car
 - How to cross the street

- Written {
 - Note to Judge asking for permission to visit inquest
 - Note seeking permission to visit police department
 - Letter to safety council for literature
 - Letter to Commissioner Stoekel for information
 - Making a set of safety readers for first grade.

2. Social studies

a. Civics—first-hand knowledge of a social institution.

- Local {
 - Police {
 - traffic
 - safety zone
 - safety patrols
 - Fireman
 - Street Cleaning Dept.
 - Health Department
 - Building Inspectors
 - Parks—playgrounds
 - Department of Education
 - Provision for safety of children.
- State {
 - Dept. of Health (Health Course)
 - Dept. of Motor Vehicles
 - Dept. of Labor
 - State Police—highways.
- National {
 - Dept. of Commerce
 - Lighthouses, and coast survey.

- b. History—comparison with other periods of history, *e. g.*, necessity of traffic regulation today as compared with colonial period.
3. Arithmetic
Gathering data on accidents and using them in problems. Making graphs—
 Accidents per month { Stamford &
 Accidents per year { Connecticut
4. Art
Poster Making.
 Illustrations for slogans or for safety stories.
 Illustrations of traffic signals.
 Printed slogans; cover design for safety booklets.
 Booklets.
 Class or individual.
5. Reading
 Silent: Wealth of material from various sources.
 Oral: Selected articles for class discussion.
- F. Results of the fifth and sixth grade project:
 a. Reduction in accidents due to habits, attitudes, and skills as a result of the development of a safety consciousness.
 b. Close association with police department.
 Sympathetic attitude toward traffic officer.
 Obedience to traffic officer.
 c. Cultivation of habit of critically reading newspapers.
 d. Skill acquired in handling statistics.
 e. Ability to talk before an audience.
 f. A knowledge of the cause of accidents through an analysis of the situation.
 g. Motivation of school subjects.
 h. Social contact; cooperation; participation; initiative through actually serving as a traffic officer.
 i. Service to the school on traffic patrols and similar enterprises.

X. Securing parental cooperation

NOTE:—The Waterside School and Home Association meets once every month. At each meeting a different class presents a program dealing with some phase of safety—an outgrowth of classroom work and discussion. A speaker will be provided for each meeting.

A TENTATIVE PROGRAM.

September

Speakers—Superintendent of Schools—and the Mayor

Topics: General phases of safety

 Making parents conscious of the dangers encountered by their children.

Program—Children of grade

President of P. T. A. to appoint a committee to make a survey of community hazards and report at next meeting.

A committee appointed to send out letters to parents warning them of traffic hazards.

October

Speaker: Fire Chief

Topic: Some phase of safety

Program—Children of grade

Report of committees

Plans to eliminate dangers.

November

Speaker: School physician

Topic: Accidents at home; first aid treatment

Program—Children of grade

Moving pictures dealing with safety

Report of committees

Cooperate with school in its American Education Week Program which may deal with the theme of Safety.

December

Speaker: School nurse

Topic: Safety during Christmas time.

January

Speaker: Traffic officer stationed at school

Topic: How the community may be made safe

Program—Children of grade.

February

Speaker: Director of physical education

Topic: Safety in recreation; more equipment on the playground

Program: Children of grade.

March

Speaker: Superintendent of a nearby factory

Topic: Safety in industries.

April

Speaker: Chief of Police

Program: Children of grade.

May

Speaker: Expert from the Department of Motor Vehicles in Stamford

Topic: How to make the highways safe

Program: Children of grade.

June

Speaker: Director of Y. M. C. A.

Topic. Vacation hazards.

*XI. Securing community cooperation**A. A closing program¹*

1. An original safety pageant by school

2. School safety exhibit

B. Aim. To decrease accidents and conserve human life through educational activities.

¹ Invitations extended to city officials and Chamber of Commerce with idea of initiating a Stamford safety council.

XII. Measurement of results

A. Safety knowledge

Informal testing is useful in measuring, learning, and improving teaching. Teachers are referred to Russell's *Classroom Tests*.¹

B. Safety habits

By means of a "habit questionnaire" teachers may be able to measure this outcome.

C. Safety attitudes and ideals—an unsolved problem yet. No method has as yet been developed to measure these outcomes.

The pupils in the 4th, 5th, and 6th grades, through their safety committees or clubs, will keep records of accidents in their community, analyze them and plan to eliminate them. These committees will cooperate with the safety squad. These reports will be made part of the safety exhibit held in June.

If pupils are able to apply their safety knowledge to their own safety in all their social relationships, and feel a responsibility for the safety of their classmates and friends, and gradually feel their responsibility for community and city safety, the teachers will feel that their safety program is bearing fruit.

XIII. Bibliography for teachers

Book or Magazine	Author	Publisher
Safety First for School and Home.	Beard	Macmillan
An Introduction to Safety Education.	Nat'l Safety Council	
Annual Statistical Report.	Nat'l Safety Council	
U. S. Government Bulletin on Safety First.		Gov. Printing Office, Wash., D. C.
Education in Accident Prevention	Payne	Lyons and Carnahan
Nat'l Safety News.	Nat'l Safety Council	
Health and Safety in the New Curriculum.	Payne-Schroeder	American-Viewpoint Society
Interesting the Teacher in Safety Education.	Thos. Gosling	Nat'l Safety Council, New York City
Bulletins of Dept. of Motor Vehicles.	Stoekel	Hartford, Conn.
Introduction to Safety Education.	Harold Rugg and others	Nat'l Safety Council.
Safety Education for Teachers-Parents.	Beard	Macmillan
Safety for the Child.	Scoville, Long	Republic Bk. Co.
A Program of Education in Accident Prevention.	Payne	Gov. Printing Office, Wash., D. C.
The Inner Meaning of the Safety Movement.	Whitney	Nat'l Safety Council, Chicago, Ill.
Bulletins.	Elliot Service Co.	244 W. 49th St., New York City
Lessons in Civics for the Six Elementary Grades—Bulletin No. 18.	Harris	Gov. Printing Office, Wash., D. C.
Safety Education Magazine.	Nat'l Safety Council (teachers and pupils,)	New York City
Safety Plays—Safety Posters.	Nat'l Safety Council	120 W. 42d St., New York City
School Service of the Nat'l Safety Council.	Nat'l Safety Council	108 E. Ohio St. Chicago, Ill.

¹ Russell, Charles. *Classroom Tests*. Ginn and Company, 1926.

XIV. Books for Children

Book title	Author	Grade	Publisher
Jimmie and the Junior Safety Council	Boothe	Intermediate	World Book
Sure Pop and the Safety Scouts.	Baily	Intermediate	World Book
Chalk Talks on Health and Safety.	Cobb	Intermediate	Macmillan
Roller Bears and the Safety Tribe.	Fox	Intermediate	Macmillan
Safety First for Children.	Veit	Intermediate	Noble and Noble
Stories of Safety First.	Baily		World Book
Safety First for Children.	Garrison		Wagner
Our Home and Personal Duty.	Freyer	Intermediate	Winston
Our Town and Civic Duty.	Freyer	Intermediate	Winston
Community Interest and Public Duty.	Freyer	Intermediate	Winston
Safety First Stories.	Brinkerhoff & Rowe	Upper Primary	Longmans
Safety First for Little Folks.	Waldo	Primary	Scribners
Eight New Safety Stories.	Massachusetts Safety Council	(May be read to children)	Author, Boston, Massachusetts
Safeguarding the Home Against Fire.	Nat'l Board of Underwriters		Author, New York City

THE membership list of the Department of Elementary School Principals is probably the most extensive directory of its kind. Have you looked in Part III for this roster of progressive principals?

EFFECTIVE ORGANIZATION OF THE FIREDRILL

ROY C. WOODS

Professor of Education, Marshall College, Huntington, West Virginia

BEING CAUGHT in a school fire which exacted a toll of two lives was an experience of the writer. Since that time a study of the problem has been made with the conclusion that much of what we do in the firedrill defeats its own purpose.

Some typical practices—In most instances the objective of a good firedrill is perfect and automatic passing of the lines. In the passing of these lines custom varies from the taking of no property to an attempt to rescue as much property as possible. In the latter case, apparently little thought is given to the increased hazard to the lives of the children. When parents place their children under our care they have a right to expect us to guard them against the health and accidental hazards which accompany the grouping of people. In most instances the school has done fairly well, but not so with the fire hazard. In spite of much agitation, children are still being sent to school buildings that are not fireproof. Sometimes safe buildings are endangered by storerooms under the wooden stairs, and filled with such inflammable materials as paper, raffia, floor oils, and oiled sweeping compounds.

Firedrills are usually planned on the assumption that all school buildings may catch fire. Even in fire-resistant schools this is not a foolish assumption. People said: "The Titanic cannot sink"; neither "could the American army reach France before the end of the war"—but both things happened.

The plan proposed later in this article is based on the above assumption with one additional point, *i. e.*, life should not be jeopardized except it is for the life of another. The only things in the building worth considering, after the children, are the permanent records. It is often unfortunate when these are destroyed and they may be saved with a little precaution.

Dangers in a typical firedrill—The gong sounds the alarm. Frequently the alarm bell is not easily distinguished from the signals used for passing classes or changes in the platoon. The children immediately rise and follow some leader, pupil, or teacher out of the room. Usually, the class uses the same door, the same stairway, and the same exit at each firedrill. The pace is usually orderly, but so rapid and automatic as to be disastrous should anything unforeseen happen. For example, what would happen to the typical automatized group of children, should they open the door and find

the stairway a mass of flames? A panic develops in a group of people when instincts, habits, and reason fail to provide the correct response. Granting that the children in the front of the line would stop what is to stop the ones in the rear from pushing them over into the fire before they are aware what has happened? Under such conditions a panic could scarcely be avoided.

Some suggested procedures—Before the first drill the pupils will be thoroughly instructed upon the order of movement, and the kind of expected conduct. An advance notice is given on the first drill so that everyone will be prepared. An alarm is sounded upon a gong used for firedrill purposes only. The children act as if the building were on fire and that their safety and the safety of others depend upon each one making the correct move. At the alarm all children remain quiet but with attention centered on the teacher. Either a second bell will sound to tell the teacher which exit to use, or else she will go to the door to make sure that the exit is clear before giving the pass signal. These precautions will preclude any possibility of sending the children into blocked stairways and exits.

The teacher will be the last to leave the room making sure that no child remains behind. When the first and second grades are close together one of the teachers will lead the children out and the other teacher will make sure that both classrooms are empty. The principal will locate the grades so that the smaller children are near the exits and on the lower floor. This plan will send the smaller and slower children out of the building first. The older and more active pupils can easily cover the greater distance. No line will be permitted to advance beyond a given point until the smaller pupils have passed. Should the small children become paniestricken the sight of the older brothers and sisters orderly stopping and waiting for them to pass will help to revive confidence. A further advantage of this method is that older boys may be called to carry out small children who have been injured or have fainted.

No attempt will be made for the girls to pass out ahead of the boys. Talking, pushing, and running in the lines will be expressly forbidden. Children will be taught never to cry "Fire!" during the drills or at any time which may lead to disaster. Lines will move slightly faster than the normal walking pace, but slower than a trot. The drill will be repeated frequently at the beginning of the year, in order that the procedure may become habituated. Repetitions will then come sufficiently often to keep these habits fresh in mind. Schools ought not to be considered properly "opened" by the principal until after the firedrill has been perfected.

The records of each classroom are valuable to both the pupil and the school. The teacher will place on the same corner of his desk the first thing each morning, the box or book containing the class records. In case of fire he can pick them up quickly and take them along, without involving additional risk. Nothing else will be taken and even the records will be dropped if it becomes necessary to rescue a child. Schools with duplicate records may find this precaution unnecessary.

When the children are safely out of the building our firedrill cannot be said to be finished. The principal will have the playground so divided that each teacher will know where he is to take his group. Also, the principal will let everyone know where he can be found. The playground grouping will be arranged so that there will be two teachers in charge of each station. When the teachers have their group assembled at the appointed place they will make a careful check of attendance. As soon as the teachers at each station have ascertained the status of their attendance one will take charge of both groups while the other notifies the principal that all are accounted for, or give him the names and the probable location of the missing. The principal will then relay this information to the firemen who are thus better enabled to handle their problem.

The principal will not make the rounds of stations to check the reports but will be at an appointed place to help the firemen and to get the reports from the teachers. Parents will be notified in advance where they will find their children in case of fire and instructed to come to that place for them. No child will be turned over to anyone except a responsible adult, preferably the parents. This practice will get the children off the hands of the school and save much anxiety and, many times, hysteria on the part of the parents. The problems of the firemen will be simplified if no one is permitted to re-enter the building.

Summary—In a well conducted firedrill a panic ought not to develop. In case such should happen the teacher and principal will always hold as their objective "the greatest good for the greatest number." Any action necessary to quell a panic even at the discomfort of the individual would be justified, on the grounds that many lives are endangered. It seldom will be necessary to resort to drastic measures in such an emergency. The better the groups are drilled the better will be the order and the less chance of a panic. The presence of teachers with their groups, as suggested above, places an adult close enough to each pupil that the beginning of disorder can be promptly quelled. Usually a command from one in authority will suffice. Failing in this the offender may be removed and held

from the lines as they pass. More drastic measures will not often be necessary.

It is impossible to propose a firedrill for all local conditions. The above suggestions, with whatever modifications are necessary to fit local conditions, will accomplish our aim: to save the life of every person in the building. It is hoped that we will rapidly eliminate the need of firedrills by the construction of first-class fireproof buildings. The right of compulsion found in compulsory education and compulsory attendance, and exercised by the state places a responsibility upon the state to build buildings that will protect those children that are compelled to attend school. Until then, effective organization of the firedrills is a responsibility and duty of every public school administrator.

THE elementary school libraries of Oakland are organized as integral parts of the schools in which they flourish, and are the direct responsibility of the principal of the school. Herein lies their unusualness, since principals, while accepting mental testing, student accounting, architectural construction, and art instruction as among their daily responsibilities, have not generally added library administration to their duties.—Elizabeth Madison, see Chapter XIII

FIREDRILLS AND FIRE PREVENTION INSTRUCTION

HARRY L. BUCKALEW

Principal, John Muir School, Fresno, California

THE GRIM spector of charred little bodies in the blackened ruins of school buildings has arisen frequently enough to cause administrators to exercise every precaution that no such calamity may befall the schools under their supervision. The most practical channel which this vigilance has taken is in the construction of fire resistant buildings, so arranged that they may be readily emptied in emergencies. The old three and four story wooden firetrap is practically a thing of the past.

The other expedient adopted by school men the country over in reducing the toll exacted by fire and its resulting panic is the emergency dismissal or fire drill. These drills are now required by statute in practically every state. Quite naturally there is a wide variation in the methods of conducting such drills since each state is free to set up its own requirements and each city to add additional rules within the limits of the state code.

Evidence of this wide variation has been obtained from 51 cities distributed throughout 29 states. In most cases the information was supplied by the superintendents in answer to an inquiry blank on fire drills. Perhaps by gleaning a valuable idea here and there we may deduce a system superior to any in use in any individual city.

Frequency of fire drills—Twenty-one cities report that drills are held once a month. Drills held once a month usually constitute a minimum, as other drills may be held when necessary or advisable in the judgment of the principal. Syracuse requires monthly drills but stipulates that two drills be held in September, the first school month. In San Francisco drills are conducted monthly with the further requirement that principals practise the drill weekly for the first four weeks of each term.

Fourteen cities require drills to be conducted bi-weekly and in four the minimum is one drill each week.

The city requiring the fewest fire drills among those reporting is Denver, where the minimum is set at two a semester, one of which must be held during the first three weeks.

One of the most unusual provisions reported is that of a western city where drills are conducted weekly. The rule states that a principal shall be fined \$2 for each week in which he fails to conduct a drill. Such a rule seems unnecessary and undesirable. There are numerous other administrative duties as important as conducting

firedrills which could as easily be included on the \$2 fine basis. The proper treatment for an inefficient principal is to sever his salary entirely and not to amputate it on the installment plan.

The greatest need for firedrills comes at the beginning of a term. At this time pupils must become used to new rooms, unfamiliar hallways and exits, and adjust themselves to the discipline of a different teacher. Sometimes there may be a strange fire escape with which to become familiar. Once adjusted to the new situation, drills may be held less frequently. It is doubtful whether drills are necessary as frequently as every week of the school year except under very unusual conditions.

For these reasons, the system in use in San Francisco is recommended as desirable; namely, weekly drills for the first four weeks of the term, thereafter monthly drills.

The firedrill signals—Whenever possible the signaling equipment used for firedrills should be separate and distinct from that used for other purposes. The gong, siren, or whistle used should have a distinctive tone from that of all other signaling equipment so as to be instantly recognizable. Where the special signal is used the alarm can be given by long continued sounding of the gong.

When the regular class bells must be used, the most common signal is three long rings. It is advisable that the signal be repeated after a brief interval in order to eliminate any possible misunderstanding. No other signal used in the school should be at all similar so that the firedrill signal "brings the pupils to their feet with a jerk" as Cubberley¹ aptly expresses it.

Principals should also make provision for some substitute signal, in case the electric system fails to function properly. Messengers with cards or some other arrangement can be practised occasionally, as suggested by the rules for the firedrill in New York City.

The recall signal may be a whistle blast given by the principal or the display of a distinctive flag at the exits by special monitors designated by the principal. The latter scheme is the best one as imitation is well nigh impossible and the danger of misunderstanding in case of actual fire is thus reduced.

The most elaborate signaling apparatus reported to the writer is that in use in Rochester. The bells are single stroke type used only for the firedrill. These are operated by two sets of storage batteries with a transfer switch which automatically shifts the load from one battery to the other in case of failure of the battery carrying the

¹Cubberley, Ellwood P. *The Principal and His School*. Houghton Mifflin Company, 1923, p. 114.

load. Pilot lights and voltmeters are provided for the administration office and janitor's room to indicate whether the batteries are connected, and their voltage. In addition, in each of the above rooms is a supervisory bell, so connected that it will ring if any trouble develops, such as a loose connection, broken wire, or discharging of the battery.

Order and discipline—The following quotation from a bulletin by J. C. Diehl, superintendent of the Erie, Pennsylvania, schools is particularly well phrased and summarizes the writer's point of view.

Every firedrill should be, for principal and all teachers, an exercise in school management. Complete control of a class, so that the teacher may form its ranks quickly and silently, may halt it, turn it, direct it, as he wishes, is the chief purpose of the drill. The pressure for rapid egress should not effect a loss of the more desirable purpose of safety first. Loss of life in crowded buildings almost invariably comes from lack of control. Running, especially on the stairs, increases liability to falls and to impairment of a teacher's command of a class.

Due prominence should also be given to this statement of Lyman C. Hunt, superintendent of schools of Burlington, Vermont.

I believe that speed has been emphasized at the expense of good order in making the exit. I do not believe the stop watch has any place at a firedrill.

In a modern class A, B, or even class C school building there is almost no danger of children being burned to death. There is a great likelihood that pupils may be killed or severely injured by trampling in panic resulting from a fire situation. Absolute control and direction by the teacher are vital. Each individual child should be drilled on his personal responsibility in emergencies and made to feel that obedience is his first duty.

One specific example: pupils should be so drilled that when a person falls, the ranks immediately following will halt and hold up arms until the fallen one has been assisted to his feet. It is hardly possible to over-emphasize this idea of control and order since in a time of emergency it must be so thoroughly ingrained as to dominate the native instinct of fear which gives way to panic.

Organization and procedure—The principal is the director in charge of the drill. He should plan the time of the drill so as to give variety, and test every situation likely to be met with in an emergency. He should designate the stations and duties of janitors, engineers, vice-principals, and others. He should detail certain persons to turn in alarms through alarm boxes or telephone or both.

The principal should designate the exit to be used by each class, and have someone appointed to see that exits are clear. The route of march, order of classes, and the position of each class in the yard

or street should be carefully planned. He should also have a definite station where he can be reached for emergency communications and for reports. Janitors should be instructed to shut off ventilating equipment at the sound of the fire alarm. All these details should be carefully planned and gone over with teachers in advance so as to preclude possibility for misunderstanding or confusion.

The principal should also devise a system for a checking up on the progress of the fire drill. Two practical plans are as follows:

1. A monitor for each room, selected by the teacher for dependability, looks in the cloakroom and main room to see that they are clear and closes the classroom doors.¹ He then reports to a central station in the yard where the monitors line up by room numbers. Each monitor then reports to the principal in turn that his room is clear. The criticism made against this idea is that the younger children in the lower grades are less dependable than the older ones as monitors. The scheme is used quite successfully, however.

2. Boys from the highest grade (usually sixth or eighth) are delegated to check certain groups of rooms or wings of the building and then report to the principal at a designated station. In either, one or two alternates must be provided to care for absences among the monitors.

In Oklahoma City (and doubtless in other cities not reporting on this study) the teacher is obliged to obtain his attendance record upon the sound of the alarm bell and to call the roll of his class when they have reached their position in the yard or street. This may seem unnecessary in a practice, but in a real fire situation might be extremely valuable.

All lines should be far enough removed from the building as to be safe in case of fire and not interfere with the work of firemen. Lines should face about upon reaching their designated positions so as to be more easily directed and ready for the recall signal. The writer has found by experience the best control is obtained by having the teacher precede the first class and follow the last class in each wing of the building. This prevents both undue speed and lagging.

In case of an actual fire pupils should be held under control until their parents call for them or until the danger is over. In no case should a teacher dismiss a class without the order of the principal. Classes which are in the yard at the time of a drill should be formed by their teachers and proceed to their regular stations.

¹The purpose of this measure is twofold. At least temporarily, it prevents flames from sweeping out into the corridors, should the fire be located in a classroom; and it helps to prevent fanning of the flames by reducing the draft.

Patented fire escapes—Fire escapes make egress slower and require considerable practice. Several systems report that they use them at frequent intervals for regular passage of classes at intermissions to give classes greater facility in their use. Fire escapes should not be used in winter unless the principal has checked their condition. This precautionary procedure should be one of his first duties upon arriving at school.

Printed instructions—Printed cards telling the location of fire escapes, fire alarm signals, and method of exit should be displayed in each classroom. The teachers' card of rules should also be posted conspicuously. New York City and Los Angeles submitted carefully worked out instruction cards for teachers.

Health hazard—Extreme care should be exercised by those in authority not to subject children to severe weather conditions for a fire drill. In a case of continued inclement weather children may be dismissed with their wraps on at the end of a session by means of a fire drill. While the element of surprise is lacking, it might better be than to endanger children's health. The health hazard is another reason for emphasizing drills early in the term before severe weather sets in.

Fire fighting equipment—Fire extinguishers should be regularly tested and recharged. Their position should be conspicuous and indicated by a painted red stripe or other device. Hoses should be similarly cared for and designated. This equipment should be manned by engineers and janitors.

More than one superintendent expressly stated that children should not be used to man equipment. This work is a responsibility beyond their years. The aim of the school officials is to get children away from the fire.

Blocked exits and simulation of smoke—In order to test their teachers' flexibility of control, some administrators make use of barred exits which require the class to use an unusual method of exit. Such a device should not be used until pupils are thoroughly familiar with the regular means of exit and teachers are well informed as to other exits.

The writer does not believe that artificial smoke is ever justified. He knows of one case where it was used with very nearly serious results. It is not worth the risk of life and limb just to test what might happen under actual conditions. Would a principal ever feel right should unnecessary injury result from such a device?

Wraps, books, and property—Children should not be permitted to stop for wraps (except as explained above under health hazards),

books, lunches, or other objects likely to delay or impede their exit. School officials generally agree that life is more valuable than property.

Inspection of drills—A majority of the cities reporting stated that either occasionally or regularly a representative from the fire department, the superintendent's office, or in a few cases, the state fire marshal conducts and inspects the firedrill. Often these inspections are unannounced to the principal, thereby making it a surprise drill in every sense of the word. This practice is a very good check-up on the smoothness with which the drill functions.

Regular inspection of firedrills by such agencies as listed above is desirable and should be as frequent as twice a term where possible. It adds incentive to all concerned to do their best and helps to supply meaning to the children.

Reports—Usually the report is made by the principal monthly on the attendance report blank to the superintendent of schools. Los Angeles, Chicago, Worcester, and Kansas City, Kansas, submitted separate report forms which they use for reporting firedrills to the superintendent's office.

In Kansas the report is made by post-card to the state fire marshal.

Rating the drill and the school plant—No blanks for rating the actual drill were submitted except the one used in Fresno, California. Two forms for the inspection of buildings for fire risks and condition of equipment were sent in, one by Superintendent Bauer of New Orleans, the other by Superintendent Logan of Newark. These forms are included in this section as they are particularly suggestive to principals.

The rating blank used in Fresno was worked out by Commissioner William John Cooper during his superintendency in that city. So far as could be discovered by this study it is the only blank of its kind in use.

The rating is made monthly by a representative from the Fresno Fire Prevention Bureau which won the Thomas Ince cup for three consecutive years (1925, 1926, 1927) in competition with cities of nine western states, for the most outstanding work in fire prevention and reduction of actual fire losses. The form is in duplicate as explained in the heading of the blank, thereby providing the principal with a copy to study and to use in the improvement of his drills.

As can be observed the rating is divided into two main sections; the conduct of the drill, and the condition of the plant, with sub-headings under each and certain values assigned to each item. Of

**FIGURE 1—RATING SCALE FOR FIREDRILLS AND BUILDING CONDITION
FRESNO PUBLIC SCHOOLS**

FRESNO, CALIFORNIA

FIRE DEPARTMENT INSPECTOR'S REPORT

The inspector will please put a circle around the number which in his judgment best indicates the score earned. If any item should be scored very poor, the inspector will place zero under "credits allowed." The carbon copy will be left with the principal of the school, and the original copy delivered to the Fire Prevention Bureau of the City of Fresno Fire Department by the inspector.

Approved:

W. R. WILLIAMS, Chief Engineer
City of Fresno Fire Department.

O. S. HUBBARD,
City Supt. of Schools

	Exception- tionally Good	Superior	Average	Inferior	Poor	Credits Allowed
A—FIRE DRILLS						
1. Promptness of movement and exit time.....	9	8-7	6-5-4	3-2	1	
2. Orderliness of exit.....	9	8-7	6-5-4	3-2	1	
3. Care of ill, crippled, etc.....	5	4	3	2	1	
4. Lines clear of building.....	5	4	3	2	1	
5. Prin. (or rep.) on station....	3	2	1	Not at	all	
6. Rooms reported empty.....	(all) 5	4	3	2	1	
7. Fire extinguishers manned (including hose).....	6	5	4-3	2	1	
8. Street gates open.....	(all) 3	2	1	None	open	
9. Exit doors open.....	(all) 5	4	3	2	1	
10. Class doors closed.....	(all) 5	4	3	2	1	
B—CONDITION OF PLANT						
1. Corridors and fire escapes clear.....	6	5	4-3	2	1	
2. Condition of heating plant..	5	4	3	2	1	
3. Cleanliness of basement....	5	4	3	2	1	
4. Cleanliness of grounds.....	8	7-6	5-4	3-2	1	
5. Condition of fire extin- guishers.....	5	4	3	2	1	
6. Care of oils and other jani- tor's supplies.....	5	4	3	2	1	
7. Care of gasoline, acids, etc..	5	4	3	2	1	
8. Condition of lunch rooms and stoves.....	6	5	4-3	2	1	

Possible Score.....100

Date....., 192....

Signed.....

Score made.....

Inspector

course, the items selected for rating are open to criticism as are the relative values assigned to each item. Items might be omitted, others added, and other percentages assigned to fit the needs of the system or correspond with the philosophy of the administration.

This plan has at least the value of being definite. Where an attempt is made to rank schools in order of excellence or where a prize is awarded to the school adjudged best in the conduct of its fire drills, it would seem that a fairer evaluation could be made by such a rating card than by subjective estimate. The same argument would hold in those situations where the principal's rating depends partially upon the conduct of his fire drills.

There is a noticeable stimulation both to the children and to the school staff to strive for a 100 percent rating with a resulting high standard in the performance of the drills. It is of course essential that the inspector be a just scorer—neither too severe nor too lax.

In general the idea of rating the drill is a good one and may be followed with profit in other cities. After more forms are in use, it will be easier to evaluate fire drill rating blanks and possibly draw up a composite "best" one.

The rating blanks for fire hazards and building conditions sent in by Newark and New Orleans are represented by Figures 2 and 3.

FIGURE 2—SCHOOL INSPECTION BLANK, NEWARK, N. J.

DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC SAFETY
BUREAU OF COMBUSTIBLES AND FIRE RISKS
FIRE DIVISION, NEWARK, N. J.
SCHOOL INSPECTION RECORD

Inspected by	Date	
Name	Location	
Occupied as public	Parochial	Private
Construction	Stories	Fireproof
Number of stairs	Construction	Open
Fire escapes	Number	Location
Number of rooms	Number of pupils	Teachers
Stand pipes	Size of risers	Water supply
Siamese connection	Location	Size
Hose	Size	Condition
Nozzle	Size	Condition
Main shut off valve	Location	Pressure
Sprinklers	Size of mains	Water supply
Siamese connection	Size	Location
Shut off valve	Sign at same	Pressure
Waste cans	Kind	
Paper vault	Construction	
Fire alarm system (kind)		Fire drills
How often are fire drills held?		Time of egress
City fire alarm box		

FIGURE 2—SCHOOL INSPECTION BLANK, NEWARK, N. J.—(Continued)

Fire extinguishers	Number	Kind
Location		
When recharged		
Name of principal		Name of janitor
Exposure hazards		
Boiler room	Location	Construction
Dumb waiter shaft		Construction
Is building kept free from rubbish, etc.		
Auditorium	Location	Stage construction
Scenery		Seating capacity
Number of exits		Signs of exits
Fire extinguishers		Seats fastened to floor
Booth	Construction	
Kind of motion picture machines		
Operator		
Are shutters in working order?		
What is fire extinguishing equipment in booth?		
Remarks and recommendations:		

FIGURE 3—NEW ORLEANS INSPECTION BLANK

INSPECTION BLANK

New Orleans Public Schools

Date.....

NAME OF SCHOOL:

LOCATION:

- No. 1. Give date of last fire drill.....
- No. 2. Are all exits, including fire escapes if any, free from obstruction?.....
- No. 3. Do all doors open out so as to permit free egress?.....
- No. 4. State exact location of nearest Fire Alarm box?.....
Give number of box, and say where key is kept, if not of keyless type
.....
- No. 5. Do you know how to turn in an alarm?
(a) By fire alarm box.....
(b) By telephone.....
- No. 6. Is there any rubbish, such as old papers, broken furniture, etc., in the attic?
.....
(This may cause a fire and help to spread one.)
- No. 7. Is there any rubbish or scattered kindling in the basement?.....
.....(Most fires start in basements.)
- No. 8. Is there any inflammable rubbish, dried grass or weeds in the yard?
.....(A small spark may cause a fire.)
- No. 9. Are floors under stoves protected by metal or otherwise protected?.....
.....(Many fires originate for lack of this protection.)

FIGURE 3—NEW ORLEANS INSPECTION BLANK—(Continued)

- No. 10. Are walls, ceilings and partitions protected from overheating of stoves, furnaces and pipes?.....
(If the walls or ceilings are too hot for comfort to the back of your hand there is danger of a fire.)
- No. 11. Do you use metal receptacles for ashes?.....
(Many fires are due to wooden ash barrels and boxes.)
- No. 12. Do you keep the matches away from heat and out of the reach of children?
.....(Hundreds of children are burned to death yearly from carelessness with matches. Use only "strike on the box" matches.)
- No. 13. Do chimneys pass through attic?.....
(Never allow anything against them, best to plaster them.)
- No. 14. Do you use or keep gasoline in the school?.....
(Stop it! You are courting death.)
- No. 15. Are any gas connections made with rubber tubing?.....
(A dangerous practice and not allowed in most cities.)
- No. 16. Do you use a "Dustless" Oil Mop?.....
If so, where do you keep it when not in use?.....
(They cause fire by spontaneous combustion. Keep them in metal out of doors.)
- No. 17. Have you any fire extinguishers?.....
(As essential as lifeboats on a ship.)
- No. 18. Is there a collection of waste paper, old rags, or other inflammable material in the school or its yard?.....
(If so, report it to the principal.)
- No. 19. Is any trash, rubbish or debris burned in the yard?.....
- No. 20. Have you inspected all closets, cloak rooms (particularly under stairways), or other corners or dark places where rubbish might accumulate?
.....
- No. 21. Have you examined switches and fuses of electric light system to see that they are all in order?.....
Are the fuses plugged, bridged, or otherwise defective?.....
- NAME OF PRINCIPAL.....
- NAMES OF INSPECTORS.....
-
-

Fire prevention and clean-up weeks—Fire Prevention Week has gained national prominence and is almost universally observed in our schools. There is no reason why fire losses should not be cut down by training as to what constitute menaces and the methods of removing them.

During Clean-up Week in Fresno, the local theatres cooperated by offering free admission to every child who would return a question-

naire properly answered and signed by his parents. In many cases the return was delayed several days until the necessary work was done.

Figure 4 offers a fine way to get the child to participate in a matter of community concern and use his powerful leverage on his parents for a good cause, although the reward is necessarily extrinsic.

FIGURE 4—FRESNO FIRE PREVENTION INQUIRY BLANK CLEAN-UP WEEK

Clean-up Week is very closely connected with Fire Prevention Week. At this season of the year, both pupils and parents should unite in trying to remove fire risks. Below are given four tasks that the boys and girls can accomplish; and three things that every student can call to the attention of his or her parents. If you are willing to help, do the things that are asked, fill in the answers to the questions and return to your teacher by.....

By helping in this work you are doing a real service to your city.

FIRE PREVENTION AND INSPECTION BUREAU FRESNO CITY SCHOOL DEPARTMENT

1. Have you cleared the rubbish from your basement?.....
2. Have you cleared out the trash from your attic?.....
3. Have you cleared the grass and weeds six feet from all buildings?.....
4. Have you cleared the grass and weeds six feet from all fences?.....

These things should be called to your parents' attention:

1. Are ashes always placed in metal containers?.....
2. Are there any matches in reach of small children?.....
3. Is any gasoline kept in your home?.....

Signature of pupil.....

School

Parents who are willing to cooperate in this removal of fire risks are asked to sign here

Junior fire prevention brigade—The following very interesting announcement is quoted from a letter of Deputy Superintendent David P. Hardy of the San Francisco city schools, to the writer, dated September 21, 1929.

We are in the process of organizing a Junior Fire Prevention Brigade in our schools. This Brigade is to be formed under the direction of a Captain of the Fire Department, and will perform a service somewhat similar to that given by the Junior Traffic Reserve who cooperate with the Police Department. The

Junior Fire Prevention Brigade will consist of a Captain, a Lieutenant and eight Hose Men in each school. They will make periodic inspections to prevent the accumulation of inflammable material in any part of the school, will inspect the panic bolts, and will investigate exits. They will make a final check of the building after a firedrill to insure the safety of crippled children and others unable to leave promptly. They will also be the leaders in a campaign to make the homes of all children more safe and to encourage the carrying out of the lessons learned at school. Competitions will be conducted between the various companies in the prevention of fires in their homes as well as in their schools.

This is an innovation of considerable merit and no doubt will be followed with a great deal of interest. It is to be hoped that its progress will be reported in the journals by San Francisco and others who will undoubtedly take up the same idea.

Summary—Most administrators sense the importance of foresight in meeting the fire hazards of their schools. To the typical principal this means an intelligent pupil and teacher response to a well planned firedrill.

After gathering information on firedrills from 51 cities the writer has emphasized certain basic points: (1) that the firedrill should be held at least monthly, (2) that the drill be carefully thought out and relatively simple, (3) that pupils and teachers be made thoroughly familiar with both routine and emergency procedures, (4) that the principal take a station on the playground known to pupils, teachers, and firemen, (5) that the matter of speed can be over-emphasized in fire-resistant buildings, (6) that pupils and teachers should be primarily concerned in getting away safely, not in fighting fires, (7) that the principal have some scheme for checking the emptiness of the building, (8) that the teachers are responsible for keeping the children under control until the recall signal or until the parents assume charge, (9) that firedrill signals should be given by a gong which is used for no other purpose, and (10) that firedrill rating forms aid morale and are suggestive of improvements.

The study of the 51 cities brought out additional information on such practices as "clean up" weeks, building rating blanks, and junior fire prevention brigades. An alert principal will find ways to link these other activities with the instruction in firedrills and fire prevention.

HAVE you filled out the questionnaire on page 135? The Editorial Committee requests your attention to this important matter.

CHAPTER X

PUPIL PERSONNEL PRACTICES

THE PRINCIPAL'S PLACE IN PERSONNEL WORK

F. B. RIGGS

Headmaster, Indian Mountain School, Lakeville, Connecticut

THE NEED of some personnel work in all schools is shown by the maladaptation of many boys to society. With all our hue and cry in regard to individual differences, teachers must still, to a certain extent, aim at the middle of the class. This means that some boys do not get that attention to which they are entitled. Lack of adjustment is shown in the boys' contacts with their peers, due to superior or inferior physical or mental powers. The feeling of mere difference is very potent in forming problem cases. Frequently, boys fail in some aspect of school work on account of the effects which their parents, brothers, or sisters have upon them.

The need of personnel work is also shown by the pupil's individual unsolved problems. Many boys need special help because they "see" better than they "hear"; or the reverse, because they "remember" better than they "understand," due to an inability to meet the influx of irrelevant ideas. The sex life of a boy, although treated by some progressive schools as a social matter, is essentially an individual matter with boys as long as they are boys. "Mate-seeking" has not yet gained a footing as a regular subjectmatter in schools.

The boy's general physical well-being is also an individual problem, which needs the guidance of an adult friend. The care of teeth, the inculcation of regular habits in regard to evacuations, exercises for posture, nail biting, the cleaning of ears, and general attention to neatness may be mentioned in this list. Frequently, through no fault of the teachers, but on account of the immature understanding of the boy, there arises in the boy's mind a series of conflicts, resulting from various school assignments and conflicting advice. All these forces need coordination. Often the boy is incapable of making this coordination alone.

The principal should lead in personnel work—The opportunity to meet this need belongs pre-eminently to the principal. Others in the faculty should share the privilege of solving these problems, for their own benefit, the boy's benefit, and in order to assist the principal, but the principal is the logical leader of all personnel work. He is the one member of the faculty who is in close touch with all the necessary

details in regard to the boy, the other teachers, and the home. He is the only member of the faculty who can so arrange his time that he can plan to have a conference with a boy at any time. He has the authority which is essential for conferences. Authority is essential, because suggestions to a boy might easily fail if not coupled with a certain number of executive orders calculated to facilitate the boy's environment for the time being.

The reasons against the principal assuming this personnel work should be considered. Many principals, particularly those of the larger schools, will immediately claim that administrative duties make any real personnel work with pupils impossible. The answer lies in the decentralization of authority and, in the delegation of certain duties, formerly assumed by the principal, to others. Some feel that they have their time so much occupied by parents that additional burdens would be impossible. The children, however, are more important than the parents. Again, principals may object because much of their time is spent in the supervision of classes. While the supervision of classes is highly important, this supervision should go hand in hand with personal conferences. The personal conferences and the supervision are inter-dependent.

Those who say that the school psychiatrist should do all this personnel work do not realize that though some of the problems are psychiatric, many are not, and that this specialist's time is fully occupied with cases of extreme maladaptation which require an abnormal amount of time, professional care, and skill.

The technic used by the principals for doing personnel work with boys must vary with many factors. The writer submits herewith an outline of the practice at Indian Mountain School. Data are gathered in regard to the boys through inquiry blanks, interviews with individuals, conferences with an individual's pals, and special reports. Before a boy arrives at school his parents have sent the information indicated under the following sub-heads A, B, and C.

A. INFORMATION TO BE GIVEN WITH APPLICATION FOR ADMISSION

Name of applicant	Age
Birthday	
Name of parent or guardian	
Home address	
Telephone number	
Business address	
Telephone number	
Father's occupation	
Mother's occupation	
Number of brothers	Ages
Number of sisters	Ages

Name of person who may be reached in an emergency, provided that parents cannot be reached

Address

Telephone number

A detailed record of past year on separate sheet, from both teachers and parents, where possible, covering:

- (a) Name of textbooks, number pages covered, grades received, number of years from college.
- (b) Habits, favorable and unfavorable in regard to studying.
- (c) Results of intelligence and achievement tests.
- (d) Character.
- (e) Chief features of social adjustment.
- (f) For what older boys' school is applicant entered?

For what years?

Has applicant been vaccinated?

When?

Has applicant ever had measles?

Scarlet fever?

Diphtheria?

Malaria?

Tuberculosis?

Whooping cough?

Chicken pox?

Has applicant any special weakness?

Has applicant any aptitude or talent? If so, state nature.

B. CERTIFICATE OF PHYSICIAN

Name of applicant

Date

If parents are deceased, state cause of death:

Father

Mother

Are all functions and organs of the body in normal condition?

If abnormal, state nature

Has applicant any special disease or weakness?

Chest measurement

Height (no shoes)

Weight (usual clothes, no shoes)

Condition of eyes

Glasses?

Ears?

Teeth

Throat

Nose

Heart

Any rupture?

Any special treatment advised?

Signature of Physician

Address

C. SUPPLEMENTARY INFORMATION BLANK

Pupil's Name

Date

1. Are there any pronounced family characteristics or unusual home conditions that it might be valuable for the school to know?
2. At what age did your boy walk? Talk?
3. Educational History:

Grade

Years

Name of School

Progress
Satis. Unsatis.

Pre-School

Kindergarten

Elementary

Sunday School

4. How extensively has he traveled?
5. Does he speak any foreign language?

6. Has the boy had mental or achievement tests: (a) At home or with friends?
(b) In other schools?
Where is such information available?
(c) What were the results of these tests?
7. Does he like to read? What?
How much? How often is he read to?
8. What are his sleeping hours?
Sleeping habits?
Does he have a room alone? If not, with whom?
9. What sort of play or athletics does he most frequently engage in?
10. Give a brief account of his interests and achievements in music, art, nature studies.
11. Of what has he made collections?
12. What are his principal interests and hobbies?
13. In what form, if any, has adolescence made its appearance?
14. To what extent is your boy acquainted with the facts of reproduction?
15. What are his particular aversions and dislikes, if any?
16. Unusual experiences: accidents. Has there been anything in the child's past experiences that has influenced his present physical or mental condition, *e. g.*, conditions of birth; shock; severe illness; operation; accident?
17. At what age did he stop wetting his bed?
18. Has your boy been easy or difficult to control?
Has he ever shown signs of unusual temper?
At what age? What form?
19. The chief features of his social adjustment. How much companionship does your boy have with:
(a) Older people?
(b) Boys of his own age?
(c) Does he get along well with other children?
(d) Do your boy's individual interests interfere with his social progress?
If so in what way?
(e) Do your boy's social interests interfere with his individual interests,
e. g., reading, studying, etc.?
If so, in what way?
20. Does he have any:
(a) Compensations to offset the appearance of failure?
(b) Day dreams?
(c) Infantile habits?
(d) Over-dependence on any one person?
(e) Does he try to escape from social contacts which are disagreeable to him and give "reasons" that are not the real reasons?
(f) In what way have his brothers or sisters affected him?
21. Please underline the characteristics which apply to your boy:
Timid, aggressive, shy, optimistic, critical, sensitive, excitable, submissive, cooperative at home, destructive, enthusiastic, quiet, imaginative, prosaic, neat, careless, easily fatigued, easily discouraged, clever with his hands, appreciative of humor, truthful, appreciative of beauty in scenery, literature, animals, people.
22. Give a brief outline of his religious education.

Special reports—Full weekly reports are given to the principal each week on each boy by all the masters, if they have anything at all to say. Each master has an opportunity to study his colleague's reports. The data on these reports come from observations by the

various masters in their own classes, from visits to other classes, at meals, and at games. The remarks on the reports contain few judgments but do contain such items as: "Heard Tom say that he could not do arithmetic because his family are all poor mathematicians"; "Makes few mistakes in a spelling bee, but can't take dictation without making mistakes."

Other boys—As boys can often shed light on other boys, the writer frequently uses boys for this purpose. He has never experienced any trouble with this method because boys know that they are not asked to be stool-pigeons (they would make poor ones!). Boys have often brought out their friends' assets, undiscovered by adults. Incidentally the effect on the boy whose advice is asked may be very good. All possible help is sought from the parents and the triple aspect of the "boy-parent-school team," is always stressed.

Personal interviews—In the weekly conferences with the boys no attempt is made to rush matters. There is a preliminary period of getting acquainted with the boy. Timid boys are robbed of their apprehension of coming to the principal's office by being sent for frequently for minor reasons, such as: whether they brushed their teeth, or whether they had their glass of water before breakfast. After the boy knows that something is not "up" every time he is sent for, it is possible to get him to talk about his interests, whether these have any apparent ethical value or not. He is sure to reveal something about his successes, a valuable point to remember when he is in trouble.

When the principal and the boy are beginning to talk the same language it is probable that the boy will give some hint as to his problems and may even announce his own solutions. It is better for the boy to be independent in this respect even to the point of "freshness" than for him to follow suggestions blindly.

There is a time in all contacts with boys which seems to be the psychological moment. If a teacher cannot sense this occasion, he can never learn it. At that moment it is my aim to have before me the whole boy and in preparation for that moment the writer often jots down all the psychiatric, psychological, and physiological possibilities in the boy which might in any way affect the problem.

As an indication of the fun, satisfaction, and productivity of one small phase of school work, the writer introduces you to the shadows of two ten-year-old "composite" boys. Every boy in our school has a definite period set aside every week—more if necessary—for a conference with the principal, who is taught much by these conferences. Here are two composite memoranda cards:

CASE No. I

1. *Physical*—Bowels: Physiological explanation of necessity of regularity. Rests: Tri-weekly away from companions.

2. *Scholastic*—Distribution of study time in schedule. Study habits: Waste of time through habit of preparing alibis. Technic of learning vocabulary: not just staring at word, but also saying aloud, getting meaning through English equivalent, using in new sentence and "thinking" Latin. Arithmetic: Show how slovenly "scratch" work produces a waste of time and makes work harder through forming bad habits. Keep "scratch" work on paper to be handed in. Father writes boy doesn't understand because he is lazy. Wonder if reverse isn't true.

3. *Interests and hobbies*—Find time for heraldry, but remember relative values. Outside reading.

4. *Athletics*—Urge to learn to skate. Can't like it at first.

5. *Fear of other boys*—Cf. fear and cowardice. Fear of what? Anticipatory images? Futility of trying to compensate by striving for verbal superiority. Face facts: (1) fear, (2) ability to adapt conduct and remember choice of action is free—within limits. Explain through boy's own experiences.

6. *Responsibilities*—When in charge of locker room, how do you get other boys to work with you?

7. *Use of money*—Discussion of trades, purchases, and loans.

CASE No. II

1. *Scholastic*. Good visual memory may become a liability, *e.g.*, memorizing whole sections of history, almost verbatim. Value of precise idea (not word) in all reading.

2. *Sex instruction*.

3. (Outranks mates in intelligence and class achievement.) Enrich use of time to avoid acquiring lazy habits. Increase self-respect in other directions. Why not try to lead in athletics?

4. Motive behind stealing money. Buy something to gain social advantage over peers? Just covetousness? Suggest socially acceptable methods of obtaining desired result. Understanding of own motive not equivalent to excuse. Not necessary to convert every desire into action in order to decide whether right or wrong. Give boy practice in handling money.

5. Ever thought about reasons against building big battleships?

After the conference the writer sometimes adds what he considers a significant subjective analysis. Here are typical memoranda:

Started to be very objective with Jack, but found difficulty in remaining so as boy was extremely annoying in his attitude. Remembered after the conference that I had forgotten the boy's chief asset at the moment.

Took a walk with Joe late one afternoon. He did all the talking. I found, to my surprise, that he had a very tender feeling toward his grandmother and small sister. I was able to use this information in his behalf at an older boys' school which he attended later. He has been called hard and unfeeling. I remembered the walk.

The follow-up—The success of personnel work depends finally upon the proper follow-up. This follow-up is important in order to check one's technic and in order to clinch the advances made by further suggestions. It is probably the hardest part of the personnel work to remember, because we are all prone to let good enough alone.

Conclusion—Boys are frequently out of step with the world. Such problems may be evidence of a temporary condition, or the beginning of a serious maladjustment. The alert principal wants to know which is true. He will give every child in his school as much careful scrutiny as possible. While he may be fortunate enough to call in a psychiatrist on the most serious cases, the principal will not be satisfied by automatically surrendering to specialists. As principal, he is the one person who has an overview of the many factors, and at the same time the authority to see the reconstruction program through. Principals need to make themselves the best-fitted faculty members in elementary schools where much pupil personnel work is in demand.

BULLETIN board publicity is under the direct charge of the art teacher. Each room or department is scheduled in advance to provide for exhibit, on the hall bulletin board, samples of outstanding work done by pupils. The art teacher mounts and labels the material submitted so that it will be as attractive as possible.—H. H. Gragg, see Chapter XIV

STUDYING DIFFERENCES AMONG SCHOOL CHILDREN

LEONARD M. PATTON

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DURING a speech in Boston in 1928 Roger Babson said that he had been experimenting for eight years in the educational field along lines of individual instruction. He specializes in the sons of the nation's bankers, manufacturers, commercial leaders, corporation owners, and other business financiers. Now he is going a step further and, for a reasonable sum each year, is offering to advise, guide, and guard individuals from the age of adolescence until the day of their death. The fact that he knows he can't live to see the fulfillment of his dream shows remarkable faith in his plan. But what interests me is his method of procedure. He studies every individual case from every possible angle.

This statistician sees a great danger in the neglect to properly educate the sons of the men who now lead the world's work. Into the hands of these sons will very soon be placed the tremendous responsibilities that are now their fathers'. Will they meet the test or will they fail? Mr. Babson's purpose, for a reasonable remuneration, of course, is to remove this great danger as far as he is able, and he is doing it by individual instruction.

Special classes for atypical pupils—Here in Boston the special classes have been steadily increasing as their value has been demonstrated; but whether or not a special class is established in a school district depends mainly upon the principal of the district and his attitude towards special classes—regardless of the needs of the district. At present most of the recommendations for the special classes comes to the principal, and through him to the director of special classes, from the teachers. With all due respect to the teachers, their judgments alone are not sufficient. Many of them are newly appointed and comparatively inexperienced in school work; most of them have never made a study of individual differences among school children and see only the glaring examples; some confuse naughtiness with low mentality and recommend disciplinary cases for examination; some do not believe in mental testing; some think every child is capable of reaching grade standards if enough pressure is brought to bear upon him at home and in school; some had rather put up with a "slow" child than go to the bother of making a study of him. These are some of the reasons why the recommendations of the teachers should not be the only bases, or the main basis of selecting special class children.

It is true that after the children have been selected they are examined by experts and thus suffer no injustice through misplacement, but it is perhaps equally true that just as many more in the class or grade need examination and do suffer injustice because they are already misplaced, although neither they nor their teachers are then aware of the fact.

Special classes in Boston are established upon petition and recommendation by the director of the department to the superintendent. The progressive, interested, and foresighted principals are the first to see and avail themselves of these classes although their districts may be less in need of assistance than many others where the principals are indifferent. On account of the small number of special class teachers that have been available, it is possible that, up to the present time, the establishment of classes only in districts where principals and teachers were interested has really been an advantage in the development of this phase of school work in Boston.

Nevertheless, the present methods of selection are unsystematic, inadequate, and unscientific. Now that the need and value of this specialized work has been demonstrated, it would seem that there should be a change in the method of procedure in locating the children. The new plan should be systematic, including every district in the city; it should be adequate without being too exhaustive or burdensome; it should be as scientific as possible but not so technical as to scare or confuse the principals and teachers who are not scientifically inclined.

All children need careful study—The selecting of children for the special class groups, however, is only a small part of the work connected with the study of individual differences.

There is a constantly growing feeling among educators, particularly those specializing in child study, that not only the exceptional child, but every child, needs careful individual study and diagnosis, if we are to understand how to secure his best physical, mental, and moral development. An expert on child welfare wrote recently as follows:

Each child is a law unto himself; each one is different in his physical makeup, in intellectual power, in heredity. Each one has variations in home life and opportunities, is subject to emotional states, and has a varying sense of self-appreciation, and a special need of social sustenance. Each child should be recognized as a person whose individuality is to be respected.¹

The writings and experiments of all our foremost educators are having their effect in promoting a more intelligent procedure in measuring the intelligence of pupils, from the kindergarten to the college, and of placing them where they can do their best work.

¹ Wile, I. S. *Growth in Understanding Children*.

As a result, it is now possible to grade pupils more intelligently, to shape courses of study a little better to the needs of the children, to understand a little better the causes of juvenile delinquencies, to provide more adequate work for the super-normal and the sub-normal groups, and in general to know the problem better than before these measurements were available.

For the last five years considerable time has been devoted to citizenship training in Boston, and a thoroughly organized course of study introduced into the grades. After watching the progress of this course, I am convinced that a teacher, principal, or superintendent who contemplates introducing citizenship, should first make a careful survey of his class, his school, or his district, in order to know as intimately as possible his pupils and their environment. It is not necessary to make this study in order to introduce the course, but with the added knowledge gained by such a study, the course could be administered much more intelligently and successfully.

Usually, mass teaching, even in colleges with selected groups, is not altogether successful. In grammar schools it is bound to be less so. One of my best teachers recently said to me, "After I have taught a lesson with painstaking care, and have covered every point to the best of my ability, I consider myself lucky if I have reached one third of my pupils." Perhaps it is extreme to say there is such variation in ability in regular graded classes in the average school, but I am forced to believe this is pretty close to the truth, provided the standard amount of subjectmatter prescribed for the normal class in the regular course of study is presented. Of course, the persistence, honest effort, faithfulness, and other good traits of certain children will eventually bring them up to standard, but the variation in innate ability will still exist.

Pupil variations in primary grades—Elementary teachers know about these variations in abilities among the little ones, and divide their children into two or three groups in order to get satisfactory results. The experience of the writer as an elementary principal leads him to believe that the first grade is the most vital grade in the whole school system, and one of the most trying grades if the work is well done. Last year, in order to better familiarize himself with the first grade course and to find out, if possible, what some of the chief differences were among these little folk, the writer personally examined every first grade child in the district; most of them twice.

Naturally these individual examinations were not exhaustive, but they were long enough for me to determine pretty accurately the progress each child had made and to know where the problem cases

were. Practically every class divided itself into three parts—a few very bright, a large group of mediocre ability, a few below grade—but in almost every class there were the *extreme* cases. Let me cite one or two instances.

In one class of 42 pupils, we had two little girls who had attended school since September and yet after three months could not give a single phonetic sound correctly, could not recognize a single word, and had no number concept whatever. One of these, a frail anæmic child, nearly seven, had what might prove a compensating talent. She could play on the piano almost any ordinary piece of music that she had heard—using both hands. Yet the specialists who examined her only last spring, said that her mental age was so low that she could not profit even by kindergarten training. A trip to the country was recommended, where the poor, undernourished little thing could build up her physical being to the point where she might be able to do something mentally. That is one extreme.

In another first grade we had a little girl five years old, who knew all of her phonetic sounds, could blend with lightning rapidity, read in the second grade readers with expression and ease, and knew her number facts perfectly. She was at the head of her class and should be able to make the second and third grades this year.

These are not isolated cases; they can be duplicated in almost every district in the city. Now my query is, Why should we continue to put the burden of discovery and the responsibility of promotion or demotion of these pupils entirely upon the teacher? It takes time and patience to find out what might easily be determined for her when the child first enters school by means of diagnostic tests. Age is no more a criterion by which to judge a child's ability than his size.

In many towns and cities admission to grade one is not limited to an age requirement; some consideration is given to intelligence. The writer does not mean by this that the results of testing should supersede the teacher's judgments and estimates, but that testing should be used as one other means of selection and of checking up possible errors in judgment, based on subjective estimates. If testing were used in grade one and the kindergarten, without doubt much of the teacher's time would be saved and the child would be so much the sooner correctly placed.

This still incomplected study of the first grade leads me to the conclusion that there are greater variations in talent here than in any other grade, and that there is as much need of research work in the kindergarten and first grade as in any part of the school system.

Upper grade differences—These same variations continue in the upper grades although they are not so easily discerned there. As a

rule, we find a much larger number of inferior pupils leaving school than normal or superior children. In the upper grammar grades many of the failing children leave school as soon as the law allows. Studies that have been made lead us to think that withdrawal from school is caused more by failure in school than on account of economic pressure. The National Child Labor Committee in its recent report on this subject takes this view. In this connection, it is interesting to note that the majority of our behavior problems are found among the boys and girls who leave school before they have completed their studies, whether this be in the intermediate grades or in the high school.

Whatever our opinion may be as to the compulsory age limit of children in general, we will all agree that it is not a good educational policy to let children of inferior ability leave school until they have fulfilled certain minimum requirements, provided they have the capacity to learn, even if they have to remain beyond the limits now prescribed by law. But if such compulsion is exercised, certainly the educational matter and method should be adapted to these pupils, for it is not fair to the children, or to the state, to compel them to continue in the same environment, working in the same old way, under the same conditions which caused them to rebel or to become discouraged in the first place, and which inevitably will lead to failure in the future.

At the present time, practically every one is going to school; it is no longer a selective process as in former days. Our teachers of the upper grades and high schools complain that they cannot maintain the old standards, that the calibre of the pupils is noticeably inferior, and that it would be much better for the schools if a third of the student body was eliminated. This would be the easy way, but it is not the better way, nor, from an economic standpoint, the less expensive way in the long run.

Our pupil survey—In the year 1926-27, in order to provide a little better for the physical and mental needs of the pupils, to assist if possible in the character education work, and to discover some of the main differences among the pupils, a simple study was made of 1726 children in our district. Although this study was very limited in scope, it proved well worthwhile, for it made possible a re-organization, at the opening of the next school year, that practically eliminated from the regular grades all extreme cases of sub-normality and provided valuable data for use in the study of borderline or doubtful cases.

Since it was impossible to test all of the children in the district to determine their mental ages, they were roughly classified by their

chronological ages, using the regulation admission, discharge, promotion cards for the necessary data. In Boston, a child is considered as making normal progress if in the first grade and not yet seven years old; if in the second grade and not yet eight years old, and so on. By this standard, if a child began school at the age of $5\frac{1}{2}$ years and made normal progress he would be in grade two by $6\frac{1}{2}$, in grade three by $7\frac{1}{2}$, and in grade eight by $12\frac{1}{2}$. Statistics indicate the standard mental age for the different grades as shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1—STANDARD MENTAL AGE FOR EACH ELEMENTARY SCHOOL GRADE

Grade	Standard mental age
I	5-6 to 6-5 or approximately 6 years.
II	6-6 to 7-5 or approximately 7 years.
III	7-6 to 8-5 or approximately 8 years.
IV	8-6 to 9-5 or approximately 9 years.
V	9-6 to 10-5 or approximately 10 years.
VI	10-6 to 11-5 or approximately 11 years.
VII	11-6 to 12-5 or approximately 12 years.
VIII	12-6 to 13-5 or approximately 13 years.

Using Table 1 as a basis, there was worked out a grade analysis blank for each grade that would indicate the standard mental age for the grade, the overageness, and the underageness. These reports could show at a glance the relative standing of each class, based on the chronological age of the pupils. The blank used for grade eight is shown herein as Form I. Excepting for the age limits, the same form was used in surveying all grades.

FORM I

GRADE ANALYSIS BASED ON CHRONOLOGICAL AGE OF PUPILS

Grade 8.....	Room #.....	Teacher.....	Date.....
			B. G. Total
3 years under age	(9.6-10.5)	Approximately 10 years.....	
2 " " "	(10.6-11.5)	" 11 "	
1 year under age	(11.6-12.5)	Approximately 12 years.....	
STANDARD AGE	(12.6-13.5)	" 13 "	
1 year over age	(13.6-14.5)	" 14 "	
2 years over age	(14.6-15.5)	Approximately 15 years.....	
3 " " "	(15.6-16.5)	" 16 "	
4 " " "	(16.6-17.5)	" 17 "	
5 " " "	(17.6-18.5)	" 18 "	

DIRECTIONS

1. Estimate age as of September 1, 1929.
2. On the back of this sheet write the names and ages of the children who are two or more years under age, or two or more years over age.
3. Also, write names and ages of those pupils *within* the standard age limits set for this grade, who may be doing very superior work or very inferior work, or who may be extreme cases,—truants, law breakers, disciplinary problems, etc.

January 7, 1929.

LEONARD M. PATTON, *Master*

Form II was used in studying the children who were two years or more over age or two years or more under age, those pupils within the mental age limits set for any grade who might be doing very superior or very inferior work, and the problem cases, *e. g.*, truants, law-breakers, and disciplinary cases. This second record gave in detail the history of each case.

FORM II

SCHOOL HISTORY OF PUPIL

1. Name.....Grade.....Room.....
2. Age, Sept. 1, 1929.....years.....months.....3. Age entered school.....
4. Number of years in school.....5. Grades repeated.....
6. Weeks of attendance: Kg.....Gr. 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....
- 7.....8.....9.....Total.....
7. Summer Review School:

Year	Subjects	Marks	Disposition of Case
.....			
.....			
.....			

8. Number of years over age..... Number of years under age.....
9. Grade this pupil should be in normally.....

TEACHER'S ESTIMATE OF PUPIL

	A	B	C	D	E
1. Conduct.....					
2. Effort.....					
3. Regularity of attendance (A—Very superior).....					
4. Punctuality (B—Superior).....					
5. Quality of work (C—Average).....					
6. General intelligence (D—Inferior).....					
7. Reliability (E—Very inferior).....					
8. School spirit.....					
9. Social adaptability.....					
10. Mental balance.....					

RECORD OF TESTS—INTELLIGENCE AND ACHIEVEMENT

1. Intelligence tests.....
2.
3.
4.

OTHER DATA

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.....

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An age-grade distribution as shown in Table 2 of the 1726 pupils in the district showed that, exclusive of the kindergarten, the range of the ages in every grade was from 4 to 7 years. About 7 percent, (114 pupils) were one or two years under age, and 196 pupils, or about 12 percent, were two or more years over age. The pupils three

or more years overage were examined individually in order to determine their mental ability and then given careful consideration in grade assignments, based on social adjustment as well as mental calibre.

TABLE 2—SUMMARY OF UNDERAGENESS AND OVERAGENESS

	Kg.	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	Total
2 years under age.....	..	..	..	..	..	1	1	..	..	2
1 year under age.....	..	27	12	10	9	20	19	12	3	112
Standard age.....	129	178	121	89	96	92	73	62	63	903
1 year over age.....	9	42	64	95	67	55	56	56	69	513
2 years over age.....	..	7	11	19	19	25	25	25	15	146
3 years over age.....	..	1	..	4	..	11	8	5	10	39
4 years over age.....	..	..	..	..	3	3	2	1	1	10
5 years over age.....	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	1

Examination and treatment of overage pupils—Two specialists¹ from the central office were called in to make careful examinations and recommendations in regard to the pupils who were three or more years overage. A brief summary of the results of the examination of 45 of these overage pupils follows:

One six-year-old boy was rated as a mental defective.

One fourteen-year-old girl had such low mental power that exclusion from school was recommended.

One sixteen-and-a-half-year-old girl in Grade VI with a mental age of 9.3 and an I. Q. of 57 was referred to our vocational counselor to see if something could be done in trade school.

One sixteen-year-old girl with a mental age of 11 and an I. Q. of 70 was referred to the vocational counselor for guidance. This girl is a city ward and a behavior problem. She has since been taken from her foster home and placed in an institution.

One girl, 14 years, four months old, with M. A. of 9.1 and an I. Q. of 63, was adjudged incapable of going beyond Grade VI, except in vocational work, and was referred to the vocational counselor for guidance.

Four boys of about 11 years were recommended for the special class group.

One boy of 10 years was adjudged a psychopathic case and a conference with the parents was recommended. This boy has since been placed in a special class.

One boy of nearly 12, with a mental age of 7.10 and an I. Q. of 88 is an interesting case. He has a much oversized head and a short, undersized body and legs. His fingers are so short and stubby that he has difficulty in holding pen or pencil—probably a case of hydrocephalus. In spite of his physical handicap, he does good handwork and academic work. He probably will remain in grade for the present. Recently he was taken to the eye and ear infirmary to have his eyes examined, as the school nurse found his vision somewhat defective.

Of the 34 others, 26 were recommended for special class instruction. Two were considered too young mentally to profit by any formal instruction. Two were considered so nearly normal that no need of change from the regular grade work was found; and one boy of 16, with an M. A. of 12 and an I. Q. of 76, was recommended for industrial work as he probably would not profit by further academic instruction.

¹ The specialists were Arthur Kallom, Department of Investigation and Measurement, and Miss Katherine Coveney, Department of Special Classes.

An adjustment class was recommended for seven who were neither ordinary special class material nor institutional cases. This class was intended to include some of the older pupils, a few of whom are behavior problems; some mentally retarded and because of deformity not fitted for the special class center; some not up to grade yet apparently normal, but in need of special attention to overcome poor study habits and to arouse interest and ambition in school work.

The case of one girl, 14 years old, with M. A. of 7.2, and an almost negligible I. Q. was referred to the Judge Baker Foundation for examination. She was found to be an institutional case. It was also suggested that she be given a metabolism test to see if thyroid treatment would be of any help.

As a result of the survey and of the examinations, one additional special class was established in the district, and several pupils were sent to the special class center in Dorchester.

Further survey work—Convinced of the value of tests in supplementing the knowledge of the teacher, as a result of this study, we have begun a systematic examination of certain groups in our new school at Hyde Park. First, we have taken one class of boys in an industrial division who have given trouble in discipline from the opening day of school. An examiner has given this class the Stanford Achievement Test, Form A, the Terman Group Test of Mental Ability, Form A, and the National Intelligence Test, Form A, Scale 2, supplemented by the intelligence tests given in the spring of 1926 and 1928. Besides giving these tests the examiner has individually examined a number of case problems; certain boys who as a result of the tests or because of obvious lacks, stand out as misfits and potential trouble makers. The investigations have not progressed very far yet, but we have learned enough to warrant radical changes in this particular group.

Two of the boys in the class, aged 11 years, 10 months, and 11 years, 8 months, show about sixth grade ability, but under right conditions may be able to make the seventh grade. Another boy 11 years, 9 months, is rather poor in English, but superior in mathematics. Three boys, 12 years old, represent the three types usually found in a class; one is average ability; one of fourth or fifth grade ability, and one superior, showing ninth grade ability or better.

Of six 13-year-old boys, two rank low in mental ability, fully two years retarded; three show average seventh grade ability in all tests; and one shows considerable variation in various subjects.

Of six 14-year-old boys, three have a mental age of 11 years and apparently are better fitted intellectually for the fifth and sixth

grade than the seventh; one boy 14 years, 6 months old, has a mental age of 10 years, but can do sixth grade work. The remaining two boys seem better fitted for the seventh grade than the other four, but show varying abilities in the different subjects.

Two boys 15 years, 4 months old, have mental ages of 10 years, 7 months, and 11 years, 8 months, and as far as studies are concerned, cannot do satisfactory sixth grade work.

These boys differ as much physically as mentally and probably will show corresponding differences in traits of character. The home-room teacher says that half of the group cannot do good fifth grade work, let alone sixth grade or seventh grade work.

We have examined some of the intelligence test papers with this teacher and have compared her subjective estimates with our objective findings. It is rather heartening to her to find that our main objectives now are (1) conscientious effort and (2) right attitudes, instead of the acquisition of knowledge. When we get through with our study she will have a rather intimate knowledge of each of her pupils, which should measurably help her to solve her problem cases.

Conclusion—This measurement of pupils by group tests, to supplement the teacher's knowledge, should, I believe, become a regular classroom procedure, for it is common sense, if properly used, and can become as valuable to the teacher in dealing with pupils as diagnosis to the physician in dealing with his patients.

We are not fanatics with intelligence or achievement tests, and have no sympathy with those who would relegate a child to the "dumb bell" group because he fails to get a high I. Q. or I. R. in a group test, but we do believe these tests, when rightly used, can supply valuable information to the teacher and give her an insight into the child's mind, that she can get in no other way.

That is why the writer has spoken so frequently of testing in this study of individual differences. It seems the quickest and best way of locating the strong and the weak spots in a class. But tests or no tests, differences exist among our pupils, they are increasing rather than decreasing as more and more pupils remain in school, and the writer believes that case study, involving differential diagnosis, health, personal history, and economic conditions, is becoming as necessary in our complex school life as instruction itself.

SCHOOL MORALE AND INDIVIDUAL CASE STUDIES

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THERE IS developing among educators today a realization that the static type of education that has predominated in the past neither provides for the present needs of the child, nor for the future needs of society, yet both aspects must be taken into account in adequate curriculum construction. These trends are shown in the growing emphasis of educational writers on such topics as ability grouping, individual instruction, creative activity, and the socialized school. Psychiatrists believe that the day is coming when the social adjustment of the child will also be as common a topic among educators as it is today with social workers.

Our schools have been so engrossed in the past with the academic factors that they have failed to adequately stress the importance of attitudes that would help the pupil to find continued satisfaction as he passes along the educative road. Such attitudes have much to do with the development of a high type of school morale. This paper will present some of the undesirable attitudes encountered with individual pupils, and the ways in which we have provided for such students.

What is school morale?—After a study of many definitions of morale, Zeleny has evolved one that he believes defines it from the high school standpoint and it seems equally applicable to the elementary school. He says:

Morale is the individual and social state of mind resulting when the students and faculty of a school accept and work toward the realization of common aims, which appear to lead to more abundant life.¹

The definition of morale that has been given above stresses the acceptance and the work of the student body toward the realization of *common aims*. There is the danger that in our zeal to bring about the desired ends we may unwisely attempt to furnish some adult aims, instead of allowing pupil aims to develop, as the student body becomes aware of the morale needed in the life of the school. Even when selected by the students are they common aims for all the pupils of the school?

Types in the student body—Let us consider for a moment the personnel of the student body of any school. We know that it is made up of many individuals, no two being absolutely alike either men-

¹ Zeleny, L. D., "Morale in the High School," *Education Administration and Supervision*. November, 1923, p. 489.

tally, physically, or emotionally. How do these students group themselves in the carrying on of the aims of the school?

We shall find a small group of pupils with leadership qualities who stand ready to assume responsibility and to initiate new procedures. In many cases these students will also be those of marked mental ability, though there will be some of average mentality and even others lower but whose attitudes are so fine that they can contribute toward the development of a desirable school morale.

Sociologists tell us that studies of society reveal a large proportion of men who are willing that others should assume responsibility. So we shall find a large middle group that is willing to follow, but in itself lacks the desire for leadership. This group must have its school spirit kindled by the enthusiasm of the first one.

A third type is also to be found in every school; its number varying somewhat according to the way in which pupil needs are being met by the school. This group will be made up of pupils who for various reasons are emotionally and socially maladjusted. Many of these will lack the ability to carry on their work satisfactorily, while others with ability lack the attitudes necessary for successful school work.

Our first and second groups will find common aims in which they can unite. The influence of the third one will be more or less destructive. Hence, the improvement of school morale will be determined to some extent by what we as principals and teachers are able to do with this third type. According to the sociologist group conduct can rise no higher than the conduct of its individual members. On this theory our problem becomes an individual one, and questions arise as to the causes of undesirable attitudes and the remedies to be applied.

School causes of maladjustment—One of the most frequent causes has been the common task set for those of greatly varying abilities. The result with maladjusted children has been loss of confidence, and a feeling of discouragement, that finally led in some cases to an attempt to get away from reality. The school is to a great extent responsible for this attempted escape from an educational world because of the type of curriculum it has imposed. As long as schools remain static through a worship of books and an insistence on impossible goals, we shall continue to have day-dreamers and to create habits of failure. It is important that we bear in mind the fact that an excessive amount of such dreaming may result disastrously in later years for some of these students, if the causes are not discovered and proper remedies applied.

The inability of teachers to understand the difficulties of pupils in school subjects is a prevalent cause of maladjustment and failure. It

is even possible for teachers to create situations that produce educational disabilities. One of the most common and most disastrous types of these disabilities is that of reading. Experts say that reading is both the most important and the most troublesome subject in the elementary school curriculum. A study made by Gates revealed the following percents of failure in the different grades that were due to reading disabilities.¹

TABLE 1—PERCENTS OF TOTAL FAILURES DUE TO READING DISABILITIES

Grade	Percent of failures due to reading
First grade	99
Second grade	90
Third grade	70
Fourth grade	56
Fifth grade	40
Sixth grade	33
Seventh grade	25
Eighth grade	25

Teachers often recognize student's deficiencies in reading but seriously lack the time and necessary knowledge for the correction of individual difficulties. In some cases the causes of reading disability go unrecognized for years, the pupil being credited with mental deficiency, or is referred to a child guidance clinic because of problems of behavior. In a case of superior intelligence, serious results may ensue in the form of an inferiority feeling. A serious educational maladjustment may occur as the student may be driven, because of his disability, into a routine occupation totally unsuited to his degree of intelligence.

Dr. Blanchard, the psychologist in the Philadelphia Child Guidance Clinic, discusses² some of their studies as follows:

The reading disability plays a part in producing the behavior difficulties as well as the failures in school work. This opinion is substantiated by the results of treatment, since the correction of the reading disability and the substitution of success for failure in school is usually followed by a cessation of the behavior deviations.

Perhaps a better realization of the influence of this factor can be gained by a consideration of one of the four case-studies made on this subject by Dr. Blanchard, which is given here in a somewhat condensed form:

¹Gates, Arthur I. *The Improvement of Reading*, p. 3, 4, 5.

²Blanchard, Phyllis, "Reading Disabilities in Relation to Maladjustment." *Mental Hygiene* 12: 772-88.

CASE I, RONALD

Home conditions—Though Ronald was fifteen years of age and in seventh grade when the study was made, his difficulties had their origin in the early years of school life. He was referred for clinical study and treatment because of his day-dreaming, absentmindedness, poor memory, and inability to keep up with the class. He had a wholesome social history as his mother was a woman who had shown excellent judgment in the rearing of her two boys. The younger one was thirteen years old and was also in the seventh grade. The mother had an inward conviction that Ronald was sub-normal though careful never to compare him with his brother. The boy himself could not help drawing comparisons and often spoke of his dumbness. His early school history had been a series of failures, promotions, and demotions in the different schools that he attended. The father's profession necessitated many changes of location, which caused the boy to dislike school. The family finally located permanently in Philadelphia and Ronald stayed continuously in one school. For awhile he made regular progress but when he reached sixth grade, he had to repeat it and later was failing in seventh.

Intelligence and achievement tests—At the time of the examination at the Clinic, his age was 15-5, mental age 14-6, and I. Q. 94. His reasoning, auditory-memory span, and concrete visual imagery were above average. On the Stenquist mechanical-assembling test, he made a perfect score, far above the norm for fifteen year old boys. On the educational tests, Ronald's achievements were poor, particularly in spelling and English grammar, while in geography and history his subject ages were at least two years below his mental age. On the Thorndike McCall reading scale, his subject age was only 8-8. Other tests confirmed his inability in this line. Diagnostic tests showed that his slow reading rate was the result of a short span of visual perception (he could take in only three syllables at a glance) also slow vocal-motor reactions. On the Thorndike Vocabulary test, his score was only five when he was asked to read the words for himself, but when they were read to him, he doubled his score. His visual vocabulary was only adequate for fourth grade, while his auditory vocabulary was satisfactory for eighth grade. On the Trabue Language-Completion test, on which there was no time limit, his score was equal to the norms for thirteen years and for sixth grade. This showed that he could grasp the meaning of material and that his comprehension of what he read would probably be good if he could read more rapidly and if he had a larger visual-verbal vocabulary.

Physical examination—Ronald's physical examination was practically negative. Even a special eye examination revealed only a slight hyperopia, but in view of this reading difficulty, glasses were recommended.

These tests revealed chiefly his conviction of mental incapacity, his feelings of inferiority, and his abnormal degree of day-dreaming. It is easy to understand the difficulties for which Ronald was referred to the clinic. He appeared absent-minded in recitations because he could not read well enough to become familiar with the material discussed. He seemed to have a poor memory because of this same deficiency; he could not remember what he had not been able to read and comprehend. He could not read rapidly and guessed at words so his score was low in the group intelligence test given at school, whereas the Stanford-Binet given at the clinic showed that he had average intelligence and a superior memory span.

His day-dreaming, in which he pictured himself as a great inventor, was the only way in which he could escape from his feeling of inferiority, which the school failures, caused by his reading disability, had produced. It is safe to assume that this disability had its origin in his early experiences at school, with the many adjustments he was compelled to make during the first three or four years. The demotions he received must have given him a sense of failure that would almost inevitably condition his emotional responses.

In the treatment of the case, Ronald was told that he was not intellectually deficient in any way. His strong points were stressed and he was shown how his reading disability had affected his school performance. A tutor, skilled in the use of reading methods necessary for the correction of his reading disability, was secured. Use was made of the McCall Standard Lesson Tests, graphing the daily result so that the boy could observe his gains. Drill was given in word recognition according to the methods devised by Fernald and Keller. Every possible opportunity for favorable comment was seized upon to encourage him and stimulate his interest. According to last reports Ronald was making satisfactory progress in high school.

Dr. Blanchard found in her other cases of reading disability the same results in feelings of inferiority that manifested themselves in bad behavior. One pupil was able to react more desirably because of his ability to compensate through his superiority as a fine baseball pitcher. Other clinical workers and visiting teachers confirm these findings in regard to behavior difficulties resulting from reading as well as other types of school disabilities.

The social attitudes of the groups on a playground are also dynamic factors in creating states of mind that produce problem behavior. The bright boy who is a good student, but physically frail, is usually called a "sissy" by the eight to twelve year boy group. The red-headed boys, the ones with cross-eyes, and those with other noticeable physical defects, are cut off from a great deal the first day they enter school. Unless a wise teacher sees that these pupils are provided with social compensations, they are doomed to unhappiness. They may compensate by becoming pluggers and perfectionists if they have the mental ability, but too much work will make them unsocial. If their ability is not high enough to produce the desired result, a break occurs often followed by serious mental disturbances.

The attitudes taken by some teachers are also, unfortunately, often responsible for undesirable student behavior. Often our intellectual traditions cause us as teachers to discourage the emotional side of man's nature, and to value only rational controls.¹ The desire to see retribution come to those who have violated regulations is strong in the human race today. Much of the time now spent in punitive efforts in the school would doubtless be more productive of results if spent trying to learn the causes of anti-social behavior.

We know that the home is a common cause of the behavior difficulties that we see in the school and for the feelings of inferiority that interfere with school achievement and prevent a high type of morale. Take the case of Harry, a quiet, sensitive boy with a slight speech defect that showed itself only when he became unduly excited.

¹ Chapman and Counts. *Principles of Education*, p. 139.

One day at the table, when he was trying to tell something to the family, he had the following remark hurled at him by an over-harsh father, "Shut up if you can't talk." Fortunately, an alert, interested teacher and the presence of a child guidance clinic in the city, made possible some changes in home conditions. The father came to realize that his handling of the boy was largely responsible for his speech difficulty.

Why do many psychologists believe that it is the duty of educators to make a study of these maladjusted cases when the home is responsible for the creation of so many of them? There is justification for such a study because the school itself must bear some of the blame for their production as well as the home. Nervous disturbances found in later life can often be traced to the repressions of early school life. The record of school failures also gives us an adequate reason for attempting to better conditions. Reavis, in a study of high school failures among boys, gives six major causes.¹ The two causes most frequently found were "personality difficulties" and "ineffective habits of work." It seems quite possible that both causes can be traced to conditions for which home and school are responsible. These conditions should be recognized not alone because of their effect on the scholastic achievement of the pupils and the elimination of failure but because of their effect on their future success.

Constructive tendencies in schools—So far our school development of educational technic has been in the intellectual, physical, and manual fields. Adequate provision has been made in only a few schools for the development of the creative abilities of each individual. Many principals who have an earnest desire to provide such possibilities may be unable to carry out such ideas until there is a greater interest on the part of the teaching body and the public. Some educators are wisely stressing today the need for differentiation in curriculum requirements to more efficiently meet the needs of the different ability groups. Such a plan has been clearly presented in detail by Hobart M. Corning in his book, *After Testing, What?* The plan as worked out by this author along the lines of ability grouping, with its consideration of individual differences through differentiated curriculums, has a direct bearing on individual morale. The three years of close contact with ability grouping in our own city substantiates this opinion. The feeling of success that accompanies the efforts of slower pupils is productive of a happier spirit, which creates more desirable attitudes and a better school morale.

¹ Reavis, W. C. *Pupil Adjustment*, p. 107-16.

Such students when grouped by grades under the traditional plan often felt their lack of ability when trying to compete with those of exceptional ability, and so became dissatisfied with school life. On the other hand, the bright student working with those less capable acquired an exalted opinion of himself by contrast, and also bad habits of work because of a lack of challenge to his real ability. Such attitudes as these cannot contribute the more desirable elements toward the morale of a school.

The detection and correction of maladjustment—Failure to recognize unusual ability and to make proper provision for it is also productive of serious results as Dr. Lowrey¹ brings out in the following case:

The boy was ten years of age with a mental age of eighteen and an I. Q. of 180 and was actually failing in the fifth grade because there was no appeal to his interests or attention. He had an enormous feeling of inferiority because he felt he was different from his group, and this led to various types of compensatory behavior. Even his family decided he was "hopelessly dumb and incorrigible" and thought that perhaps he ought to be sent to a state institution where he would be disciplined.

With such a mentality, think what a loss to society would have resulted had the boy's difficulties not been discovered! We are today just beginning to have a better understanding of the way in which the morale of a school may be affected by such socially maladjusted children. Psychologists tell us that the personality of the child is revealed by the manner in which he thinks, feels, and acts. If the first two have been warped by his experiences, his acts will be undesirable. The production of a better social self is so dependent on the individual's social experiences from preschool days to the present; and whether there have been along the route any lasting conflicts resulting in serious disturbances and unfortunate attitudes productive of a complex. Such tendencies must be detected during a student's school career if an effort is to be made to prevent the occurrence later of critical mental disturbance.

The desirable thing is to help the problem child modify his own behavior, not because of the anticipation of unpleasant consequences, but from a desire to measure up to the standards that are made possible by a teacher who is constructive in her own methods. Such an objective attitude toward the student can only be maintained by the teacher who has her own personality so well integrated that she ceases to be shocked by any revelation. Teachers must assume a casual,

¹ Lowrey, Lawson G. "Competitions and the Conflict over Differences," *Mental Hygiene*, 12: 316-30.

matter-of-fact attitude toward all offences, as they know that many undesirable traits are merely symptoms of a badly adjusted emotional life.

An illustration of this is shown in the following incident that occurred the past year between a thirteen year old boy and his sixth grade teacher, a woman of unusual ability in the handling of behavior problems: Miss D had been noticing all the morning the odor of tobacco whenever she went near John, and this was not a new experience. Later she encountered him alone in the hall after dismissal so stopped and said, "John, you are smoking, aren't you?" Instantly John's defensive attitude showed itself in his bearing and in his reply, "Well, what are you going to do about it?" Miss D unemotionally replied, "Well, John, I am not so foolish as to think that I can stop you, but I just wonder why you do it. I know some people who smoke because it makes someone angry. Is that the reason that you do it?" Her objective attitude disarmed the boy and he proceeded to discuss the matter with her in a conversational way, telling her that he did not enjoy it, but smoked because some of the older boys he was running with did.

The kindergarten and first grade reveal many personality difficulties, for it is here that the child makes the first contacts with authority in the world outside of the home, and he is faced with a new series of competitions. The kindergarten teacher's attitudes and strategic position offers the most hopeful opportunities for shaping children toward normal behavior.¹ The possibilities for such constructive work were demonstrated in one of our kindergartens last winter, in the case of a little girl of five, whose parents were greatly troubled over her anti-social attitude, for when spoken to, she would answer no one except her father or mother.

Mary was a pathetic, lonely looking little girl when she entered the school. The kindergartner, knowing the situation, wisely ignored Mary's refusals to answer when spoken to. Patiently the teacher waited for months for the almost imperceptible growth that gradually showed itself by better attitudes rather than in conversation. Mary reached the point where she would answer the teacher when asked a question, would quietly take part in the games, and toward the close of the year would sing alone. Then an incident occurred that gave the teacher an opportunity to force the issue, trusting that the child's love for her school would dominate. Mary refused to answer a child in the course of a game that demanded a reply, the teacher, with the conviction that the time had come for a decided stand, told Mary that unless she answered the question it would be necessary for her to go home. To the teacher's great relief, Mary answered her playmate and from that time continued to grow in an evident desire to respond when spoken to, even by those outside of the kindergarten.

¹ Allen, Elizabeth. "A Mental Hygiene Program in Grade School." *Mental Hygiene*, April 1929, p. 289-97.

Just consider what this intelligent handling of her case will mean to Mary and her parents in future years. While the technic of teaching is important in the primary grades, the most necessary qualification for the teacher is an understanding of human nature for it is in these grades that the best preventive work can be done.

Dr. Esther Loring Richards of Johns Hopkins University, in a course of lectures given in Denver the fall of 1928, said that of the 1521 cases recorded at their psychiatric clinic during the previous year, 42 percent were children under 16 years of age, some of whom were beyond the possibility of the type of help that they might have been given had conditions been recognized earlier.

Personality work of outside agencies—The general policy in the public schools should be to prevent duplication of effort by not attempting to do in them anything that can be more successfully done by other informal agencies of the community. Let us see to what degree other agencies are meeting this need of giving more attention to the social and emotional needs of maladjusted children. The parents' lack of an understanding of their children's emotional nature, and often a corresponding failure on the part of the children to appreciate their parents' efforts, have made home results often unsatisfactory so we cannot expect the entire solution of the problem there.

The churches and other character building agencies of a community are doing excellent work with the children they come in contact with. Unfortunately this is a comparatively small percent of the total number. Church groups usually include not those most in need of constructive help, but children with understanding parents who realize the benefits to be derived from such socializing influences.

There has been a great development of psychiatric work in the country during the past five years but even with this growth it is evident that a very small percent of the schools of the country are having the aid of trained individuals from such a field. Some of the large cities now have splendidly equipped child guidance clinics, and even a few small cities like our own are so fortunate as to have a generous citizen who supports one because she has a vision of the needs of the community. Contact with such a clinic soon reveals the amazingly big problem with which they are confronted, especially when there is a lack of the proper agencies in a city to adequately carry on the necessary follow-up work.

The visiting teacher movement has also been a recent development in the field of school social work. In some parts of the country, this new type of service is frequently found, while in many others it has

not yet been introduced. Reavis has said that whether or not the visiting teacher movement becomes a part of our school systems this type of service must be given by someone who can understand the child both in his school and out-of-school relations in order that maladjustment may be overcome and delinquency averted.¹

There is a growing recognition today of the fact that the school as well as the home and the community must hold itself responsible for the welfare of the children. What then is to be the solution of our problem of school morale from the standpoint of the maladjusted child if the outside character building agencies are inadequately prepared to cope with it?

School care of problem cases—In the last analysis, the general consensus of opinion seems to be that the school is the strategic place to begin its solution as all of the children are to be found there. Many will doubtless say, "How can we do anything more in the school when we have but one-seventh of a child's time now?" The problem seems to involve not the doing of something more, but of making our present efforts more efficient through a better knowledge of our human material. For as Dr. Van Waters says:

The teacher should have ability to detect early signs of emotional maladjustment in children; should feel respect for complexities of personality, and above all should understand why force in dealing with emotional disorders is blind, stupid, useless, and often cruel and dangerous.

The school is not responsible for the emotional attitudes with which pupils enter, but it should frankly realize that success or failure will be determined not by the intelligence of students nor by richness of course of study, but in the degree of skill with which it develops the emotional life of its children.²

A suggested procedure—In order to achieve such a standard the principal, as the leader, must be the first one to inform himself on the newer methods of handling delinquents and must acquire a good working knowledge of mental hygiene through professional courses and individual reading if he is to succeed in raising the morale of the group containing the problem cases.

The development of a social consciousness in teachers and professional preparation through courses in behavioristic psychology will arouse an interest and develop in them the ability to recognize some of their pupils' difficulties. In our own city, many teachers have eagerly embraced the opportunity of attending university extension courses, because they realized their need of a better understanding of human nature before attempting to direct their maladjusted students.

¹ Reavis, W. C. *Pupil Adjustment*, p. 57.

² Van Waters, Miriam. *Youth in Conflict*, p. 97-99.

The teachers who have no such extension courses at their command will find many books that will furnish practical help in the newer attack on the problem of guidance from the emotional standpoint. Two of the most helpful ones are Adler's *Understanding Human Nature*, and Morgan's *Psychology of the Unadjusted School Child*.¹ In the first is given a theoretical presentation of the subject by one who is an authority, while the latter presents the practical application of the principles to the types of problem cases found in our schools.

The case-study method—The progressive physician, psychologist, and psychiatrist all make use of the case method in their study of individuals. Why should not the school follow the same procedure when attempting to get a better understanding of the emotional life of its problem students? A public elementary school has, of course, a big problem from the standpoint of numbers and often an inadequate number on its teaching staff. Even with these handicaps a beginning could be made with case studies of the personalities of the seriously maladjusted pupils. Many schools are already keeping for their pupils cumulative records that take into account chronological and attendance data, health history, intelligence rating, and educational progress as shown by standardized tests, and teachers' marks. With the background of the above data it would not seem an impossible task to add to it, in the case of the problem pupils of the school, additional data regarding attitudes and emotional responses.

In elementary platoon schools or those on a departmentalized plan, it is necessary to have the reactions of the various teachers handling these maladjusted students. The simplest solution of this problem for one school was found to be a brief report embodying each individual teacher's reaction toward the pupil in regard to his attitudes and emotional responses and whether he was able to make to a degree some personality adjustments—this to be followed up from time to time by further reports dealing with improvements noted or new unsatisfactory phases observed. The following is an example of such personality reports turned in to the principal by all teachers who had pupil A in their classes.

REPORTS ON PUPIL A

Geography—A is a bit of a braggadocio and seems to "have a chip on his shoulder." Some days his face looks hard and set beyond his years. He is hardly ever interested in the work, and wants to "get ahead" of the teacher.

¹See, "The Principal and Progressive Movements in Education," *Research Bulletin*, March, 1929, and "The Principal as a Supervisor," *Research Bulletin*, November, 1929. National Education Association.—*Editorial Committee*.

Art and reading—This boy appears to be poorly nourished, nervous, rather quick tempered, but not resentful. Usually capable, interested, and interesting in his class. Not a model boy—but I like him.

Music and penmanship—Pupil A is weak physically and morally, but not mentally: has very little self-control and cannot sit still. Even when he makes a great effort to control his hand for writing, he shakes and trembles. He is crafty and sly and on one of his bad days will go to great pains to avoid learning anything. On a good day he seems rather gentle and teachable and anxious to win approval.

Literature-auditorium—Pupil A seems to resent all efforts on the part of the teacher to help him, either with lessons or behavior. He is not straight-forward, is emotionally unstable, and has a violent temper when aroused. His influence on his playfellows is not of the best.

Home room—Pupil A can be very pleasant as well as studious and helpful at times. Then, without a moment's warning he is disagreeable and underhanded. He is often found cheating in his classwork.

Gymnasium and playground—This pupil is always inattentive and untrustworthy in his attitude. His rhythm work is very unsatisfactory because of poor coordination of muscles and brain, due to lack of effort rather than lack of ability. On the playground he is a poor sport, really playing only when his side is winning.

He tries to be in the lime-light by doing something to attract attention to himself. He is sly and underhanded, often picking up things that are not his.

Such case-reports as the above, give the principal a composite picture that is most helpful when used for the purpose of discovering remedies for the correction of undesirable attitudes. After a careful study by the principal of such reports on a case, a conference with the teachers is needed for a discussion of constructive corrective methods that should be applied, for it is very evident that Pupil A is not well adjusted socially. The boy is a difficult problem from the school standpoint because he lacks a proper home environment. However, as the reports show, there are a few desirable attitudes brought out by several of the teachers. If a good morale is to be developed in this boy, these few desirable attitudes must be recognized by all his teachers and an effort made by them to give approval whenever possible, to create possibilities for success, and to lessen opportunities for his getting his work from others.

It is not necessary to elaborate further on the value of such a case-study either from the standpoint of the development of an understanding of pupil attitudes by the teacher or the possible prevention of further maladjustment by the school. Such case-studies may reveal to a principal some of the weak spots in his school, for they may show that some pupils have not understood the school and others were not understood by it.

After a conference with teachers for the discussion of a case the next step for a principal is to make a survey of the child welfare situation in his city to determine what help he can secure. He will be especially fortunate if he has at hand a visiting teaching to aid

in developing cooperation in the home, or a child guidance clinic to which he can turn for expert advice. If such aids are not available, he will have to make his own diagnosis of the case and formulate some recommendations for remedial procedures. He will also find it necessary to obtain the aid of some welfare agencies, as the scouts, girl reserves, or a medical clinic, to assist him in carrying out his program.

Conclusion—Like teachers, principals are busy people, and also make the same mistake of paying too much attention to petty details while overlooking the more worthwhile phases of their work. It is so easy to lose sight of the individual tree in the forest of trees. There can be nothing more important than saving a child from a life of failure by timely, well-directed guidance in personality adjustment. Such efforts will result in better individual adjustment to the group which means better group morale, and the latter, as already shown, is largely dependent in turn on the emotional set of each individual.

There must be on the part of the school a respect for the personality of each individual child, and his social adjustment and moral development must become an essential part of the work of the school. More attention will have to be paid in the future to a study of problem cases from a mental hygiene standpoint, if our school morale is to be an improvement over that of the past.

BRIGHT children usually constitute a small, but important minority in public schools. Too frequently such children are accelerated through the grades and arrive in high school before they are socially or physically ready for such an environment. Convinced that our bright children should have opportunities for maximum growth and development we established an experimental class.—Irwin O. Addicott, see Chapter VII

THE VISITING TEACHER AND THE PROBLEM CHILD

MARGARET KNOX

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EACH MORNING as we open the newspaper we stand aghast at the crimes that are recounted. We are shocked even by those papers whose headlines tell us that they contain only "the news that is fit to print." Our jails and reformatories are filled with men and women, a majority of whom are under 25 years of age. What does this mean to us who are teachers? It means that these criminals were boys and girls in school within the teaching time of most of the readers of this yearbook. Is the school interested in this juvenile delinquency? Have we left undone anything that we might profitably have done to have swayed these youths toward a different career?

What makes problem children?—Commissions and conferences have been called to look into the causes of crime. Research is interesting itself in the solution.¹ What are the schools doing? The writer can speak for one of the large schools of New York City. It is our experience that the maladjusted child when neglected is the potential criminal; but when discovered early that child may be adjusted to a happier life than that which would lead him into crime.

The young delinquent today was in many cases the "problem child" in the schools yesterday. He showed his rebellion to life in the classroom; he rebelled against the teacher's authority; he did not learn what was being taught because he was not interested or his mind was elsewhere; he came in as late as possible; by and by when he thought he could get away with it, he did not come at all. Or, he showed contempt for parental authority, and not once or twice the mother came to school to implore the teacher's help in controlling him. In later adolescence he defies social laws, and steals, robs, commits sex offenses, hold-ups, or murder.

For every act of behavior there is a cause. It is the *cause* before resorting to a *cure* that should interest the school. It is one thing to say, "Send this child to a reform school." It is another to say, "I will find out why this child misbehaves, and then I will adjust him to a happier life." Can the school carry out this program?

Understanding the problem child—We must admit that before the teacher may adjust the child she needs to understand him thoroughly. However, experience shows that few class teachers have the time

¹ See J. J. Oppenheimer's *The Visiting Teacher Movement*, published by the Joint Committee on Methods of Preventing Delinquency, New York, 206 p.

after classes to devote to the individual study of the child, and many are unprepared to undertake detailed investigations. But these studies may be made by a special teacher, called a visiting teacher. The visiting teacher has special preparation for this service. He has added to his teacher qualifications and experiences a greater knowledge of psychology, mental hygiene, behavior problems and psychiatric social work. He should also have a personality adapted to this service—the ability to make a tactful approach to a difficult situation, to listen impartially, to appreciate individual differences and emotional stimuli. He also understands social work and is therefore acquainted with every neighborhood agency which may help him to adjust the child. He has no class and is therefore free to visit the homes of the children, to talk with parents, to confer with teachers, to carry cases to the psychiatric clinic if need be. The visiting teacher may attend to these matters during school hours, when social agencies are open, or in the evenings when working parents are home.

Since no two children are alike, each maladjusted child is made a separate study. The complete study made by the visiting teacher includes talking over the child's reactions with his teacher; personal contact with the child thereby obtaining his confidence and studying his personality and mental set, a visit and talk with the parents in the home, thus gaining knowledge of the child's habits, home reactions, health, recreation, playmates, emotional environment. If the child is known to playgrounds or clubs or social agencies, these also may be visited. Before adjustments are attempted the visiting teacher confers again with principal and teachers in the light of all that he has learned about the child.

What adjustments should be made?—The adjustments which will result from this study depend upon the nature of the case.¹ To the home the visiting teacher brings suggestions on health habits, recreation, child management, child training, understanding of the child's abilities and limitations, and the child's point of view. The parent is sometimes surprised when first he understands his own child. In school a change of course of study may be needed, special help in the child's weak points, a special class, or a modified curriculum. Out of school the visiting teacher may find new and better fields of activity for the child, recreational clubs, or other outlet for the child's energies, chosen so that the child will succeed in what he is undertaking and gain confidence and satisfaction.

¹See *The Visiting Teacher at Work*, published in 1929, by the Commonwealth Fund, New York, 235 p.

In other cases it is found desirable to have the child examined by a psychiatrist. The visiting teacher acts as the liaison officer between the school and the psychiatrist, making the appointments, preparing the case histories, following-up the recommendations of the psychiatrist.

These examinations are recommended not only for behavior problem cases, but also for children who are failing in lessons. It is the practice in our schools not to neglect deficient pupils until they are "left back" or become disciplinary cases through discouragement. They are taken in hand by the visiting teacher when the class teacher first discovers that they seem unable to compete with other class members.

Case studies—Here are several stories of problem children that will serve to show the work of prevention of juvenile delinquency that a visiting teacher can do:

STORY 1

We had a boy named Peter in 5A. He was 11 years old and bright, but mischievous and troublesome. He was the kind to do mean tricks behind the teacher's back. He was resentful if any fault was found with his work or conduct. He disregarded rules purposely. We asked the visiting teacher to investigate the cause of this attitude.

He reported the family atmosphere contributory to the boy's conduct. The mother was janitor and between the housework and her family, and the lack of help from a drunken stepfather, she was irritable and cross and always ready to scold her two noisy sons. The boys took every advantage of her. The children would run into the house, grab their food, take a few pennies, and be gone until late. They quarreled with the mother and the sister and were their own bosses. When one of the boys appeared the mother would call out, "Here comes that little devil now." The visiting teacher changed all this attitude on the part of the mother. He showed her the effect of her irritability on the boys and made many suggestions for a happier home life. The mother laughed at first, but soon saw that the plans were at least worth trying.

For each of the boys the visiting teacher found something that he could do well, and nurtured in the boy the desire to do that certain thing. The older boy who was not so bad in school, but the leader in mischief at home, saw his responsibility toward the younger. Soon the boys were both getting "A" in conduct and good marks in work. They found praise at home and success in school a more fair reward for their efforts than their old pranks.

STORY 2

Andrew was eleven and in 6A. He gave a great deal of trouble at school. He brought in blotted, unfinished papers, employed his time in class in stirring up trouble among the other boys, but he always managed to get his promotion. The visiting teacher found him more troublesome to his mother than to the teacher. The mother was a widow with four children to support. The boy's father had died insane but the mother was capable and intelligent. While she was at work, the boys did as they pleased. They associated with a gang whose interests leaned toward delinquency. The visiting teacher found Andrew as

intelligent as his mother and had an individual psychological test made. He proved to be of superior intelligence. It was planned with the teachers to keep Andrew working up to his natural ability. He was, upon good behavior for a month under the supervision of the visiting teacher, put ahead into 6B. He made good there and from there passed into rapid advancement classes. For out-of-school activities the visiting teacher found a place where he could learn to play the violin, as he showed a liking for music. At home several changes were made in the family plans so that there was less rivalry among the children for the mother's affections, and more good comradeship. In this home the mother and children were all good material to work with, although the heredity and family conflicts were detrimental at first.

STORY 3

Frank came to our school with a very poor record and the stepmother who presented him at the desk for admission, said he had always been a "bad" boy. He stole her money, stayed out at night, lied to her about where he had been, got money from his uncle on pretense that his father wished to borrow it, and spent the money in ways unknown to the mother. His school record showed that he had repeated several grades, partly because he had been a truant, and partly because of not attending to his school obligations.

We asked our visiting teacher to investigate at once. He found the stepmother a good provider as far as food and shelter, but there were no real accommodations in the home for a growing boy. He had no regular bed, no room to himself, but shared space with her, with the boarder, or his sister as convenience provided. He had no allowance for spending money. He had no toys, no place to keep his books or the trinkets which boys like to collect. His father came home late and left early, and his contact with the boy was usually prefaced by tales of the mother or sister of his sins. The visiting teacher had to change all this. The family was able to give the boy the things a boy needs in a modest way. The home atmosphere had to change to one of sympathy with a boy. Finally he had to be interested in school. He was fond of drawing and penciled Uncle Sam on all of his papers. The visiting teacher suggested that some of his drawings be posted in an exhibit. This gave him pride in his school accomplishments. The sister was asked to help the boy make up some of the work lost through neglect. The visiting teacher's contact with the boy was very close and he responded to perhaps the first person who had interested himself in his individual needs. He became one of our good students and in a few years was graduated with honors.

STORY 4

Ethel, a girl of 13, had always done well in school, but in the graduating class her marks and conduct fell off. It was doubtful whether she could be graduated. She developed contrariness and stubbornness. The visiting teacher saw that while Ethel was conscientiously studying at home, there was an emotional handicap. Her elder brother in high school and Ethel did not agree, and while both were at home there was constant friction, teasing, and quarreling. The parents seemed to side with Ethel, and consequently whenever things went wrong with her she blamed someone else. The brother was not particularly affected by the quarrels, but he seemed to take delight in stirring things up, whereas Ethel's poor stammering recitations showed their associations with the unpleasantness at home.

As the parents insisted that the trouble was all because "Ethel was nervous" and as there was insanity in the family, the visiting teacher suggested a psychiatrist examination. The parents agreed to this and the visiting teacher arranged it. Ethel was normal mentally, and the psychiatrist agreed with the visiting teacher that the boy held the key to the situation. Accordingly he was persuaded by the

visiting teacher to go up to see the examiner. The result was very satisfactory. The brother and Ethel both saw things differently very soon, and were helping each other toward graduation.

Summary—The causes of school failure may be of a physical nature, such as a noisy home environment, lack of oversight, work outside of school hours, poor health or nervous condition; or they may lie in emotional conditions, inferiority feelings, sensitiveness to failure, disturbing relations between parents, or among children in the family. Often the class teacher has no time to discover and adjust these matters, but the visiting teacher has the time and knows the way to go about it.

The services of the visiting teacher to the pupils are not the only benefit derived by the school system. He is a part of the school staff, and as such holds frequent conferences with the teachers, and therefore the classroom problems are lessened because of the early attention which they receive. He is at hand to investigate when the child shows symptoms of being out of adjustment. The child thus cared for early in his problem life does not become an educational misfit; he does not misbehave for he has better satisfaction in normal living; he loves school and does not seek to avoid it or become a truant, or drift out through working papers fitted for no job but crime; and he does not develop into a disciplinary problem, but instead develops into a good law-abiding well-educated citizen.

THE departmentalized school offers many well-known advantages. The writer has taken these for granted. He has discussed the administrative problems involved, such as: The time allotment, the length of the class period, program making, truancy, and pupil control.—Herman Ritow, see Chapter VII

COOPERATION IN PUPIL ADJUSTMENT PROBLEMS

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ONE OF THE problems which render useless methods or content of study is the maladjusted child. In the elementary school the fifth and sixth grades are often characterized by teachers as the difficult grades from a child behavior standpoint. Here we find habit and attitudes fairly well established and, if the mental set is not in the right direction, then indeed the behavior problem is paramount.

In an effort to study the causes of such attitudes, it was decided to begin with the first grade and see if the problems were present there in a nascent state. The first grade teachers were approached and asked if they had any children in their groups who gave promise of becoming school problems at some later time or were school problems at the present time. Of the one hundred and forty children, 21 or 14.2 percent were thought to be maladjusted cases.

Causes of maladjustment—The teachers listed the reasons why they thought these children worthy of special consideration and these causes were as follows; unresponsive, withdrawn, unsociable, stealing, lying, sex difficulties, dependence on others, extreme shyness, quarrelsome, poor scholarship, nervous, unstable, continually seeking recognition, immature, language difficulty, irregular attendance, temperamental, easily led, no initiative, and lazy.

That such a group of characteristics could be found in first grade children was rather a surprise to the school faculty. Many of these traits had been taken as a matter of course as something that the children would outgrow in the course of time.

The agencies making the study—It was then decided that each child would have a thorough study made of his difficulties to find the remedial measures necessary for him. The following agencies were used:

1. An excellent visiting teacher whose patience and understanding were invaluable through the study.
2. The classroom teacher to whom each step was explained and through whose hearty cooperation the work was made possible.
3. The city psychological department which took care of the mental testing.
4. The parents who were intensely sympathetic and cooperative with the work done.

5. The school physician, dentist, nurse, and nutrition department of the schools.

6. The hospital clinic.

7. The psychiatry department of Yale University.

8. The school principal.

Procedures—(1) Social study. A case study was made of each child by the visiting teacher. This involved visits with the parent and consultation with the teacher. In this way the social history of the child was obtained.

(2) Physical examination. The school physician gave each child a thorough examination. One child who was considered "nervous" in school was found to be 10 percent underweight and had double curvature of the spine. Other physical defects found were bad tonsils and adenoids which went with irregular attendance; heart trouble which the "lazy" child had; poor hearing with the so-called "inattentive" child. Many children had decayed teeth. In each case of poor physical conditions there were correspondingly large numbers of absences.

(3) Psychological test. The Detroit Kindergarten and the Pintner-Cunningham tests were given each child. Because of the disparity between the two the average of both scores was found. In all doubtful cases the Binet-Simon's test was given. The I. Q.'s ranged from 50 to 122. The reason all children were not given the Binet-Simon's test was the overpressure of work in the psychological department.

(4) Psychiatric examination. Lastly each child received a psychiatric examination at the Yale clinic. Here a diagnosis was made and treatment suggested. These examinations brought strange things to light. One "withdrawn" child had lived for four years with her mother who kept boarders. These boarders slept days and worked nights. The child was hushed continually and not allowed to play with other children lest the noise awake the sleepers. This child was made monitor and messenger, encouraged to play with children, social contacts were made in and out of school. The result was she became much friendlier and happier, and is gradually becoming an active member of the school.

It was found that the boy who "wanted attention" all the time and had become a pest had been the only child for four and a half years. Then a new baby came and John was suddenly and entirely ignored. His effort to again become the center of attention had caused his unusual actions.

The little boy who was a sex problem was found to have a mother who had a peculiar mental set along this line and was continually emphasizing it negatively in the home.

Results of study—One of the best results of this study was the interest of the teachers and their openminded reaction to suggestions. The day came when one teacher said, "Miss Blank, you have had Robert half the year, let me take him the other half and see what I can do." An exchange was made that worked happily for both teachers and children. This exchange goes on quite frequently now and always with good reactions. It also encouraged the teachers to look behind unusual conduct for real causes.

The parents feel that the school is working for the real interest of each child and that guidance from experts is put at their disposal.

While the kindergarten would have been the ideal starting place for such a study, the school feels the great necessity for meeting these problems at the beginning of school career when they may be solved rather than later in the school life when much more difficult situations arise.

A thorough knowledge of children and their histories through the grades enables the principal to guide the teacher in directing his pupils toward the finest growth. The great result was a better adjustment of children in school and at home, in health and character.

WE MUST reach out and make close contacts with the homes and help the parents to understand us. They, in turn, help the children to come to us with better attitudes. Once the policies of the school are established in the community the divergent points of view are reconciled.—Ellen S. Nye, see Chapter XIV

GUIDANCE IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

H. G. MASTERS

Principal, Allen School, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania

GUIDANCE is a more frequently exercised function of the elementary school than is commonly recognized. The rush of a multiplicity of important responsibilities tends to submerge the countless ways in which the school guides the children. Guidance is so much a part of every activity of the school that it permeates every detail in the organization. It begins when the child enters the kindergarten and ends, so far as the formal organization is concerned, when the same child graduates from school. In many cases, however, the school, through the influence of a fine teacher, projects its guidance far beyond the limits set by formal education.

The formal school guidance programs first appeared in connection with trade education. The selection of a trade called for some understanding of the desirable and undesirable elements peculiar to the particular trade under consideration. The boys were not possessed of sufficient knowledge to enable them to make a wise decision unaided. The parents, in the main, were not able to advise them. Thus it came about that the schools were forced to assign teachers to the task of helping boys and girls to choose the trade they wished to learn.

Because of these early conditions, the work of the guidance department is, too often, thought to concern itself only with the *vocational* aspects of the problem. As a matter of fact the guidance movement is much broader and covers all phases of life. As educators, we think of guidance as meaning a directing contact with vocational, educational, and moral aspects of the child's life.

Our guidance program—In the guidance program as it is set up in the Allen School we definitely provide that the pupil be directed either into the high school with the hope that there may be an extension of formal training beyond that again, or into a vocation, which holds out to the boy or girl the hope that they may advance to better positions and better pay. Integrated with these two aspects of the problem the teacher finds abundant opportunity to be helpful along social and moral lines. A brief outline of our program and its expected outcomes is as follows:

GUIDANCE PROGRAM

I. Activities and procedures

A. Interviews held during the seventh and eighth grade years

1. Purpose

- a. To discover whether the pupil's interests are academic or vocational.

- b. To discover whether the home environment is such as to lead the pupil into academic or vocational lines.
- 2. Number of interviews
 - a. First interview is a rather extensive survey covering age, height, weight, health, home conditions, school standing (strong and weak subjects), and pupil's tentative choice of life work or present interests.
 - b. Second interview acts as a check on the first and need not be so extensive. The purpose is to check up on any changes that have developed.
 - c. Third interview points the pupil definitely toward high school or toward a vocation.
 - d. Fourth interview helps the pupil to choose his course in high school and to select his first semester high school subjects.

If his interests are vocational, he is to be helped in choosing a vocation and directed into the trade school. Should it be necessary that he seek employment, he is to be given assistance, so that he may be guided away from the "blind alley" job.

- B. To provide material in the school library that will aid in choosing a high school course or a vocation
- C. To interview parents to the end that the home and school may work together in guiding the pupil in his choice of school or work
- D. To hold assemblies for pupils and evening meetings for parents so that speakers representing various life activities may be brought into contact with both pupils and parents

II. Expected results

- A. That pupils will choose their courses in high school more intelligently
- B. That pupils will do better work in high school and as a consequence will remain in school longer
- C. That pupils will choose their vocations more carefully and will keep out of "blind alley" jobs
- D. That pupils will develop a better attitude toward the school
- E. That pupils will remain in the elementary school to graduate before going to work
- F. That pupils will come to appreciate that the school is a vital factor in their present lives.

The guidance teacher interviews pupils—The guidance program was placed in charge of a teacher who is especially qualified by temperament and experience to succeed. All the school records are open and available to this teacher. In addition to these regular forms of records she receives from the teachers an academic and character rating on each pupil as shown in Form 1. These ratings are particularly valuable because they exhibit the trends of the child's likes and dislikes. These records and ratings make it possible for the guidance teacher to visualize the problem before the interview takes place. (See summary in Form 2).

Interviews come at regular intervals during the seventh and eighth years. Each interview has a definite objective so that the total of four interviews brings together accumulative record that is invaluable in aiding the teacher to offer advice to the pupil.

Library materials on vocations—That the pupil may be provided with sufficient knowledge upon which to base a decision, we have placed in the school library books, pamphlets, and mimeographed sheets which set forth the arguments for and against the various professions and vocations. These are available to the pupil not only for reference in the library proper, but are sent home in order that the pupil may have a better opportunity to assimilate the information. Thus the parents, also, have an opportunity to become familiar with the desirable and undesirable features of the various professions and vocations and thereby be able to offer worthwhile suggestions to the child seeking his future work in life.

Lectures on vocations—To insure that neither parents nor children shall lack every opportunity to familiarize themselves with the educational and vocational information necessary we also hold assemblies and evening meetings to which parents and pupils are invited. These meetings are addressed by members of the guidance department from the administrative offices and the high schools into which our graduates go. We also bring before pupils and parents recognized

FORM 1—GUIDANCE DEPARTMENT RECORD

Allen School

Name.....	Address.....		
Date of Birth—Month.....	Day.....	Year.....	
S equals Superior	M equals Medium	Inf. equals Inferior	
Character Traits	7B 7A 8B 8A	School Standing	7B 7A 8B 8A
Physical:	English:		
Height.....	Literature.....		
Weight.....	Writing.....		
Health.....	Spelling.....		
Personal:	Composition.....		
Industry.....	Grammar.....		
Initiative.....	Social:		
Leadership.....	Arithmetic.....		
Dependableness.....	Geography.....		
Punctuality.....	History and Civics.....		
	Special:		
Courtesy.....	Art.....		
Appearance.....	Music.....		
Academic Minded.....	Physical Education.....		
Motor Minded.....	Manual Arts.....		
General Scholarship.....			
Has been a member of:	Has held offices in:	Office	
Home Room.....	Home Room.....		
Organization.....	Organization.....		
Student Council.....	Student Council.....		
Clubs:.....	Clubs:.....		
.....			
.....			
.....			
.....			

FORM 2—SUMMARY FORM FOR ACADEMIC AND CHARACTER RATINGS OF PUPILS

Group 19 Grade 7A		Industry					Initiative					Lined					General Scholarship				
Names		Miss Koch	Mrs. Acton	Miss Unks	Mrs. Penson	Miss Staab	AVERAGE	Miss Koch	Mrs. Acton	Miss Unks	Mrs. Penson	Miss Staab	AVERAGE	Miss Koch	Mrs. Acton	Miss Unks	Mrs. Penson	Miss Staab	AVERAGE		
Beattie, Eleanor		M	S	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	W	W
Brown, Robert		M	M	M	S	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	W	W
Conn, Lowry		S	M	S	S	M	S	M	S	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	W	W
Corpus, Clyde		Inf	M	S	M	M	M	M	S	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	W	W
De Haas, Robert		Inf	M	S	S	S	S	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	W	W
Eiken, Irene		S	S	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	W	W
Gianett, Dorothy		M	S	M	S	S	S	M	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	W	W
Haney, Betty		S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	W	W

Items Rated

Industry Initiative	Courtesy
Leadership	Appearance
Dependableness	Academic-minded
Punctuality	Motor-minded
	General Scholarship

Rating Symbols { S= Superior
M= Medium
Inf= Inferior

leaders in the various professions and vocations. These men and women frankly discuss the desirable and undesirable phases of the various callings. They also give some attention to the type of person who is likely to succeed in their particular line.

Interviews with parents—Where a difficulty develops we invite the parent to come to the school for an interview. In this way we succeed quite often in inducing a parent to allow a child to go to high school or to a trade school who otherwise would have, of necessity, gone to work before he was fitted for it or had a desire to leave school.

Outcomes of the program—As a result of the guidance program we find that very few boys and girls are taking "blind alley" jobs. They are coming back to us in increasing numbers to report promotions and pay increases. It is also equally true that in the high schools we are finding that the Allen boys and girls rarely change their freshman subjects which they had selected before leaving our eighth grade. This means that they had studied the problem and knew what they wanted before entering high school.

It is equally interesting to examine the grades received by our graduates after entering high school. As a group the boys and girls who have come under the influence of the guidance department are doing better work in their freshman year than did the boys and girls who graduated several years ago before the department was established.

Desirable results of the program are being demonstrated within our own school. We are finding that the dissatisfied, troublesome, over-age pupil is developing a better attitude toward his work and toward the school in general. Both boys and girls remain longer in school. Instead of going to work as soon as the law permits, they are now waiting to graduate before seeking employment. They are coming to realize that the school has a contribution to make in helping them solve their own present problems.

SEE page 135 for the questionnaire which should be mailed to the Editorial Committee.

CUMULATIVE SCHOOL RECORD AND PUPIL ANALYSIS

J. WAYNE WRIGHTSTONE

Principal, Hamilton School, Summit, New Jersey

THE IMPORTANCE of "Good administration before good supervision" has impelled the author to experiment on a cumulative pupil record that serves both an administrative and supervisory purpose. In the past, many systems have been evolved with a health card in this file, an attendance card in that file, and a mental hygiene and test and measurements card in the other file. While all this may seem desirable and efficient for administrative purposes, how undesirable and inefficient it is for the supervisor and the classroom teacher in adapting the school to individual differences.

It is possible to keep a cumulative record on *one* card of the child's home background, his mental, social, physical, emotional, and character development during the entire elementary school period. The competent supervisor finds this complete picture of the child essential for adequate and valid supervision. If a complete picture may be presented in such form that the supervisor may carry it with him and consult it in connection with the supervisory act, his constructive suggestions will be more helpful in solving both individual and group problems.

Figures 1 and 2 represent the front and reverse of the cumulative card used in one school. It will be noted that the card emphasizes summaries and trends. The forms of the summaries are arranged for the six year elementary school. All pertinent information concerning the child's intellectual, social, physical, and emotional life is arranged by five divisions as described in subsequent paragraphs.

Academic data—The academic records of the student are arranged in two sections. Section I is the annual achievement test record of standard tests. Section II is the annual teacher's analysis according to academic subjects. For promotion, both the teacher's and the standard test level of achievement are considered. We find that better classification makes for better administration of the whole school.

The annual achievement test record is entered and interpreted in terms of grade scores which have been established on national achievement levels. The Stanford Achievement Tests, for instance, have their scores interpreted both in educational age and grade scores. The other standard tests may have their crude scores reduced to grade scores by a simple process explained in the small handbook, *How to Classify Pupils*,¹ by Bixler and McCall.

¹ Published by the Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1928, p. 12-17.

As an administrative device, the cumulative record allows the teacher and supervisor to note academic progress from an objective point of view and to note trends of individual weaknesses or defects in the factual knowledge equipment of the child. Although the reliability of different tests may differ, the correlation is usually sufficiently high to point clearly to certain trends.

As a supervisory device, the supervisor or teacher may use this administrative tool to plan individual instruction. Each individual program can be set up, not only to improve the academic life, but to adjust the emotional, social, physical, and intellectual factors which so often affect school progress.

Teacher's academic analysis—This section provides spaces for the teacher to enter the progress of the student as measured by the standards of the local courses of study. It is suggested that instead of the traditional method of A, B, C, D, and E, that the following terms should be entered:

Accelerated—Above the grade standards	} of course of study
Normal—Normal progress in standards	
Retarded—Below the grade standards	

The combining of local standards and national standards greatly assists in any classification plan used by the school system. If an individual system of instruction with goal levels is established, the goal achieved at the termination of the school year in each subject might be entered instead of the terms, accelerated, normal, or retarded.

Physical development—The administrative purpose of the cumulative physical data of every child is that the health of the child may be given due attention and guidance. Health is usually mentioned as one of the first objects of education. Not only is health a factor and end in itself, but it is also a factor in its relation to success in classroom and extra-classroom activities. Is there not sufficient evidence that an undernourished condition can affect scholastic success? Is this a problem of *integrated* administration and supervision? Since both questions must be answered affirmatively it follows that both teacher and supervisor need health data at hand for immediate reference in maladjustments. It is probable that future experience may lead to additions to our cumulative record such as: fatigue, diseases, and anthropometric measurements.

Social development—When an individual passes from one teacher to another, it is desirable to have the new teacher know the social development of the pupil. Has he shown leadership ability? Does

he enjoy athletics? Does he play a musical instrument? Is he a member of the school safety patrol? What are his interests and habits at home? These are essential to the social life, the social guidance, the social programs of the group, and the individual. A wise administrator, teacher, or supervisor does not ignore such accumulated knowledge, but turns it toward useful ends.

Personality adjustment—Although the personality section (Figure 2) may be of least value for the normal pupil certain maladjusted individuals should have data on their behavior and emotional problems accessible to the teacher or supervisor. The data, the analysis, and the prognosis, of unadjusted personalities should be obtained from the school psychiatrist or visiting teacher. These data have a specific bearing often upon the academic, physical, and social activities of the pupil. Experiments have been made and are now being conducted wherein proof of this is evident. For example, Winnetka, Illinois, has interesting data in connection with child guidance work.

However, until most teachers are better trained in mental hygiene, it is best that data should be entered in this part of the card only after conference with the school psychiatrist or with the principal.

Summary and conclusions—Briefly, the points discussed in connection with the single pupil record card may be summarized as follows:

1. The cumulative card can be used in conjunction with departmental files from which information is taken and concentrated on this card.
2. The cumulative card serves an administrative function of summarizing data of academic, physical, social, and emotional importance in a cumulative and concise form.
3. The cumulative card serves as a supervisory device because it synchronizes all pertinent data needed for individual analysis and diagnosis of the whole nature and equipment of the child on one card. Over a period of time the record becomes a history of all phases of the child's activities.
4. This card may be used by the principal for preparatory reference in conference with parents, teachers, supervisors, or with children when they are referred to the principal for administrative purposes.
5. The card must be revised from time to time as experience and common practice indicate a need for new approaches in efficiently guiding the child.

CHAPTER XI

BUILDING SCHOOL MORALE

APPLYING SCIENTIFIC TECHNIQS TO THE INDIVIDUAL PUPIL

MARTIN L. COX

Principal, Robert Treat Junior High School, Newark, New Jersey

THE LAST decade has witnessed a changing conception, and we think an improved one, in the aims, methods, and fruits of school control. The kindergartens began the movement toward "soft pedagogy" and the milder methods of Herbart and Madame Montessori and others have influenced educators away from the old military standards of command and obey. Few educators question the necessity of giving the teacher full control and leadership of the class and every teacher knows that children must be quiet, orderly, and attentive before any real instruction can be successfully given. The use of the word "discipline" is falling into disuse and leadership, control, management, and morale are struggling in friendly competition for the honored position once held by discipline.

The objectives of a good school morale—Present aims in morale are similar to those of the old type of school discipline so characteristic of the opening decade of the century. Emotional self-control of the pupils and their willing obedience to school regulations, including right habits of study, respect for their teachers, loyalty to their school, and a desire to protect its good name and to advance its influence and usefulness in the community, are still major objectives in building a good school morale.

The methods of building good school morale have become part of the technic which principals and teachers use in developing the raw material sent from the homes into active little agents of helpful propaganda that will raise the level of living in many homes. The old repressive measures and aims have given way before the new attitude of seeking a desirable improvement in moral character of individual pupils as the great objective in building school morale. This growth in moral standards of citizenship will serve as our firmest ally and most dependable help in maintaining an orderly and attentive group of children in each class.

Nature of good school morale—Good school morale is a powerful, indirect force coming from the whole body of teachers and stu-

dents and exerting a compelling force on each individual of the group. The school standard should be both well known and worthy of respect. In the little world of the school, as in the larger world outside, right things can be made popular and the enthusiastic cooperation of all can be enlisted to make right habits habitual. Right conduct daily respected and carried out by the children intelligently and willingly, without reminders and without punishments, constitutes an admirable moral training and is evidence of the best type of school morale.

Good school morale is the healthy, happy, and prompt response of normal children in all school activities. The best school morale will be found where the influences of good homes and of good communities unite in establishing a high standard of personal conduct in each child. Schools in such communities will find the task of building school morale a much less insistent and arduous task than in the schools of less favored communities. Interested and watchful supervision and friendly leadership will suffice to maintain the good morale that comes to the school as the gift of the interest of intelligent and cultured parents.

Widespread need of building morale—The great majority of American schools do not find a satisfactory school morale given to them as the free gift of the community. Frequently, the building of school morale is the first, the most insistent, the most difficult, and the most necessary task of the principal and his corps of teachers. Is it not true that some school pupils have in embryo all the undesirable human traits for which society sends adults to prisons and reformatories? Is it not true that many have criminal tendencies, lack self-control, and have already developed anti-social habits before they enter our public schools?

The school virtues of attention, obedience, courtesy, honesty, neatness, industry, punctuality, and loyalty are all of them acquired human virtues and must be exercised again and again to become habitual. Fortunately each school has a group of children more fully developed in these virtues than many other pupils are; and, just as society is preserved by the presence and influence of its good citizens, so our schools are preserved by the number of pupils who have the right attitude toward the school and who yield willing and cheerful obedience to school regulations.

Problem children and problem schools—It may be safely assumed that very few schools long escape one or more individuals who rebel against the wholesome inhibitions of necessary school regulations. These include the so-called "problem children" of the school. As

the number of these problem children increases, the school is thought of and spoken of a "problem school." Is it not rather an "opportunity school" and does it not bear the same relation to the school system that a sanitarium does to a community? Will not some principal and some teachers here find a great field in which they will have many opportunities to stimulate and elevate the lives of neglected children? Are not these children a menace to the community when their needs are ignored and their faults are allowed to grow and strengthen?

Psychiatry offers aid—The comparatively new science of psychiatry is awaiting admission into our school systems. It has scarcely advanced beyond listing and classifying the several types of delinquent children. We have as yet no scientific remedial work adequate to cope with the need. The problem is widely diffused in all school systems and it is difficult to deal with it effectively. Perhaps, in the near future, some adventurous and courageous superintendent of schools will segregate and classify all the anti-social children of his system and place them all in buildings under the care of men and women of highest character, rare skill, and of successful technic in meeting the problems they present. When this plan is tried, the benefit to all children of the system, including the so-called "problem children," will be so great as to warrant its widespread adoption. Then we shall have schools of normal children in which principals and teachers can give full time to the work of instruction and the improvement of instruction. No one has yet studied and reported the great loss to effective teaching when teachers, untrained in psychiatry, try to quell some brainstorm or to discover some stolen article or to coax some refractory pupil to conform to decent school behavior.

The psychiatry department in the problem school—The psychiatry department should be housed in the building with the problem school with the anti-social and under-privileged children, and its assistance should be immediate. Make it possible for psychiatrists to deal with the offenders while occurrences are fresh in the minds of all concerned. How often a child afflicted with brainstorms is interviewed by the psychiatrist weeks after his tantrum, and on a day when the child is happy and emotionally undisturbed. The value of psychiatry and its usefulness in the school system can best be demonstrated by establishing the "problem school" as a moral sanitarium for the afflicted children where their ailments can be diagnosed and treatments in modified activities and special courses of study can be provided. If all problem children of greater and less degree were elimi-

nated from the regular schools, we should greatly reduce the necessity of special efforts to build up a satisfactory school morale. The special efforts could very largely be made in the moral sanitarium or moral convalescent schools for we should need a convalescent school in which to try the "cured" patients before restoring them to their regular schools again. So widespread a difficulty and so insistent a problem, continued through so long a time, has developed a suitable technic in many interested teachers and only the best and most successful should be trusted with this important duty.

Changed viewpoint of legislators—New Jersey has very strict laws prohibiting the use of corporal punishment in the schools of the commonwealth. Successive legislatures have held the most optimistic views of parental ability to control and train the children to right social habits and to keep them regularly and punctually at school. This view is still maintained in the face of statistics which show parental inability to carry the burden imposed by statutes of the state. New Jersey teachers have recognized the power and the right of the state legislature to determine this matter. The teachers have undertaken to do what the homes have failed to do in addition to their own assigned tasks of instruction. With many pupils this has been possible but in many other cases, special help is most urgently needed to save the morale and the civic standards of the school.

Population shifts bring new problems—Since the abolition of corporal punishment in New Jersey schools, teachers have been called upon to deal with a population shift that has multiplied the difficulties of introducing the new methods of "soft pedagogy." We have had:

- a. An immigrant problem of considerable proportions.
- b. A population shift in the removal of large numbers of colored workers and their families from the rural South to the industrial centers of New Jersey.
- c. A considerable problem with the children of under-privileged homes, broken homes, and homes of employed mothers.

Many calls for assistance and guidance come to school principals from each of these classes of parents. The struggle to provide for the physical needs of the children exhausts the energies of many parents and they are unable to solve the problems arising from the intermingling of so many races in crowded tenements and in crowded streets. These parents are unable to oppose successfully the resistance which many children of these groups set up against any effective control of their actions. The hope of these parents lies in the American public school and their reliance upon it is as touchingly beautiful as their helplessness is burdensome to the school. The American school is not dismayed, but has girded itself for the unequal contest and its use of new scientific methods of educating

"problem children" away from crime will be successful if we act calmly and perseveringly in the light of what our most successful teachers recommend. Segregation of the "problem children" is necessary and special educative influences must be adapted to their needs.

Student participation a good method—One effective method of building good school morale is by the method of student participation. The school that can link up its under-privileged children with a trained and interested set of "big brothers" and "big sisters" will be able to reach many of its problem children without outside help. The responsibility will steady the good and their influence will reach many of the weaker children in helpful ways. Principals and teachers will be well repaid for the time spent in training pupils for this service for the character training benefits both the good and the troublesome. Character training is best achieved by indirect methods and this method of student participation brings a rich reward in the improvement of school morale wherever it is intelligently and faithfully tried. The good children never forget that their example is the best service they can render their school and its faculty.

Definite school policy—Have a definite school policy faithfully adhered to through a series of years so that it becomes well known in the community. Schools like persons have reputations to maintain if they are good and to change if they are wrong. Make the school interesting by good methods of instruction, but insist upon habits of promptness, industry, and attention. Let all pupils who wish to participate in conspicuous school activities be students who stand well with the teachers and with their classmates. Lose competitive games sooner than win them with pupils who are undesirable in any school respect. Let the free play of the gymnasium and the games of the playground be open to all children, but keep places on the teams that represent the school in city competitions for the well-behaved, the studious, and the self-respecting students.

Encourage your teachers to be uniformly kind and patient. If trouble arises, let some anti-social child make it without provocation and then eliminate him from the room as quickly as possible to make the loss of time by the disturbance as short as possible. In large schools, the principal can often save time and effort by talking with several offenders at a time. By careful argument he can build in them a better attitude toward school life. Some offenses are of such a nature the offender must be dealt with alone. The principal should study these and classify them as feeble-minded, thieves, truants, sex-offenders, vulgar, profane, and general moral delinquents.

Segregation necessary for successful treatment—The feeble-minded children should be in Binet classes under teachers trained for that service. The moral delinquents should be collected and provided with a good building with special equipment and a program of studies should seek to build them up where they are weak. The ideal citizen should be held before them and the qualities that have made men useful and respected should be stressed in every possible way. For our moral sanitarium school, we must be careful to distinguish between the habitual offender and the accidental wrongdoer. A few days ago, one of our good boys was tardy. The writer saw him enter school one minute after the time of beginning and kindly asked him what the reason was. He told me his mother had been taken to the hospital at four o'clock that morning, and that he had prepared breakfast for the family and washed and dressed his younger brothers and sisters for school. He was only one minute late after the excitement and emotional disturbance attending the family catastrophe. How many of us would have reached the school at all the next day?

Educated criminal juvenile delinquents—The morally delinquent child often learns a technic of defense and a vocabulary with which he can successfully meet judges and probation officers. He often learns a technic in wrongdoing that is amazing in such young children. A boy of 12 who was a known thief sought good children as recruits and told them what to steal and how to do it. Then the thief went with the good child to the store and engaged the attention of the store detective while the "good child" took the things "the gang" had told him to get as his initiation. The flashlights, toy-pistols, knives, skates, and other toys made a very impressive exhibit when the writer called the probation officer in and had the recruit tell the story of his initiation. The known thief does not keep near the "recruit" and when the recruit bungles the job and is caught, the principal is astonished at the name given and finds it hard to understand why one of his good boys has gone wrong until he finds that a thief, sent to him from another school, is absent also. An investigation soon reveals what has happened and shows that good children are often sacrificed in our unscientific method of dealing with embryo criminals by ignoring their crimes.

New recruits in crime present insistent problem—These new recruits in crime are perplexing problems for teachers and parents. To save these good, but weak children from taking the first wrong steps, the labor of building school morale is fully justified and rewarded. The principal's office is frequently a battleground for the

destiny of some child. Being first offenders, the whole machinery of social workers, court psychologist, and probation officers is set in motion. The previous history of the child is written out again and again. If the family is large, that is the reason for his delinquency although the children of some large families are among the best children of the school. If the parents live apart, that is the reason for the delinquency although some other children of broken homes are excellent pupils. The school physician comes in and finds his tonsils enlarged. That may be the reason for the delinquency. If the school has no playground, that is the reason although children in a school where there is a playground may show a number of delinquents. The city psychiatrist comes to talk to the delinquent some day when he is keenly interested in his lessons and he finds him "a pleasant, attractive little boy of normal ability and with a good attitude toward his work." But the principal is struggling with the principal's most perplexing and most responsible problem: The elimination of one child for the good of the school.

All conscientious principals defer final action to the latest possible moment and good children are everywhere sacrificed to our reluctance to admit failure to reclaim natural moral delinquents by our "conspiracy of silence" and our "soft pedagogy" methods. The criminally inclined child is kept in the school and in class with good children. He is allowed to move freely among the children of the school hoping that he will improve and that no one else will be hurt. It is extremely doubtful if real moral delinquents are helped by this mild treatment, and the ignoring of their misdemeanors. It is certain that good children are frequently made recruits while principal and teachers are lulled into forgetfulness by some improved conduct for a few days.

Cottage homes of public institutions need—Some moral delinquents of the public schools come from homes where successful theft is approved if not aided. The low standards of the parents make it most desirable to remove the child from the blighting influence of the under-privileged home and to place him in the cottage home of some public institution. We have such a city home for the Newark delinquents of the thieving type. Many boys have been reclaimed and made into good citizens by its ministry and service. This paper makes no effort to show how such institutions should be conducted or to tell how our own is conducted. The need of sufficient cottages to house all of the worst delinquents of the city is what we stress. We will all agree that such institutions should be moral sanitariums reconstructing wrecked lives and ruined reputations. The elimina-

tion of all the worst offenders from our public schools and placing them under wholesome restraining influences in moral sanitariums will go far toward reducing the crime waves of the future. We plead to have opportunities extended to all moral juvenile delinquents to recover before they have become habituated to a life of crime.

Serious effect of stigmatizing a child delinquent—All interested persons will freely admit the serious effects of stigmatizing a child with any form of delinquency and for this reason every effort suggested by scientific research should be used before final and irrevocable steps are taken. Perhaps the wisest first steps toward moral reformation can best be made in a moral sanitarium school of the city system. This school can be provided with planned conveniences for dealing with such children. With a staff of carefully selected teachers, intensive character training can be carried on by the principal and teachers. In such a school, time can be given to a discussion of the current news relating to certain forms of delinquency and the punishments meted out by society can be pointed out. Even young offenders must learn that society is convinced of reformation only by long periods of good behavior while a good name can be lost in a single hour.

Special work done in other schools—Such a school needs to stress club work. The Stay In At Night Club, the Go Straight Club, the Make Parents Proud Club, the Teacher Helpers, and the Every Day In School Club, and many others can give these delinquent children new life interests and a better attitude toward home and school. Literature will help teachers give their message. "Our todays and yesterdays are the blocks with which we build." "Heaven is not reached by a single bound." Teachers must fortify delinquent pupils with the brightest and most satisfying pictures of literature to teach the value of good citizenship. The moral sanitarium should have a number of small conference rooms similar to the private offices of principals. A table around which a small group can gather is very essential and a fireplace with occasional open fires would be very desirable. In these special rooms teachers and principal could gather about them the needy cases of the school and give "treatments" in building up self-respect and in setting before the group the advantages of being good and of doing good. Perhaps in our enthusiasm for physical training, we have overlooked the need of rooms in which "moral exercise" can be taken. Perhaps everywhere we have not said enough about our successful weeks and have underrated the moral efforts of some members of our group to help us achieve the success.

Continue many present helps—In building a good school morale, we shall find occasion for continuing many features of the present widespread technic of praising high percentages of attendance, low records of tardiness, absence of losses, the vanishing of truancy, absence of disturbing resistance to school requests, and the disappearance of disorder. The new technic of building morale will put even greater stress on the greater pleasure of school life and the higher success of school exercises because of freedom from annoyances that take up so much of teacher-time and take the joy out of lesson-periods. The supervisor must support teachers constantly by organized efforts to forestall any breakdown of the weaker children of the group. When a group of boys forms under the leadership of some boy of known delinquency, tactful efforts and school engagements must frustrate the consummation of such friendships. This places a heavy responsibility upon the principal. Well, isn't he the key to the situation? Who else is in sight with the adequate qualifications by training, experience, and opportunity to do this necessary and important work?

Cooperation with courts—The moral sanitarium school will cooperate with the established courts and receive such delinquents as the courts may assign to them but its real work will be to build such a stable morale that fewer youthful delinquents will err far enough to reach the courts. First offenders are now placed on probation and some excellent citizens have been spared lifelong disgrace and have been restored to good citizenship by its beneficent opportunities. In building good school morale, the school should give abundant opportunity to first offenders to show that delinquency is accidental and not habitual. When repeated offenses occur, the delinquent should be taken from his old environment and be sent to a school, selected for him because of the successful technic of the principal and the teachers in dealing with such cases. A recognized "public school moral sanitarium" can give more intensive and frequent purposeful treatments for moral delinquencies than can be given to occasional delinquent children in the ordinary school. Our plea is that morally delinquent children should be given positive help to recover normal status. Ignoring their condition and pretending they are already recovered does not accomplish more in cases of defective morals than it would in cases of defective health.

City, county, and state institutions needed—Unfortunately the problem is so difficult and so serious that we shall probably still need the institutions of city, county, and state to care for in "cottage homes" the delinquents whose home surroundings breed delinquencies. Many children will need 24 hour supervision to safeguard them

and prevent a relapse into delinquency. Perhaps with more intensive and better directed work of moral sanitarium schools, the public reformatory institutions will be able to accommodate all other delinquents. The rod, the attitude of fear, and the policy of repression have been taken from many American schools and teachers do not seek the return for they have found that with the majority of children, school can be made much more delightful and successful without them. But it is the business of the state to carry out the provisions of its own laws and to protect its schools and its normal children from the presence and association of criminally-inclined children.

Protect schools as we protect homes—When people gather for an evening of card games, they do not allow known gamblers and criminals to force themselves among them because of the accident of residence. When people assemble for a concert, they do not allow some feeble-minded person to sit and blow peas and putty at them. When people assemble for a lecture, they do not permit some empty-headed individual to interrupt the speaker by loud conversation or any other diversion. Good breeding is necessary to open the doors of desirable entertainments to us. No human fellowship that is worthwhile can be obtained without this essential. Teachers will all welcome the day when good breeding will be considered the necessary qualification of each pupil who is to enter any but correctional public schools.

Cost of moral sanitarium schools—The cost of these moral sanitarium schools will not be very great. They will be organized along present lines of school organization and will care for large numbers without great added costs. The psychiatry department, the visiting teachers, the attendance officers, and probation officers will find a welcome relief for their work will be brought to centers in which remedial work could be more promptly and effectively done. The moral sanitarium school would be an intensive child study school for teachers, psychologists, sociologists, and parents.

One of its most fruitful efforts for good citizenship will be found in parent-guidance as well as in pupil-guidance for many parents would gladly control their children and keep them in paths of moral rectitude but they are unable to cope with the wayward child in his stubborn resistance to all moral control.

Essential goodness of children—American teachers have great faith in the essential goodness of children in spite of finding some anti-social or "morally sick" children in the groups with which they work. Our schools are organized on a plan of "In the child we trust." For many years teachers have been able to bring adequate

help so that many cases of accidental delinquency have been restored to normal conduct and gratifying growth in desirable character. The problems added by immigration and population shifts and the increasing number of mentally deficient children have so increased the cases that work with normal children is handicapped by the presence of the problem children in such large numbers that additional help must be given the schools by eliminating the problem children. Additional help must be given to the problem children to restore them to normal, satisfactory lives.

Ignoring the problem leads to crime waves—The wolf of organized, premeditated crime is among us and seeks the lambs of our flocks. Evil influences of our populous centers are working constantly, energetically, if surreptitiously, for our American children. Shall we pussyfoot and molycoddle our youthful criminals or shall we appeal to the moral conscience of the community to bring help to the under-privileged, the ignorant, and the criminally inclined children to restore as many as possible to society as useful and law-abiding citizens. Teachers of the highest character, of the widest experience, and of the most successful technic are needed in the work and they must be given the helps suggested by science and experience. Our crime waves will grow larger and stronger unless we attack the forces behind them and cut off the supply of criminals at its source in the lives of neglected children. Ignoring our plain duty has lead us into troubles with the most active, most desperate, and most merciless criminals our country has known.

Our hope is the American public school—Our American schools have met so many problems successfully and have so won the confidence of the American people that we cannot doubt but that our present problems will be solved fully and satisfactorily by thoughtful educators who appear on the educational horizon in time to meet some pressing need. The American citizen of tomorrow will be called upon to do his work more scientifically and more enduringly than has been true in our past. People desire to live more in the spirit and to have more leisure and to use it for the development of the indomitable human spirit. Machines will free us from many menial tasks and prosperity will enable the level of living to be raised. In our visions of the world of the future, we must plan to make prisons less necessary and colleges even more popular than they are today. I want America to lead the world in finding methods of reclaiming the youthful criminal and in restoring accidental delinquents to usefulness in society and to gladness in their own lives.

A STEP TOWARD BETTER CITIZENSHIP

DALE CURTISS

Principal, George Washington School, Detroit, Michigan

THE ESTIMATED population of Detroit is more than a million and a half persons. The approximate average population is 11,000 persons per square mile. The 1929 enumerated school population is 402,670. The approximate average registration of children is 2,900 per square mile.

In the northeastern section of Detroit is a plot of ground scarcely one mile in length and less than half of one mile in width, bounded on the west by the Grand Trunk railroad and the city of Highland Park, on the north by the Terminal railroad, on the east by a street called Goddard, and on the south by the city of Hamtramck. Within this area of less than one-half square mile, part of which is occupied by factories, there reside nearly 11,000 persons, 3,500 between the inclusive ages of five and nineteen years. Of the children in the district 2,212 attend the George Washington School. Table 1 gives the distribution of these children by nationalities.

The Washington School building is a one story brick and stone structure. Classes within the building are organized into two platoons of 24 sections each. The working personnel includes two assistant principals, 54 teachers, two clerks, an attendance officer, and a nurse. The complete sensitiveness and intensive labors of this staff in tasks that seem never ending, have made it possible for the one who now happens to be principal to give some personal attention to noticeable citizenship irregularities.

The community and the parents—Among the parents and community elders in this somewhat congested area are those who always may be depended upon to stand four square for right and justice, for any movement whose aim is the betterment of their fellows, and for any school program that more effectively will mold the lives of their children toward a balanced citizenship. There are other parents who look disinterestedly upon any attempt to change the rutted course of things, and still others whose utter indifference keeps them in a world entirely apart.

There are unnumbered parents who depart for work at five o'clock in the morning, return at seven or eight o'clock in the evening, and see their children only a few minutes each week, usually before or after the Sunday matinee "blood and thunder" picture show. In much fewer numbers are those who condemn the eighteenth amendment and attempt to drink it out of the constitution. Then there

are adults who counsel the mystic wisdom of strange prophets to trace their ebony-hued heritage to Moorish ancestry, those who send their children out for the evening with instructions not to return before eleven o'clock, those who live in all manner and form of marital relationship, and still others who believe in no form of amusement.

By fair speech are we known—There are parents who occasionally seek advice in and through our offices and others who come to give advice and give it abundantly. There are some whose double-fisted, single-track argument is final if not convincing. Still others betray their unpreparedness when they declare in voice intensified from pianissimo to double forte that:

I would do something if I only knew what to do.

He's five years old. Take him and learn him. We can't do nothing with him.

The only way to get on with my child is to shower him with kindness and love. Kindness always wins. He has never been treated in no other way.

TABLE 1—NATIONALITY SURVEY OF THE WASHINGTON SCHOOL, DETROIT

Nationality (Country)	Grade									Total
	Eight	Seven	Six	Five	Four	Three	Two	One	Kgn.	
Armenia.....	22	15	7	14	12	2	1	2	1	6
Austria.....	..	..	9	..	..	18	13	15	5	121
Belgium.....	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	10
Bohemia.....	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1
Bulgaria.....	1	1	1	..	1	2	1	2	1	10
Canada.....	..	2	..	3	3	2	2	2	..	14
Croatia.....	2	..	1	4	..	1	1	..	..	9
Czecho Slovakia..	..	4	1	2	4	1	3	4	2	21
England.....	..	..	..	..	..	..	2	..	..	2
Finland.....	..	1	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	2
France.....	..	..	..	1	1	..	..	..	..	2
Germany.....	1	2	..	3	..	1	..	4	..	11
Greece.....	..	..	5	..	3	2	2	1	1	14
Hebrew.....	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	1
Hungary.....	10	15	12	9	6	15	9	10	2	88
Italy.....	4	10	6	4	19	15	12	19	6	95
Jugo Slovakia....	1	4	5	4	1	7	8	10	4	44
Lithuania.....	3	10	2	14	7	8	13	2	..	59
Macedonia.....	..	..	1	..	..	2	..	..	..	3
Montenegro.....	..	..	..	1	..	1	..	..	..	2
Poland.....	16	17	17	11	20	13	16	17	4	131
Russia.....	5	12	5	10	11	13	3	10	6	75
Roumania.....	29	42	34	19	40	26	35	40	23	288
Spain.....	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1
Serbia.....	9	3	5	12	8	3	8	5	4	57
Sweden.....	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	1	2
Syria.....	1	1	1	..	1	2	1	1	..	8
Ukrania.....	..	2	1	1	..	1	1	1	..	7
U. S. White.....	4	11	13	5	10	12	8	24	4	91
U. S. Colored....	57	60	79	114	142	127	125	217	116	1037
Total.....	166	213	206	232	289	275	265	387	179	2212

I tells my kid never to fight and if he gets in a mess I always supposed the government paid you teachers to keep kids from getting savage.

If he'd do as I tells him, he'd be as good as the angels in heaven but I guess he don't. He ain't such a bad kid though.

I certainly use the rod on my child to make him do right when I hears he has been roguish. I don't waste much talk on him and I means for him to do right.

You teachers could learn him if you only had a mind. His father always gives him a good talk and tells him to obey, and it ain't necessary for any teacher to bawl her face off at my child.

We like to take the teacher's part, but the way Washington School has been run in the last six months is a disgrace to the city of Detroit.

No I don't know who is the father of this child. Lord bless you boy, he wasn't here long enough for me to get his name.

It's too bad my children has to be in school with all these other kids. I see to it that my kids are clean. We have a bath tub at home even though we are poor.

I come in to say—Please don't shower bath my kid no more. We take care of his ablutions at home.

I can't see why you should always be picking on my kids and never do nothing to those others. You always blame my children for everything and that ain't right. I'm a good Christian woman and I gets my crust of bread honestly. I ain't no street woman.

Yes I tells my kids not to take sass from any of these damn teachers at this school. I don't send them here to take lip from nobody. And I tell them more than that too. They should tell me if any one of you lays hands on them. If I ever hear of it, it'll be too bad for you.

Sure I tells my kids to hit any one back that hits them and if they can't fight alone to get their big brother.

We are too busy running our legs off going over to school to see about some trouble all the time. I have eighteen children and they keeps me busy. Seems like you teachers could overpower any of them kids without calling on me.

Sure I want my girl to stay out of school and work. Pretty soon she'll get married and then what good will she be to me.

In addition to these prototypes there are phrenologists, astrologers, cultists, and prophet physicians who advocate radical changes in accepted practices and devote much of their useful time to leisurely reflection. Then among the last, but not least, there are those expedagogical parents who cannot conceive and will not concede that any procedure is educationally sound save that which they practised in the good old home state, ten, twenty, or thirty years ago.

It has been alleged by those in daily contact with the community that in the surrounding territory may be found every conceivable type of agency for the promotion of salvation, education, starvation, mortification, assignation, and ruination.

Our children—Many of our children reflect the atmosphere of their homes. We have small ones and big ones, slim and fat, short and tall, sweet and tart, mellow and fiery, five and seventeen, pale and ruddy, thick lipped and thin, strong and weak, straight and bent, flat-footed and high-arched, light and dark, superstitious and rational, backward and bright, cunning and bungling, sick and well, poor and

poorer, good and not so well behaved, honest and not so particular, diligent and not so conscientious, clean and unwashed, and every other physical and mental form of child that lives.

There are some who would like to float ethereally upon wings, there are others who would prefer to swing on long tails from the boughs of tall trees. There are those who by education and training can escape from the most alert attendance officers, and those who on their hands and knees can beg and pray "Big Dick," "Little Joe," and "Naturals" for a pair of shoes as capably as the most hardened trooper.

A small number of our children are nice children—too nice. They never fight, defend themselves, or become mischievous. They lack self-starting initiative of every sort. They are nice comfortable children. There are others who consistently and persistently come tardy, who slough and sloop around, who steal copper conduits, and eaves from the school building, who demand protection money or candy from others, who misinterpret certain phonetic sounds, who read and write bawdy house poetry, who crumple toweling in the toilets and set fire thereto, who exaggerate the body and bustle movements of favorite stage and film stars, who cuddle their "Big Moments" in automobiles, movies, dance parlors, and cabarets, who worship at the feet of goddess Nicotine, who chew copes (Copenhagen Snuff), who exercise both kinds of cursory abilities, and a few who occasionally stub and restub their moral toes.

There are among us those who ever are as still as bubbling brooks, who suffer from copious logorrhea, coprolalia, and moria, who have difficulty in articulating or cannot pronounce such lettered eruptions as "Muskingum," "Guadalajara," "Yenisi," and "Okechobee"; who constantly clash with other personalities; who fight with broken bottle tops, long knives, pieces of glass, vocal bands, teeth, or proxy; who limit their barbarian depredations to tapping on classroom windows or yelling into opened doors; who battle fairly to add marbles, pocket junk, or bunches of grapes to their belongings, or merely to uphold the family's respected pugilistic traditions; and those who delight in open field courses of rough and tumble. Others bear marks and scars of unreasonable parental wrath; who partially support their home by after-school and Saturday work; who do nothing save offer and provide effective stimuli for teacher exasperation; who write their own notes; who dance, mess around, and scuffle under any and every circumstance; who treat the truth with profound disrespect; who make life miserable for hucksters; who rub vaseline and axle grease into dog bites; who kluk kluk like a hen or swish swish

like a yak; who fall asleep on duty, in their seats or anywhere; who rub their hands until sores appear, who scrape or cut initials on their arms; who sleep in barns, attics, or under porches; and who run away from wretched quarters they are forced to call home.

There are children who fume forth the conflicting odors of favorite national dishes and others who smell as sweet as a narcissus. There are some who can remove their wraps easily before an average size locker, and others who must knock down all youngsters within a radius of 14 feet before they can jump out of their jackets. There are some who can walk normally to their classes and others who are not at ease unless they are punching some one, throwing another out of line, jabbing pins into the frame of the fellow somewhere ahead, pinching, wrestling, sparring, whistling, or otherwise clowning around. There are some who read Shakespeare and others who spend their time perusing snappy stories and looking at comic strips. There are all sorts and varieties.

There are children who were named after presidents of the United States, Russian generals, nurses in obstetrical hospitals, popular house physicians, wild flowers, hothouse plants, railroads, diseases, patent medicines, and twilight sleep; and others who boast not of their forebears or forerunners. There are children and entire sections who willingly and delightfully make a soccer ball out of the aspirations and ideal plans of substitute teachers, and who show no sympathy for any one without poise or impressive personality, and others who are as compatible as Mary's Little Lamb. Washington School children reflect the prevailing spirit of American life in terms of their own thinking, proceeding with unfettered curiosity to find out the who, what, when, where, why, and how of everything and often awakening to find themselves ensnared in meshes of trouble.

Sometimes as the pictures of their homes and their lives are revealed, the writer wonders not that certain behavior irregularities occur, but he does marvel that some children are as well behaved as they are. In truth it should be known, in spite of the long list of accusations, that most of our children are quite normal, mischievous to be sure, yet without the major trouble zone, behaving as well as they know. At least, behaving as well as, and frequently better than they are exemplified by mothers, fathers, brothers, sisters, and neighbors.

The problem and our procedures—We are dealing with a small city of children whose nationality characteristics are different, whose attitudes, ideals, ambitions, and practices vary to the extremes, and whose parents and homes are strangely unlike. Notwithstanding,

we are dealing with children who soon will be accountable to the organized American social order for all their unsocial or anti-social habits. It is evident to all of us in touch with the situation that we need more arithmetic, better science, and healthier every other curriculum subjects. But it is more evident that we need an acceptable citizenship sense, a something that automatically will suggest the right and lead us therein. Toward this personal adjustment goal we have directed attention and emphasis.

We have proceeded upon the hypotheses that:

- (1) Good behavior may be as much a matter of habit as unsatisfactory behavior.
- (2) Good habits are established through persistently applied and well directed emphases.
- (3) We should do the right thing for no other reason than because it is right.
- (4) Children do the right thing when they are certain the right thing is to be expected or demanded of them.
- (5) Good behavior is contagious.

We are mindful that:

- (1) It is difficult to train a child in the way he should go when 75 percent of his waking hours are spent in unfavorable environments.
- (2) Most disorders center about a few known individuals.
- (3) Disorder is contagious.
- (4) The symptoms of difficulties and irregularities may be suppressed temporarily, but trouble will remain until the source of trouble has been removed.
- (5) We may not be able to get where we should be in a day, month, year, or perhaps ten years but we also are aware that if we are to get anywhere upstream, we must start somewhere.

It is possible and probable that much of our school action leading toward the development of a citizenship sense has been suppressive in character. Such procedures have not been by choice, but by seeming necessity, in order to obtain and maintain a semblance of orderliness. With the establishment of apparent order, superficial as it may really be, teachers have had an opportunity to impart specific information to needy individuals, to gain their confidence, to be friendly to them, and to expose them to ways that are right.

About the first of October one year ago, teachers were advised of intentions. The following suggestions were made.

- (1) State all requests simply and directly in tones of certainty and sincerity. Use normal voice. In this connection it was recommended that the teacher determine
 - (a) If the proposed request is justifiable.
 - (b) If its fulfillment would make any difference in the general behavior situation. If it would make a difference, ask it. If it would not make a difference, don't ask it.
- (2) Use a follow-up plan to know that all requests are complied with.
- (3) Run your own rooms.
- (4) Call upon the office whenever the situation seems to demand.

The attention of all of us was called to several pedagogical policies.

- (1) Poise, control, and bearing are essential to complete mastery of any situation.
- (2) In the midst of a trying scene, remain as calm as possible.
- (3) Do not act hurriedly or heatedly.
- (4) Be perfectly fair in every decision, especially careful in the adjustment of difficulties that may seem minor.
- (5) Don't find fault with too many small or non-essential details.
- (6) Be an example of better citizenship.
- (7) Practise a sense of humor.
- (8) When in physical danger, take the offensive.

Strange as it may sound and seem, we do not have a list of specific don'ts for pupils. Our school behavior rule is "You're old enough to know right from wrong. Behave yourself."

Believing that many of the "just fooling around" discipline problems would be prevented and that an attitude of orderliness would be developed, service pupils, teachers, assistants, and principal are stationed in the corridors of the building to greet incoming pupils in the morning and again at noon. These persons are not in a beligerent state of mind, but merely in readiness to close in whenever and wherever correction is necessary. Tight-lipped formality is not requested but order is insisted upon. The old pass the buck slogan "they're your kids" has been replaced by "they are ours." At the suggestion of health education teachers, children in the gymnasium are arranged in formal groups, not for formal exercise, but for the purpose of controlled organization.

These two steps, the introduction of effective controls in the corridors where uncontrolled freedom would bring chaos, and the formal organization of groups assembled for physical activities and play have reacted favorably to better behavior throughout the building.

After the elimination of much minor trouble, attention was concentrated upon outstanding offenders, those who defied the requests of teachers, who heaped abuses upon pupils and teachers alike, who left neither purse nor treasure alone, who made classrooms the battle ground for, out of, or in school grievances, who smeared filth over school property, who skipped from class or school habitually, and who otherwise interrupted proper classroom procedure.

Any child, accused of serious misdemeanor, is requested to visit the office, invited to sit down, and asked to review his case in detail, stating what he did and what he did not and in what way accusers have been mistaken. He always is privileged to introduce witnesses and to defend himself in every legal way. He also is given opportunity to admit his guilt.

In many instances the accused offers convincing behavior declarations and is granted a period of probation for proof, but when the case warrants, a request is sent to one or both parents, especially to

the father, to visit our office. When the parent arrives (refusals to come are very rare), testimony is presented, questions raised—sometimes with startling directness—and the matter of curative treatment is discussed openly with all interested parties offering suggestions.

In the management of all cases we trail the high and by ways of pedagogy as long as they take us where we want to go. When these policies or principles get us nowhere or block our pathway, we disregard them and resort to more readily understood methods of persuasion, trusting to the far reaching effects of suggestion and certain publicity for further general improvement. Stinging castigation is not always employed as a remedial agent, but before the conference is completed, an understanding concerning further conduct is agreed upon by child, parent, and principal. Often the attendance officer is present. Before the child is permitted to return to his class, he is required to go to the teacher in whose room the disturbance occurred, and make known to her the type of behavior that may be expected from him. When teacher and pupil are agreed, the case is dropped.

Last year from September to December about 30 cases were discussed with parents. This year, during the first semester, it has been necessary to invite only six parents to settle major difficulties.

Conclusion—The writer does not know that our plan of procedure is the best plan. We do not know how far our attempted correction of outstanding difficulties carries over into out-of-school life. We do know that fewer and fewer cases of serious disobedience are reported to the office, and the general attitude of children toward the authority of teachers has been changed for the better. We have not eliminated all of our troubles and we have been able to do very little by way of removing the cause of many difficulties, but noticeable improvements in behavior throughout the building increases our confidence that we are taking a step in the right direction.

OUR great hope lies in improving the technics and broadening the vision of each principal. Here is where our local, state, and national associations offer immeasurable hope. There are 40,000 of us or more. One in eight of that number is a member of the national department. How long must the few carry the organized work of the many?

PUPIL MORALE AND THE SERVICE POINT SYSTEM

FRANK D. HENDERSON

Principal, Maple School, Seattle, Washington

ONE OF THE REAL PROBLEMS facing every principal at the beginning of the school year is that of putting his school to work. By putting the school to work is meant the cultivation of understanding and goodwill in terms of mutual purposes. Without well defined goals known to both teachers and pupils alike there is little likelihood of developing in the school an atmosphere conducive to work.

Bringing about this unity of purpose is not a simple matter. The mobility of the school population and the changes in the teaching corps are disintegrating movements. At the beginning of the school year many schools find radical changes in the personnel of both teachers and pupils as compared with the close of the previous school year.

The new teachers and the new pupils must be inoculated with the spirit of the school organization in the shortest possible time so that they will not flounder because of isolation. The new teacher particularly, if not made acquainted with the ideals of the school, is apt to build an imaginary barrier about herself and pupils. Such a barrier is often the forerunner of the problem teacher and of uncooperative pupils whose citizenship lead to behavior difficulties. It was a situation of just this kind that caused the writer to develop the "Service Point System" which has proven especially adaptable to the elementary school.

Opportunities for service by pupils—The Service Point System emphasizes "doing for others" as a school ideal. It is a building project for enlisting both teachers and pupils in a cooperative undertaking. The ultimate goal is that of friendly, helpful citizenship. We believe in our school that such an aim can be reached only by daily acts of service to others. As a symbol of unusual progress and self-sacrifice we award the school emblem to pupils. This school emblem can be received only by the Service Point route.

The Service Point System is quite simple of operation.¹ At the beginning of the school year each pupil above the second grade is given a "service booklet" consisting of four pages three inches wide by six inches long. The two inner pages are marked off into 50 squares each. The child's name is written on the front cover of

¹ Described by Worth McClure, *Educational Digest*, September, 1928.

the booklet by the teacher and the booklet remains in the possession of the pupil.

Any child whose school standing is satisfactory and who has free time may apply to any teacher for the opportunity of serving. The work available for the unused time is of many kinds: library work, room service to teachers, athletics, lunchroom, conducting drill groups, work on the school paper, serving milk to underweight pupils, patrolling the school grounds, safety patrol, hall monitors, office work, messenger service, and mimeographing. It will be seen that a wide range of work is offered making it possible for each pupil to find a job that whets his particular interest.

Evaluating the pupil's service—The pupil receive 10 points for each half hour of service, providing that the work is satisfactory. Each square in the booklet counts for 10 points when a teacher's initials are written within the square. For example, a boy in the sixth grade may help a teacher of the first grade and the teacher will record such service by placing his initials in the appropriate number of squares. Since each pupil takes care of his own record booklet the administration procedures are simplified.

Participants on school teams do not receive a school emblem by the route of athletics alone. They are given service points based upon the time given to actual contests. These with sufficient points from other activities are necessary in order to receive the school emblem. We believe these requirements help pupils to take a keener interest in the things that make for the welfare of the school as a whole.

At a general assembly late in the school year a program is given which has "Service" as its central theme. It is at this assembly that the service letters or school emblems for the year are presented by a speaker from the superintendent's office. The pupils look forward to this assembly and strive to be among those decorated.

Flexibility of the plan—The number of service points necessary to win an emblem is not fixed by rule. Instead, the case of each individual is decided upon its own merits in a conference with the roll room teacher. In this way we locate the less assertive child who may not find as many opportunities for service as the others. Pupils who have not received sufficient service points to be awarded a school emblem, retain their booklets until the year following at which time they may accumulate additional points. The fact that the points are cumulative and carry over from year to year tends to put the pupils to work as soon as school opens in the fall.

Summary—The contributions of the Service Point System are many, the most obvious being: the creation of a democratic spirit,

the recognition of different talents, the equalization of opportunities, a decrease in behavior problems, greater school interest, and higher scholarship.

From the standpoint of the principal, the program described above makes for a self-motivated school. It coordinates, unifies, and facilitates the many small routine jobs which would otherwise demand considerable time and energy of the teachers. The teachers assume the roll of directors and delegate responsibility. The competition between the pupils insures that the jobs will be well done.

The pupil is led on to do more and better work, and to assume responsibility. He learns to do a small job well. Who knows but what this above all else, is of first importance to the child? During the past two years the Service Point System has made for higher scholarship among pupils of all grades.

A school organized on this basis readily absorbs the new teachers within the organization because of the unified student body. It is impossible for a room to remain apart from the school. The teachers, relieved of much routine work, are in position to give more attention to actual teaching. The principal is in position to devote a larger portion of his time to supervision.

THE philosophy of good administration in an elementary school is idealistic. The principal believes that there are higher values in life than those which can be mathematically measured. He is therefore content to leave to others the pursuit of the shekels for his search is for ways and means to increase human excellence. His philosophy involves an unwavering faith in the improbability of human nature.—
Susan M. Dorsey, see Chapter II

OUR KNOT HOLE GANG

JOSIE PERKINS

Principal, Avenue A School, Hutchinson, Kansas

FIGHT! FIGHT! FIGHT! A compact mass of boys—an occasional "Hit him!", "I wouldn't let him get away with that!"—and then finally the mass breaks. Two blood-stained and bedraggled youngsters separate themselves from the mass, and drag themselves and their tattered clothing toward home.

The above picture had become a frequent and a familiar one at our school. A mixed population of which negroes and Mexican children made up about 25 percent of the total; an unfortunate location just too near to town to be in the country, and too near to the country to be in town; and the presence within the bounds of the district of three railway switching yards added to the problem.

The defeated boy invariably enlisted the aid of a bunch of boys and the battle was continued after school that evening. A row of empty box cars served admirably as breastworks and the battle raged fiercely. The next day the victor of the first battle had his army ready and then the war was on in earnest. New recruits were added, old recruits often shifted from one side to the other. The series of battles continued and neither side ever seemed to really win. What seemed at first to be a mere scrap between two youngsters became a school problem that baffled principal and teachers.

Then came the day when the armies did not dissolve upon reaching the playground. They kept their organizations in their games and their games gave promise of becoming struggles between the two opposing sides. One army might be designated as policeman and the other as bandits, but the struggle was still apparent. Profane language was a useful weapon that could be hurled here and there without drawing blood or tearing clothes.

One leader, whom we shall call Tony, became especially aggressive and many a small boy who joined the opposing side, not knowing the real significance of his act, suffered the consequences. One day I called Tony into the office for a conference.

"I understand that you have a gang," I said.

"Yes," came the instant reply.

I told him that I should like to see these boys and asked him to bring them in. Within five minutes there was assembled in my office some dozen boys of assorted ages and races, all proudly admitting the leadership of the Mexican boy Tony. I wasted no time in giving them some constructive work to do during the playtime hour

on the grounds. Busily engaged in this they even forgot to stage some of their customary battles behind box cars. The breathing spell gave teachers and principal time to seriously consider the proper method of handling the situation.

The gang—The idea of a "Knot Hole Gang" we borrowed from the city of Lawrence, Kansas. Thinking it would work in our school we began to plan rules and membership. These rules, the pledges, and activities have been several years in the planning and have been changed slightly from time to time to meet the needs. Our organization is active now with the following rules:

Pledge:

1. I promise to be loyal to the Avenue A School by helping in all its activities.
2. I will keep myself clean by not using tobacco or bad language.
3. I will be a good sport.

Eligibility:

1. Any boy regularly enrolled in the fourth, fifth, or sixth grade of the Avenue A School may become a member if meeting the other conditions.
2. He must be passing in all subjects.
3. He must be a good sport on the playground and in the classroom.
4. He must be a positive benefit to his class and to the school. Merely not disobeying rules is insufficient; his class and his school must be better because he is in it.

Membership:

1. The boy is first recommended by his teacher, then approved by the principal. Should some boy wish another's membership he must first get the teacher's approval.
2. Having gained the approval of the teacher and the principal, the name is placed before the Gang for approval. Acceptance by the Gang makes him a member. Should he be refused he is called in and told in what way he has failed to show himself eligible.
3. Once a member, he remains a member throughout his grade school career unless suspended by the group.
4. Should the Gang member commit a serious misdemeanor, or cease to be helpful to his school, his conduct is acted upon by the Gang. He may be given a probationary period, or he may be indefinitely suspended.

Duties and activities:

1. The boys captain and organize playground games at all times.
2. They help keep the playground in order and have police power to bring offenders who have disregarded their warnings to the office.
3. They serve as ushers and general assistants for parent-teacher association programs.
4. They are cashiers for the grade rooms on school savings day.
5. They are reporters, editors and printers of a monthly news sheet called the *Avenue A Sunbeam*.
6. Free admission to all junior high athletic contests is furnished through the courtesy of the junior high schools.

The Four-Square Club—Feeling the need of masculine leadership for outdoor sports we enlisted the aid of our Y. M. C. A. They agreed to send us the boys' secretary for a weekly meeting and arrange one Saturday morning hike per month with definite objec-

tives. This plan has been enlarged until there is an organization in every grade building with weekly meetings and monthly hikes. The name "Four-Square Club" is used since the other buildings of the city do not have Knot Hole Gangs. In our own building the name "Knot Hole Gang" is used. The work is outlined along the lines of Pioneer Club work.

Results—And what has been the result? Was the attempt worthwhile? The old so-called "Outlaw Gangs" have entirely disappeared. Play time is a time of busy participation in games. At present the boys have a baseball series in progress with nine teams participating. Bad language is never heard and smoking is a thing of the past.

Three years ago we organized a parallel club for girls which we called the "Key Hole Girls" in order to use the same emblems. Their work is just the same as for the boys and their emblems are earned with the same requirements. Our next step will probably be the organization of a junior or preparatory group. The younger pupils will work as assistants and become regular members whenever they have attained certain standards of proficiency in leadership.

HAWAII has awakened to the need of closer coordination of the educational facilities of school, home, church, and industry. Educators of our fair isles are accepting more and more the responsibility for dealing with this problem. We are ever desirous of adjusting the school to the community, but we also sincerely hope effectively to use the social heredity of each child in obtaining the fullest growth of individuals.—G. H. Webling, see Chapter XIV

POPULARIZING GOOD CITIZENSHIP

M. R. KIRK

Principal, Wheeler School, Evansville, Indiana

IN TRAINING children for citizenship, the teacher must never lose sight of the fact that the attitude of the child toward good character is the all important factor. It matters little what the teacher's attitude may be; if the child has no interest in the matter, little can be accomplished. He must not only have a desire to be a good citizen, but he must have in mind some definite rules to follow. Good citizenship is an idea that is too abstract for a child in the grades. It must be translated for him into concrete, every day conduct and habits as they are applied in his contact with other children.

Principles of citizenship training—There are three things that are important in the training of children in citizenship. They are (1) a receptive attitude on the part of the child, (2) actual practice of rules and precepts of good conduct, and (3) recognition by the teacher of the child's development.

The first named is by far the most important, for nothing can be taught well without a whole-hearted purpose on the part of the learner. In teaching citizenship, therefore, the first requisite is a desire on the part of the pupil to become a good citizen. The use of any incentive to develop this desire is pedagogically permissible. The story of great men and their accomplishments, rules of conduct, the study of the constitution, patriotic exercises, and various other incentives of like nature will place the child in a receptive mood. He will know that if one is not a good and useful citizen his life can be only a sham and pretense, and that a good citizen is respected and honored. He should know, too, that the school will recognize him as a good citizen when he conducts himself properly. Recognition for him, however, should be tangible and near. A long wait is discouraging. After the child has the motive to deal fairly with other children and with himself, his successful training depends upon the intelligence and ingenuity of the teacher.

The purpose of practically all teaching is to place the student in a position to practise what he has learned. This can be the only purpose in teaching the ideas of good citizenship. Rules, precepts, maxims, adages—all are of great value in making a child forehanded in his ability to meet conditions beyond his experience. However, if they are not to be practised they should not be taught. Like the lessons in good conduct learned from his mother in childhood, the practice of these rules and precepts may grip the child so firmly that he cannot

escape their beneficent influence if he would. These ideas set the standard for his growth. It goes without saying that a child cannot practise anything till he knows what to practise.

It is a source of satisfaction to any one to know that he is making progress in any line of endeavor. It is often difficult, however, to make sure there is progress, for there is no method whereby growth can be definitely measured. This is especially true of progress in the practise of citizenship. Here the child is never sure. He may know he is making some advancement, but he is unable to estimate his rate of development. In this matter he learns to depend almost entirely and implicitly upon the frank and honest judgment of his teacher as shown through conferences and monthly report cards. The estimate of a child's improvement in the growth in citizenship constitutes one of the teacher's great responsibilities.

An example of training in good citizenship—Why not make good citizenship popular? This question propounded by a teacher to a group of teachers and the principal was the first suggestion that brought about the formation of one of the most wholesome and virile organizations that ever existed at our school.

The public schools of Evansville emphasize citizenship training. For years the high schools have demonstrated that children of high school age may govern themselves satisfactorily. The idea of pupil participation in school government has gradually crept down into the grades so that every elementary school has some form of government in which the children have a part. Every child above the fifth grade participates in regular patriotic exercises. He knows the *Star Spangled Banner* and *America* from memory. The flag ritual is given every Monday morning. In this impressive ceremony, he promises, among other things, "not to sell his vote or buy the votes of others."

Every child in the entire school system is graded on 10 points in citizenship. They are: self-control, fair play, helpfulness, industry, courtesy, cheerfulness, loyalty, kindness, reliability, and cleanliness. The grading of the children under the above items becomes a part of the teacher's routine. Rating may be done in a positive, helpful way or in a perfunctory manner, the effect upon the pupil being in proportion to the interest shown by the teacher. The unconcern with which some children accepted their grades provoked the teacher's query in regard to making good citizenship more acceptable to the children.

It was a question, indeed, that challenged the best thought of the teaching corps. What plan could be devised that would make a positive appeal to the children in character building? Many suggestions

were offered. A meeting of the children having excellent citizenship records was held. Here the teachers took up the question with them. Teachers and children together planned an organization which the children later named the W. I. (Wheeler Ideals) League. Membership is limited to those who have all E's (excellent) in citizenship. The election of officers and the management of the meetings are entirely in the hands of the children. The teachers are not present and give no assistance in any way unless requested to do so. "You are good citizens," the children are informed, "therefore you are dependable. You are capable of governing yourselves."

The purpose of this organization is to give recognition to those children who demonstrate through every day living that they meet the requirements set down in their monthly report cards. Sure and quick rewards are granted every child who has an excellent rating in citizenship. The rewards come naturally from the accomplishment. They are publicity, privileges, and responsibilities.

When a child becomes a member of the League the event is considered of so much importance that it is given wide publicity. His name appears on the school bulletin board, in the little school paper, and on the school page of the local Sunday papers. Much is made of his success. The child is called before the officers of the League and the teacher advisors where he is congratulated and given his membership card. In order that the recognition may be sure and speedy, the grades in citizenship are given out twice each month. A month is a long time for a child to wait.

The children are delighted with the privileges that accompany membership in the League. Twice each month they are given their freedom for 30 minutes of school time. There are only two restrictions. They are not to leave the building or grounds, and they are not to disturb the work of others. They usually go to the auditorium for a short business meeting which is followed by a program, often given by some of their own members. They sometimes have adults assist in their programs. Occasionally a moving picture is the attraction. At other times each child is allowed to use the time as he pleases. At that time children may be seen playing on the school grounds, others may be in the library, and a few may chose to remain in the regular classrooms. Each child knows that during this half-hour of freedom the attitude of the teacher will be: "You are a good citizen. We trust you." At the close of each term a picnic is given to all W. I.'s. Here the parents, teachers, and children celebrate together. Needless to say the conduct of the children improves as the picnic day approaches.

One might think that added responsibilities would make little appeal to children. To many, however, this is the most powerful incentive. All monitors and members of the courtesy and housekeeping committees must belong to the League. Membership in the organization is necessary before one can be editor of the school paper, take leading parts in school plays, or accept any class office. Again the spirit of the teacher is known to the child: "You are a good citizen. You are capable of doing things well."

Results and reactions—What of the results of the experiment? In the first place, the children's attention has been concentrated upon character building. They realize more than ever the value of good citizenship. They have learned that they must be good citizens in order to get the best from life, and that the best in life will come to those who give their best. They have learned this, not only through precept, and example, but through actual practice. They have learned in a small way, too, that those who are content with little will get little; that reward will surely come from endeavor; and that the wages of indifference and apathy toward the rights of others is the loss of social standing in the school.

The change in the attitude of the children is indicated by the increase in the number who made all E's in their records as good citizens. At the beginning of the term, when the League was organized, there were 93 children in the school of 500 who had excellent records. At the close of the term 330 were members of the W. I. League. This growth came, too, in spite of the fact that the teachers, realizing that if the organization was to succeed the children must be carefully and honestly graded, were more stringent in their citizenship grading. The growth was gradual. At the end of each period, when the grades were given out, more names were added to the list than were dropped.

The teachers are encouraged and deeply interested in the plan. They are constantly searching for new ideas to make the work more vital. Frequently, the teachers say: "It is a wholesome disciplinary measure," or "It is a character builder," or "The entire school work is improved."

But the teachers were interested in getting the opinions of the children. Pupils were asked to write candidly their estimate of the League. Two hundred papers were written by the children of the fifth to the eighth grades inclusive. The written expressions justified the existence of the League and encouraged the teachers to continue the work of the organization. Each paper, too, was, in a way, an index to the writer's character. Adverse criticisms, in practically

every case, came from non-members, and were usually based upon the assumption that the teachers were unfair in their estimates. The fact that some took the "sour grape" attitude showed that even with them the League has vitality. However, suggestions and criticisms came from members and loyal supporters as well. Following are excerpts which show the general attitude of the children:

You will stand among the highest pupils in your class all through school if you stay on.

Many children have taken interest in the League who never thought of trying for any other club.

Many times I have started to talk and then I would think of the W. I. League and would check myself.

The W. I. League has helped me to better my conduct and I have been getting better grades ever since.

The W. I. League has helped me in my work. It has raised my grade. I take more interest in my school and work.

Since the W. I. League started I take a great deal more interest in my work both at home and in school.

I think it creates a feeling of superiority among some of those who belong.

I think it makes children that are in it feel better than the ones that are not.

I know without a doubt that if some of these people are able to be in it that I should have been in long ago.

The students who have attained the high honor of belonging to the League are more respected by their fellow students and their teachers than those who have not.

I think that the present W. I. creates a feeling of jealousy between members and non-members. But I think that it could be made a very fine organization.

I think some of the teachers aren't honest in marking.

Perhaps someone may be doubtful as to the success of the League because children join for just the good time. However, even if one doesn't have a sense of honor to make him belong, but belongs for the good time, the habit will become so strong that he will eventually do well in spite of himself.

There were outstanding cases. Many children made excellent records who cared nothing for them before. Foolish and ugly habits were broken and good ones substituted. An individual case may be named. Tom was one of the problem cases in the school. Indifferent, indolent, irresponsible—he was a constant source of disturbance. The teachers and principal had used one appeal after another to no avail. Now, however, the appeal did not come from the teachers or principal. Tom beheld a barrier between himself and the children he admired. They were receiving publicity and privileges, and accepting responsibilities that could not be his. He knew that the only way he could join the group was to show by his conduct that he was a desirable member. So his attitude and work underwent a remarkable change. When the membership card was given him, the teachers were incredulous. They felt it was only a "flash in the pan." But the pressure of public opinion was strong, and Tom stayed on. He established better habits and became a useful school citizen.

Conclusion—The above paragraphs set forth the experiment and the results. We believe our plan has value and is a step in the right direction. The teaching of citizenship is the most important and difficult problem that faces the public schools. Only in recent years has it attracted the attention and challenged the best thought of educators. The practical solution must come from trial and experiment with the elementary public school as the laboratory. The obligation is upon the principal. In this great work he must have the hearty cooperation of the teachers and supervisors and the approval and counsel of the superintendent. The principal knows, of course, that whatever policy he may pursue must concern every teacher in his corps. It is not a one teacher task. The *esprit de corps* should be well nigh perfect, and the conditions for the children's growth should be wholesome and invigorating.

It will be worthwhile to repeat the three important things that are necessary in citizenship training. First is the attitude of the child toward good citizenship, the second is the opportunity to practise those traits that make good citizens, and the third is the recognition and reward that come naturally from growth in citizenship.

THE management of the cafeteria is a teaching matter. At our school it was advisable to begin training children to use the cafeteria while they were still in the kindergarten. The teacher took the children to the cafeteria before or after the lunch hour and had them practise passing in the serving line. At Hallowe'en and at Washington's Birthday they decorated the cafeteria with their drawings and cut paper work.—William S. Briscoe, see Chapter VIII

MORALE AND PUPIL GOVERNMENT

FRANK M. FOULKS

Principal, A. L. Cuesta School, Tampa, Florida

THE OBJECTIVE of every principal and his corps of teachers is to make every child contented and happy. It is for him to fix upon the product and then adjust the machinery to the desired end. School men almost universally accept the aims of education as "The formation of correct habits that will function in the child's civilization."

To realize his objective the principal must understand that the factors with which he must deal are four: (1) children, (2) teachers, (3) parents, and (4) community. In all schools, whether one room or many rooms, the basic problems are the same: the discovery of the weakness and the strength of all these factors; the removal of the defects and the growth of good tendencies; and lastly the harmonizing of the four factors so that they will function cooperatively.

Many think the first approach of the principal is through the teachers. Yet, isn't it true that the surest and quickest approach is through the children? Not that the teachers are to be neglected, but the children will pass a more accurate judgment on the principal, and in a far less time, than the teachers.

Accepting the approach through the pupil as the first step in creating pupil morale the principal should enlist children in satisfying and challenging activities. Here, then, is our problem and also our opportunity to create in a large measure the spirit of the school.

Capitalizing the gang spirit—In all of the student organizations these three things must be borne in mind: (1) you are dealing with children, (2) you are forming correct habits, (3) the suggestions should emanate largely from the children. Put the pupils to work, give them some concrete thing to do. If a few are not vitally interested in their school work, the few should be studied till the things in which they are interested are discovered. Then around these interests build their work, their guidance. To discover these interests, you may have to go home with the pupil, invite him to your home, or go on an outing with him.

Sometimes the delinquent boy is a member of a gang, perhaps the leader. We should not get the idea that the gang spirit is essentially bad. It is of the greatest help and yet the greatest danger to the adolescent boy. Let the delinquent boy see you are interested in his gang. Have him bring the members to meet you. Find out how and

where they spend their time. Perhaps the gang can help you and then unconsciously they can be led to do good work. Sometimes organizing them into a club is a great benefit. What they need is something definite to do. School children should be educated in not trained for citizenship. In other words, the doing rather than the knowing should receive the emphasis. For this reason, pupils must be encouraged to carry on civic activities through organizations of their own making.

There are a number of group activities which it is desirable to organize within or about a school. In the conduct of these the different teachers can render much service. Some of the possible activities of this group type are school orchestra and school clubs, *e. g.*, musical, singing, sewing, cooking, canning, hiking, story-telling, civic, and health. Such organizations often mean the adaptation and transformation of the gang spirit.

The Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, and Camp Fire Girls ought to find a place in each school, and some teachers ought to be interested enough to train themselves as scout masters or leaders and take charge. Whether a man or woman principal, few things are likely to give him or her a better hold on the boys and girls than to be familiar with and interested in the Scout work. Other useful organizations of a similar type are familiar to every principal. The opportunities for enlisting service, building up a school morale, and toning up the whole school through the help of these organizations are many and should not be neglected.

School assemblies—Another very important means for assisting in building up a school spirit which will materially aid in the elimination of tardiness, truancy, and disorder is the proper use of the school assembly. The discipline is also made easier, in part by reason of the new interest created, and in part because problems of school control can be discussed with ease before all, and the best side of the pupils' nature appealed to. Little intimate talks on matters of school control, as the need for them arises, will do much to give pupils right conceptions and to bring about the right reaction. The athletic life of the school can be in a large part controlled through the school assembly. Occasional athletic assemblies may be held, before some inter-school contest or after some big victory, in which the pupils will formulate their conduct and explain team-work. Praise for sportsmanlike conduct and for gameness and fairness in play, rather than for victories won goes a long way in creating proper attitudes.

Make the instruction good—The improvement of teaching technique is one of the best means for improving order and discipline. A busy school is almost sure to be an interested and an easily-controlled school. If the teachers are not very capable, it is especially important that the principal give careful attention to this factor. Through helpful suggestions, teachers meetings, and selected reading, he must gradually build up not only the technical skill of his teachers, but a professional pride in what they are doing well.

Monitorial service—We can make use of the surplus energy of the pupils, and especially of the more troublesome ones, in performing all kinds of little services about the school. This is a step toward building up school spirit and warding off trouble. Pupils can render such services as assisting the teachers about the rooms, distributing and collecting papers, opening windows, checking room attendance, raising the school flag, managing the signals, policing street-control traffic, managing the school bulletin board, oversight of the little ones on the playground, and handling accidents. The pupils enjoy looking after such matters and regard their selection as an honor.

The playground games—Athletics offer large opportunities to a principal and teachers to organize the older boys and girls in a way that will develop leadership. Often an incipient school tough may be made into a useful school citizen by designating him as an assistant playground director. For example, a principal of one of the Miami elementary schools had his attention called to the disturbance given by a certain boy to one of the churches in the city. The boy was given responsibilities and a little later was placed in charge of the scout patrol. He has since become a leader among the boys and acted as scout master while the principal attended the summer school.

Other incidents could be related to show how teachers can become the intimates of boys who are potential toughs. Usually, the approach is through games in which standards of fair play and sportsmanship can be developed. With patience a gang's attitudes can become fixed upon more wholesome things. The writer has in mind now how a teacher redirected a "Dirty Dozen" in the manner described above.

In the games which are played, and especially the inter-school games, many opportunities for development and expression of a school spirit and school loyalty are provided. To work off the surplus energies of a school in hard active play is a good way to shut off trouble. There exist in every school teachers who are willing to direct the play and games of the pupils.

Building of school support—The principal must act as interpreter to the people of his community of the larger policies that the super-

intendent of schools and the Board of Education are trying to put in force for the city as a whole.

There should be a number of opportunities during the school year when the parents may come and see to advantage the work of the school. These special events include (1) school visitation days, (2) special programs, and (3) annual exhibits.

The policies of the school and the school system ought to be explained to the parent-teacher association that their support may be enlisted. In the last analysis it is public opinion, that controls and limits school progress, and the parent-teacher associations are potent influences in the formation of public opinion.

Character education—It would be well to take 10 desirable character traits and weave them into the pupils' organization activities, and incidently in the routine work of the school. A suggested list includes such traits as: reliability, obedience, industry, self-control, social attitudes, judgment, punctuality, initiative, personal habits, and thrift. Divide the teachers into committees to define these character traits in terms of children understanding. There may be as many as 12 requirements for reliability, 14 for industry, 17 for judgment, and so on.

Having determined the 10 character traits in terms the child can understand, seek through club activities, routine work, and otherwise to educate in citizenship. It is the doing rather than the knowing that makes a child a good citizen.

The principal sees the school as a little democracy in which pupils are responsible members. Here children are being assisted in living to the fullest their many life experiences. To do this the principal must know individual children by following them up directly or indirectly through good teachers. Each teacher can make a list of her problem cases. It then becomes the principal's special business to study each pupil and to enlist him in constructive service to the school.

Pupil government—School morale depends much on the amount of self-government delegated to the pupils. At the Cuesta School we have developed a pupil government which has been reasonably effective. Our constitution and rules are given in the next section.

CONSTITUTION

ARTICLE I. NAME AND PURPOSE

Section 1—This organization shall be known as The Student Government of A. L. Cuesta Public School.

Section 2—The purpose shall be to give pupil support to good ideas in school control, to promote a right attitude toward our fellow pupils, our teachers and our

school, to make suggestions for the improvement of the school, and to reprimand or help those pupils who have not yet imbibed the school spirit for good active citizenship.

ARTICLE II. SCHOOL COUNCIL

Section 1—There shall be a Student Council consisting of two representatives, a boy and a girl, from each room of the fourth, the fifth, and the sixth grades, the representatives to be elected by their own room. Any lower grade room will be entitled to representation if such room has five or more pupils ten or more years old.

Section 2—There shall be on the council as ex-officio members the heads of Athletic Clubs, of Boy Scouts, of Girl Scouts, and Girl Reserves; also captains general and the chairmen of the various committees.

ARTICLE III. NAMES, NUMBER, AND QUALIFICATIONS OF STUDENT OFFICERS

Section 1—The officers shall be president, vice-president, secretary, and two sergeants-at-arms. They shall be elected at the beginning of each semester.

Section 2—In nominating candidates for office, preference shall be given to pupils possessing good qualities of character such as unselfishness, courtesy, loyalty, truthfulness, kindness, consideration for others, etc.

Section 3—A boy and a girl shall be appointed by the principal as captains general for the building and a boy and a girl captains general for the grounds.

ARTICLE IV. ELECTION OF OFFICERS

Section 1—On the first Friday of each semester one boy and one girl for representatives on the council shall be nominated from each of the fourth, the fifth, and the sixth grade rooms and such other rooms as are entitled to representation. On the following Monday the different rooms shall hold an election to elect two candidates, one a boy, the other a girl to represent the room on the council.

Section 2—The term of office of all members of the council shall be for one semester.

ARTICLE V. DUTIES OF OFFICERS

Section 1—The president shall preside at all meetings of the council. He (or she) shall have power to appoint the members of committees and shall fill all vacancies on the committees. He (or she) shall be ex-officio member of all committees.

The president shall call council meetings once a month and shall have power to call extra meetings when necessary.

Section 2—The vice-president shall act in the absence of the president, or at the request of the president.

Section 3—The secretary shall keep the minutes of the meeting of the council and performs such other duties pertaining to the office.

Section 4—The sergeant-at-arms shall keep order in the meetings and see that no unnecessary interruptions occur.

Section 5—Captains general shall with the help of assistants, known as captains, regulate the passing of pupils up and down the stairways and rear entrance for pre-primary children.

The captains general for building shall take over the supervision of building from 8:30 to 9 A. M. and for a short period immediately following the dismissal of school.

The captain general must keep an accurate account of all offenses which he is unable to settle out of court and give a list of offenders to the principal before

the committee consisting of the principal and captains general of the building and the captains general of the grounds sit as a court.

The captains general shall have power to call meetings of the captains to try to settle cases out of court.

They shall call meetings of the captains occasionally to talk over means of improving the lines and the conduct in halls, basement, and lunch room. The captains general shall call on the teachers for as many assistants known as captains as they deem necessary.

Section 6—Captains shall be assigned for duty to handle the hallways, basement, and toilets; to look after the lines and protect property from damage.

They shall give the captains general the names of all pupils against whom charges have been brought.

They shall attend all meetings called by the captains general.

The captains shall serve for a period of two weeks.

The hall captains, a boy and a girl shall be scheduled for duty on each floor for a period of two weeks. They shall take their places in the halls at 8:30 A. M. and 12:30 P. M. and for 30 minutes shall be responsible for order in the halls.

Captains for the basements will also serve at 8:30 and 12:30 for 30 minutes each period.

Captains of lunch room shall be on duty from 12:30 to 1:00.

The captains of lines shall take charge of their respective lines when the first bell rings at 8:57 A. M. and 12:57 P. M. and see that the children go out of the building in an orderly manner, and at dismissal take charge and conduct them to the walk.

The Boy Scouts, the Girl Scouts, and Girl Reserves shall take over the playgrounds, care for apparatus, supervise the games, collect any information asked for by the principal, look up absentees, and protect property from damage.

The principal shall appoint captains general from among the above organizations to serve in a similar capacity to captains general of the building.

With the assistance of the principal, the captains general shall appoint, consisting of three members, the following: clean-up squad, good behavior squad, go home squad, and athletic squad.

ARTICLE VI. MEETINGS

Section 1—Regular meetings of the council shall take place on the first Friday of the school month.

Section 2—Special meetings may be called by the president at any time considered necessary.

Section 3—The order of meetings shall be as follows: Call to order, the minutes of last meeting read, reports of committees, reports of officers and representatives, unfinished business, new business.

Section 4—At the regular council meeting each representative must make a report on the following: (1) traffic in and out of the room, (2) student application, (3) good housekeeping, (4) number of cases of tardiness, (5) percent of attendance, (6) good behavior, and (7) things of special interest such as projects, etc.

A checking committee will assemble these different reports, place them in a table for comparison, and furnish each room with a copy.

Such reports possessing superior merit will be published in the *Cuesta Courier*.

Section 5—The room representatives must attend all meetings of the council.

ARTICLE VII. MISCELLANEOUS PROVISIONS

Section 1—The following committees may be needed: order, basement, clean-up, constitution, etc.

Section 2—If any member of a committee does not fulfill his part in the work, the president shall have power to appoint a new member to take his place.

Section 3—The room representatives in conjunction with the home room teacher shall for all offenders at their room sit as a court, passing judgment for light offenses and referring the more serious to the court committee who shall sit in judgment.

Section 4—There shall be a reporter chosen from the council who shall report after each meeting to the lower grades on matters of any importance to these grades.

BY-LAWS

I. LAWS RELATING TO SEVERAL ROOMS.

1. Each room shall assist the student council having for its purpose to help the individual members to be responsible for good order and efficiency in school work.

2. Each room shall have officers for the following:

- (a) Traffic in and out of the room
- (b) Student application
- (c) Good housekeeping
- (d) Good behavior
- (e) Cases of tardiness
- (f) Cases of non-attendance

(The term for room officers shall be four weeks and officers shall be appointed by teacher of the room.)

3. Children shall be orderly in the room when the teacher is absent.

4. It will be in no way considered tattling for pupils to make reports to the teacher concerning disorder.

5. If the teacher reports to the court committee that a child has been dismissed from classes, or has been disorderly on the school grounds or on the way to or from school, it will be considered an offense and the offender must appear before the court committee.

6. There shall be no gum chewing or throwing of any articles such as shot, paper wads, chalk, tin foil, or similar articles in the classrooms.

7. There shall be no sliding down any banister in or out of the school building.

8. Politeness shall be cultivated by children in the classroom, both in action and conversation.

9. Pencils shall be sharpened only by the permission of the teacher.

10. Children passing to and from rooms shall do so as quietly as possible and shall keep to the right.

11. While waiting for classes to be dismissed pupils shall stand to the right of classroom door and keep passage in front of the door clear.

12. Children shall not enter classroom while classes are reciting or until classes are dismissed.

13. Cleanliness shall be observed in the Cuesta School as follows:

- (a) Paper shall be kept off of the floor in all parts of the building.
- (b) Chalk shall be kept off of the floor.
- (c) The blackboard shall not be used except when it is necessary.
- (d) The top of our desks shall be cleared when we are not using them.
- (e) The inside of our desks shall be kept in order.
- (f) There shall be no marking on any of the walls.

II. LAWS RELATING TO THE HALLS, STAIRWAYS, AND LINES OF MARCH.

1. Children may enter the building when the first bell rings.

2. There must be not more than a low conversational voice while passing through the halls.

3. All children must leave the building and grounds immediately after their final dismissal unless special permission is obtained or in case of school function in the school building.

4. Good order must be kept in the basement. The passageways must not be used as playing places.
5. There must be no loafing in the basement.
6. The time spent in the basement between classes must not be over five to eight minutes.

III. LAWS RELATING TO THE SCHOOL GROUNDS.

1. Children who play on the grounds after 3:00 p. m. must have their parents consent and shall play at their own risk.
2. Children shall not ride bicycles on the school grounds between the hours of 8:30 a. m. and 3:00 p. m. on school days.
3. Children shall not play on the fire escapes.
4. Children shall not climb upon the ledge under the windows of the school building.
5. Children shall not dust erasers on the building, nor mark building with chalk, charcoal, or crayolas.
6. Children must be orderly at the water fountains and in the toilets.
7. No rubbish shall be thrown on the school grounds.
8. There shall be no throwing of stones or other missiles.
9. There shall be no breaking of shrubbery.
10. There shall be no fighting on the school grounds.
11. All wheels are to be placed in racks.
12. All children are to remain away from wheels which do not belong to them; and no wheel is to be removed from the rack without permission of the owner.

IV. LAWS RELATING TO THE SCHOOL PAPER.

1. The principal shall call a meeting of interested children some time during the first two weeks of each school year to choose officers to take charge of the *Cuesta Courier*.
2. The officers shall be:
 - (a) Editor-in-chief and an assistant.
 - (b) Associate editors for News, Sports, Scouts, and Jokes.
 - (c) Circulation manager.

Conclusion—School morale is a problem requiring cooperation between pupils, teachers, parents, community, and principal. The responsibility for initiating the harmonizing efforts belongs wholly with principal. He may attempt to bring school morale by starting with teachers or parents, but the above discussion recommends an approach through the pupils. On the other hand, the adult factors must receive due attention. At the Cuesta School all factors receive attention through such means as the playground, pupil government, supervision of instruction, individual child study, athletics, pupil monitorial assignments, community contacts, school visiting days, and assemblies.

THE SELF-DIRECTED FACULTY

FLORENCE PARIS

Principal, School 65, Buffalo, New York

IF WE ARE to insist on a higher professional preparation by teachers, the principal must prepare the way by organizing the school so as to allow the faculty a feeling of freedom. Why have a "self-directed" school from the pupil standpoint only? The teaching staff must also feel that their organization is democratic, progressive, and mobile. It is with the idea of developing this type of organization that the following scheme was worked out.

Teachers' committees—We started with three committees: financial, social, and educational. The fourth, a fellowship committee, was added at the request of the teachers. At the last faculty meeting in June, the chairman for each committee is elected, and a study topic for the following year is decided upon. In early September the chairmen of the committees meet and decide upon the members for each committee for the year.

The financial committee takes charge of the lunch fund (we have no cafeteria); collects the money, pays the help, makes schedules of the teachers who shall take charge of menus, and arranges the lunches for the faculty meetings. The financial committee also audits the school fund raised by entertainments, picture shows, and other schemes. Frequently, a large sum at the first of the year disappears rapidly under constant demands and raises the question: "Where does it all go?" The financial committee is ready to answer that question at any time.

The social committee plans parties, picnics, and good times. The more lively members of the faculty instead of complaining that "our school is dead" go the social chairman and ask, "When is the next party?" It is always possible to start something. Decorations at the regular lunch table for Hallowe'en, Valentine's day, the day before a holiday, or for a person who is going on a trip or who has returned from an absence break into the routine of school life and establish a friendly spirit. When there is a picnic this committee arranges for cars and sees that the new people are looked after.

A fellowship committee was added when some system was needed to remember sick members of the faculty, buy wedding presents, and look after the etiquette of the school. This committee has standardized much of its work, *e. g.*, flowers are sent after a week's illness and a stated amount is contributed for gifts.

The chairman of the educational committee has the largest job. Regular meetings are held after school on the third Monday of each month. The teachers know that this date is to be kept open, the meetings are about one hour long and no work having to do with the administration of the school is allowed to take the time of this meeting. Light refreshments are served while the teachers are assembling. This informal party uses little time, but has a great social and psychological value. At the first meeting in September the teachers raise questions that they would like to have discussed at the meetings of the year. This meeting is not so impromptu as it would seem because the topic was selected in June, and the chairman of this committee has sent a notice to the teachers asking them to be ready with their questions. The questions are written on the board, they are combined, added to, and some are eliminated. Finally they are arranged in logical order and divided into eight programs. If a teacher is especially interested in some topic he may ask for it, otherwise the questions are assigned by lot. Each teacher receives a topic for individual study.

At the close of the year each teacher has prepared a topic and has had the benefit of the discussion of the others. He has practised technic in looking up material and has developed his confidence by presenting it to a critical audience. During the research, books are discovered worth adding to the school library and the recommendation of the reader increases the likelihood of the book being read. The primary, intermediate, and grammar school teachers present their points of view thus increasing a sympathetic understanding of each other's problems. Sometimes when the question is one of method the group will discuss various methods and finally come to an understanding and accept one for the whole school. In this way the children are less confused and there is no duplication of work by the teachers.

The general topic for study for this year is character education. Specific topics by the month are as follows:

November

- How to develop cooperation in schoolroom
- How to develop courtesy in schoolroom
- How to develop honesty in schoolroom
- Physical growth; its effect on intelligence
- Health habits as related to intelligence

December

- Sympathy; its relation to the classroom
- How to encourage leadership in children
- Christmas spirit; its opportunity for character development
- Art: its relation to character building
- Efficiency and industry

January

- Motor habits
- Sensory habits
- Stubbornness; how to treat it
- How to develop habits of punctuality, neatness, and obedience

February

- Special disabilities and remedies
 - Sensory and motor
 - Reading
 - Spelling
 - Arithmetic

March

- Inferiority and superiority complexes
 - What and how adjusted
 - Phobias (fears)
- Defense reactions
- Delusions and worries

April

- (No topics arranged)

May

- Special Schools
 - Winnetka
 - Gary
 - Dalton
 - Mckinder
 - Berkeley

Value of committees to the principal—Teacher committees force the principal to study, for teachers come for suggestions as to texts, organization of material, periodicals, and references. Sometimes unsolved and controversial problems are turned over to the principal for more light. At the close of the discussion the chairman of the educational committee may ask the principal for further suggestions. Since teachers' papers are well prepared the principal is kept "on his toes" to see that he has something to give.

The chairman of each committee is the person best informed as to the work of that committee. If there is any question or some misunderstanding he feels free, by virtue of his position, to come directly to the principal. On the other hand, the principal may approach these chairmen with puzzling questions, and receive a much franker answer than can be obtained from an individual teacher.

In my experience the committee system of organizing the faculty has developed a freer spirit and a better understanding in the school. When the principal has won the confidence of his faculty he is in position to launch an effective supervisory program.

SETTING UP FACULTY STANDARDS AND OBJECTIVES

LENORE JONES

Principal, Yerby School, Mobile, Alabama

EFFECTIVE supervision depends on the establishment of rapport between principal and teachers. All must feel that they are working for the same end. There needs to be an atmosphere of cooperation, mutual respect, and unquestioned friendliness.

Friendliness at meetings—A well-planned faculty meeting is of value in setting up standards and objectives. If held in the school building before the regular classroom work has been started its influence can be felt throughout the year. At the first meeting the new teachers are made acquainted with those who have been in the building in previous years. A committee of teachers to serve tea or other light refreshments can do much to break down any barrier of restraint.

After a few minutes spent in friendly conversation, the meeting should be called to order by the principal. The purpose of the meeting is stated and the teachers are urged to consider themselves members of a discussion group. In all probability the reorganized faculty will consist of teachers transferred from other city schools, beginners entering the profession from training schools, and former members of the faculty. All types will be interested in discovering or even changing the school's policy. Therefore, opportunities should be given for suggestions which benefit the majority. When suggestions call forth lengthy debate, or are of limited interest, they should be kept for another meeting, or for a private interview with the principal.

The teachers agree on standards and aims—At the first meeting each teacher should be presented with a copy of the rules and regulations of the school board. If possible, teachers should receive mimeographed instructions of routine nature which apply to his particular school, such as

1. Directions for fire drills.
2. Rules for rainy-day recesses
3. Suggestions for classes filing to the lunchroom
4. Helps for a substitute teacher
5. Directions for obtaining reference books from the school library
6. Directions for keeping certain school records
7. The general outline of the school's student government scheme
8. The teacher rating scale used in the system
9. Schedules for
 - a. Faculty meetings
 - b. Yard duty

- c. Use of music room
- d. Use of the playground
- e. Use of physical education equipment

The rules should not be read at this meeting. Teachers may study the directions so as to ask questions at the meeting held the following day after the dismissal of classes. The back of the mimeographed booklet should provide several blank pages for notes, which will be helpful to each teacher or to substitute teachers who may be called upon later.

Next, the teachers set up the objectives for each month. We find that determining in advance certain goals for both teaching and supervision, much of the teacher embarrassment during classroom visits can be done away with. The big task set for the year was improvement of oral reading. In addition, the monthly points of emphasis were as follows:

First month: manners, pupil conduct

Second month: classroom mechanics, writing, housekeeping

Third month: reading, project work in geography and history

Fourth month: health, citizenship

Fifth month: arithmetic, number concepts

Sixth month: remedial work as revealed by the mid-term tests

Seventh month: language, spelling

Eighth month: intensive work with children who so far have not made passing grades, checking on minimum essentials for each grade

Ninth month: reading, festival as culmination of year's work.

The principal suggests standards—After the meeting has agreed upon the objectives of the year the former members of our faculty are permitted to leave the meeting. Frequently, they remain to hear the principal's suggestion to the new teachers.

The principal's chief purpose is to give the teachers the administrative viewpoint along certain lines of classroom management. This explanation helps the teachers to know the standards used in judging their work.

In the supervision of classes the writer has found it of great help to have a notebook in her desk. After a visit to a room items are noted in the privacy of the office, which the writer feels should be mentioned to the teacher. The notes include both the good things the teacher had done and thing he might better have left undone. With these items in mind, the writer has worked out with the help of articles and books on pedagogy, certain guiding principles and standards. These notes are shared with teachers so that our thinking and working may the more easily be along the same channels. Some excerpts from my blank book are as follows:

NOTES WRITTEN BY A PRINCIPAL

1. *First impressions.*

Teachers and principals must at all times be ready and pleased to welcome school officials, parents, and other visitors. As a casual visitor enters a classroom, what are two of the outstanding features that he observes? While he may not observe methods of teaching he will always note:

a. Does he see a happy, busy, polite group of workers—both teacher and pupils? (discipline or social control)

b. Does he see a bright, cheerful, attractive room? (good housekeeping)

As a supervisor enters a room he might well say, "How can I listen to what you say when what you are speaking so loudly?" How can one observe good methods of teaching, if pupils are disorderly and the room is poorly cared for? Try as a supervisor will, he still feels compelled to do some of the "inspectorial" type of supervision.

2. *Discipline.*

Without good discipline not much really good teaching goes on.

Discipline is best thought of as social control.

The ideal to strive for, is a school where all the pupils work quietly, politely and in a business-like manner, where each class is a self-controlled class.

"Freedom is never a gift. It must always be earned." Our children are to have as much freedom as they can earn, no more and no less.

If we take care of the little things in discipline, there will be no big things to take care of.

The children must realize that the teacher has authority which he uses wisely. Children must develop genuine respect for authority.

It is important that people learn to obey. In most cases they must know reasons for their obedience. Obedience through fear or force is obedience on the lowest plane.

A teacher should make but few rules. Once a rule is made there should be strict obedience to it.

It is best to work always for cooperation in group control.

If a teacher gives a command, as he must in using a standardized test, such as "Pencils down" or "Stop" he should expect immediate obedience and should get the proper response from each member.

The teacher must have definite ideals of conduct in his own mind before he can expect his pupils to have these ideals.

Discipline is often won or lost in the first few days of school, sometimes in the first hour of the first day. A teacher should see that he has good order during the first school days even if the lessons must move at a slow rate.

True discipline is only true politeness. It means holding in respect the school and school property, teachers, and companions.

A well taught school is usually an orderly school. This is why some principals in their supervision lay such stress upon discipline. Where there exists an excellent teacher-pupil relationship, there will be but little unnecessary noise or aimless moving about by pupils. Where teacher and pupils seem to be *living* together happily and busily there the principal is almost sure to find excellent teaching going on. In that room lessons are usually begun with vigor and dispatch, each member is busy during the entire period, with extra work when the regular work is finished. There develops a feeling of responsibility on the part of each member for the success of all.

3. *Punishment.*

It is wiser to try to remove the cause of disorder than to punish for it.

It should be remembered that we do not punish as a penalty for a bad act.

We punish to make conduct better, to prevent the happening a second time of the same bad act.

It is quite disagreeable to a principal to have his office continually considered a whipping post, or to have teachers constantly referring cases of discipline

to him for correction. A teacher should administer his own discipline as far as possible. He should be resourceful, for it weakens his position to have another do his correcting for him. He should talk over cases with the principal in order to get advice, or to find out if what he did was the best thing under the circumstances.

When punishment is needed it should be administered with vigor.

The child must see that his wrongdoing merited the punishment which he received. He must suffer the natural consequences when he breaks any law. Punishment should cause the child some real discomfort.

A teacher should always avoid the use of threats. Punishment is more effective when it comes as a surprise.

Some teachers write children's names on the board whom they intend to "keep in" later. If it is necessary to write the pupil's name, it is better as a general practice to do so on a piece of paper and say nothing at the time.

In correcting a child it is better never to tell a pupil the same thing twice. Some teachers get poor response because they talk too much. "John, put your pencil down." "John, I said put your pencil down." "John I have already told you twice to put your pencil down." A look or the nod of the head is all some teachers need to use.

Successful work by a happy group of children is done without punishment. They discipline themselves and become a self-controlled class.

4. *Good Housekeeping.*

a. General room appearance

The appearance and arrangement of the school room has much to do with good teaching. A schoolroom should resemble, in many respects, a living room in a good home.

What sort of atmosphere does a well ordered room have? Does it have a neglected pile of books in a dusty corner? A vase of dead flowers? Soiled, water-spotted and faded pictures? Worn drill cards? Or is it a place that shows love, care, time, and thought? Is it a place that children are proud of and are eager and happy to be in? Should a good schoolroom be colorless, stern, and unattractive, or should it be bright, cheerful, and inviting?

The care and attention given to a classroom advertises very distinctly the mood, attitude, and state of mind of the teacher and pupils in that room.

A disorderly room proclaims by its appearance, hopelessness and lack of system quite as much as a neat, attractive room indicates energy, vigor and hopefulness.

b. Pictures

In a class room there should be but few pictures on the walls at a time and these large enough to be seen across the room. It is fine if a teacher has a large selection of pictures, but these should be displayed, a few at a time, in proper season with the pupils helping to select which pictures to use and the best place to hang them.

A picture looks best when the wire by which it is hung does not show. If a wire must be used, two wires from the molding in parallel lines are better than one in an inverted V shape.

Children like pictures which show action, are bright in color, and are suitable to their age and interests.

c. Plants

One healthy, well-cared for potted plant is better than a half dozen sickly, neglected ones growing in all sorts of containers.

If potted plants are placed on window sills or reading tables a piece of glass or wood should be placed under them so that sills or table are not damaged by moisture.

d. Bowls and vases

A bowl of gold fish adds interest and color to a room. Children can easily learn the proper care of the fish.

It is well for a teacher to have stored in his cabinet at least six vases or bowls for flowers. These should be of varying sizes, shapes, and colors so that children may choose the most suitable containers for their gifts and flowers.

An empty milk bottle, paste jar, or pickle bottle used to hold flowers shows but little interest or æsthetic taste on the part of the teacher.

e. Decorations

As soon as a holiday is over, all decorations should be removed. It is sad to go into a room in April and find drawings of Christmas trees still serving as a wall border.

In a good home do the owners paste pictures on the walls or window panes? As we live in our classrooms, let us not teach any methods of interior decoration that we can not recommend using in our pupils' homes.

The best place to display pupils' work is on the bulletin board.

Each classroom should have a bulletin board so placed that small groups of children may gather round it for the study of clippings, small pictures, and samples of classroom work. A committee of pupils can care for the bulletin board and see that it is kept up to date.

f. The reading table

In each classroom there should be a library table and chairs of comfortable height and size. The attractiveness of this table is enhanced by the neatness and arrangement of the books, and by the aid of a small bowl of gold fish, or a vase of flowers, or potted plant.

g. The teacher's desk

The teacher's desk, both on top and inside, should be the model of neatness he wishes his pupils to attain.

A neatly kept, bright, cheerful room has more effect upon children and all that they do than most teachers realize. It is a powerful channel for indirect teaching. To a supervisor it indicates that there is in that room an alert, interested teacher who loves his work and is in earnest about it.

h. The teacher as a person

What are some of the underlying causes by means of which a teacher attains and keeps a well-ordered and a well-kept school room? His own health has much to do with it. Success as a teacher is attained with more ease when the teacher is feeling physically fit and is in a good humor.

A low but firm tone of voice is one of the best means of securing group control.

One reason young teachers are tired at the end of the day is because they have wasted their energy in needless and fruitless motions of hands and body. Teachers should try to avoid such mannerisms as the rolling of a piece of chalk in the hands, the shoving back of the hair, or playing with a string of beads, ties, and the like.

The test of a successful day is to find one's self at four in the afternoon almost as eager and energetic as at the beginning of the day. This condition obtains when there has been normal, natural, true living together of teacher and class.

Worry, not work, is what wears on teachers. It is fretting, hurrying unduly, and habitually finding fault with everything connected with their work that causes frayed nerves and depleted energy at the end of the term.

A teacher's personal appearance is, in a large measure, indicative of his mental and physical health, and affects his teaching. To feel well-groomed and suitably dressed increases self-respect.

Teachers cannot well afford to wear to the classroom extreme styles.

Children like to see their teachers well dressed; they tire of seeing the same clothing worn day after day.

Summary—A friendly faculty meeting, held in the school building before the regular classroom work starts, helps both teachers and principal in the work of the entire year.

When teachers set up objectives and standards, the classroom visits and discussions which follow can be made more impersonal. This plan does much to eliminate the self-consciousness of teachers when a supervisor visits them.

If a teacher wishes visitors and supervisors to enjoy his work and think well of it, two things are prerequisite: (1) a room where the children are working and *living* happily with their teacher; and (2) a room where neatness, loving care, and thoughtfulness are evident. Most important foundation stones upon which to build successful classroom work are the health and happiness of the teacher.

ORTHOPEDIC children were usually found to be difficult because of their infirmities and the subsequent tendency to keep them in the background. It was our belief that placement with normal children might overcome this feeling of inferiority and help in the first social adjustments.—Jessie M. Shedd, see Chapter VII.

TEACHER RATING AS AN ADMINISTRATIVE FUNCTION

GERTRUDE B. HAMMOND

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GRADES VARY according to the personal equation. Principals in Los Angeles are actively concerned with grades. They must meet with the inevitable reaction of parents to pupils' marks as given out by their teachers and they face the regular quarterly rating of all teachers under their supervision. Between the grades for academic progress, which are handed out periodically, often frankly discussed, and compared, not only by children, but by the parents themselves, and the marks of teachers for professional achievement, given by principals and superintendents (and in most cases known only to them), there is an unexplainable difference. No teacher would attempt to administer a class, with her pupils carrying the handicap of not knowing their teacher's estimate of their individual progress. With just as much truth does a principal handicap school morale by withholding from his teachers objective estimates of the strengths and weaknesses found in their particular work.

Supervisory and administrative rating—Perhaps a discussion of school organization, as the principal of the modern school sees it, will clarify this assertion. The principal is leader, and by this accident, not only directs the work, but passes upon it. The teachers, as co-workers, are putting into effect the policies of the school, and without cooperation on their part, the principal's vision of the work could not be realized. The principal needs his teachers with him, not only in actual performance, which might be perfunctory, but in understanding and sympathy. The latter qualities require frank and impartial discussion. The result of this discussion, with a teacher having a proper amount of self-respect, will be that he makes an inventory of his virtues and faults, strives to correct his faults, and to bring out the characteristics acknowledged to be found wanting. To go further into this thought would bring us into another field,¹ "Supervision," while our topic holds us to the field of "Administration." The question is: Can teacher-rating be a means of improving administration, which is the prerequisite for supervision?

The *secret* rating upon a general basis cannot affect faculty morale. In most cases, the mark is but an estimate, arrived at through general impression; all too frequently, the mark is high or low, according to the harmony or conflict of personalities. Using this general scale,

¹ Discussed fully in the "Principal as a Supervisor," *Research Bulletin*, National Education Association, November, 1929.—*Editorial Committee*.

the conscientious principal is fearful of eventual disappointment in the marks given, for the reason that in rating a teacher, "who is personality plus accomplishment," there are so many items that enter in to make up the total.

Holding the feeling that a mark arrived at by general estimate would work an injustice upon teacher or principal, this one of the administrative acts came to be actually dreaded. Rating scales of all kinds were examined as criteria for arriving at a fair grade. Finally, about three years ago, the situation was met indirectly in the course of "the day's work," and because it has proven effective in this particular instance, it is passed on to others. Since having arrived at a concrete basis for judgment, we have had the assurance that the final grade, or general average, obtained by weighing carefully the relative merits of the one graded, is a just one, and strengthened by this belief,

FIGURE 1.—TEACHER-EFFICIENCY RATING CARD FOR TEACHERS IN SERVICE

JUDGE THE TEACHER'S EFFICIENCY BY:

A. INSIGHT INTO THE SCHOOL'S FUNCTION as manifested by the relative amount of emphasis placed upon various phases of the work.

Exceptional High Sufficient Low Meagre

B. COMMAND OF THE SUBJECT-MATTER as manifested by her application of English, writing, arithmetic, history, geography, etc.

Decidedly High Above Usual Below Decidedly Low

C. SKILL IN INSTRUCTION as manifested by the pupil's accomplishment in acquiring knowledge, skills and ideals, appreciation and attitudes.

Markedly Superior Excellent Good Fair Markedly Inferior

D. EFFECTIVENESS IN CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT as manifested by pupil-participation, and teacher-housekeeping, individual adjustment, discipline.

Exceptional Excellent Good Fair Questionable

E. ABILITY AND WILLINGNESS TO COOPERATE as manifested by the relation existing with pupils, associates, superiors, and others.

Unlimited Above Average Limited Slight

F. CAPACITY FOR WORK as manifested by vigor in mind and body, good eyesight and hearing, good voice, and the habit of industry.

Maximum Above Normal Below Minimum

G. DESIRE FOR PROGRESS as manifested by systematic reading, professional study, association membership, writings and experiments.

Very Decided Self-Evident Mediocre Little Unapparent

Date..... Rater..... Position.....

INSTRUCTIONS TO RATER:

Your opinion of the teacher's rank with respect to any given item, is noted by a check on the line provided to represent by its length the TOTAL POSSIBLE RANGE of standing from highest to lowest. The check may be placed *anywhere* along the line to indicate the teacher's relative standing.

we are able to proceed with the courage born of mutual understanding between teacher and principal.

A state-wide survey—In June 1926, to aid in a survey being conducted by the state teacher-training institutions of California, principals were asked to mark certain of the graduates of these institutions who were teaching in their respective schools. Figure 1 is a copy of the card upon which the estimate was to be made, the check to be indicated on a "sliding" scale, the adjective qualifying the service (as found beneath the line) to be used as an aid to the rater in formulating his judgment. Emphasis was placed upon this point, "In placing the check, it is the distance from the *extremes* that must be considered."

Because of the comprehensive scope of the items upon which the rating was to be made, the card was accompanied by an instruction sheet, describing each item, giving sub-heads which were to be inferred as elements included under the general item. This instruction sheet, even more than the card, supplied the concrete basis which the writer had been searching for as a guide in teacher-rating. A copy of the rating card, together with the qualities enumerated by the committee as belonging under the larger items, was made for the bulletin board; later it was taken down to be made into a bulletin for each teacher, and a teachers' meeting given over to discussion. The summary handed out to the teachers included the following items:

ITEMS TO BE CONSIDERED IN USING FIGURE 1.

- A. *Insight into the school's function:* (Exceptional, high, sufficient, low, meagre)
 - a. Strives for the development of ethical character
 - b. Establishes citizenship ideals
 - c. Stresses petty skills
 - d. Emphasizes child-welfare
- B. *Command of subject-matter:* (Decidedly high, above average, usual, below average, decidedly low)
 - a. Possesses particular skills and knowledge
 - b. Evidences liberal culture
 - c. A master of theory of subject presentation
 - d. Shows readiness to draw from related fields
 - e. Influence on class toward delight in lessons
 - f. Inspires pupils toward scholarship through own scholarship
- C. *Skill in instruction:* (Markedly superior, excellent, good, fair, markedly inferior)
 - a. Ability to impart knowledge
 - b. Ability to fix skills
 - c. Ability to establish attitudes
 - d. Ability to convey ideals
 - e. Comparative readiness of the class to learn
 - f. Ease with which the class is stimulated
 - g. Thoroughness of participation of members of class
 - h. Self-reliance and initiative shown by class as a whole

- D. *Effectiveness of classroom management:* (Exceptional, excellent, good, fair, questionable)
- General spirit of the room
 - Ease of movement among the pupils
 - Economy of time and materials
 - Inconspicuousness of control
 - Pupil-teacher and pupil-pupil relationship
 - Teacher's care of hygienic conditions
 - Neatness and attractiveness of room and desk
- E. *Cooperation:* (Unlimited, above average, average, below average, slight)
- Pupils seek teacher for advice
 - Pupils respond to his desires
 - Absence of unfavorable criticism
 - Helpfulness in correlating work with others
 - Accurate reports on time
 - Response to constructive criticism
 - Active participation in teachers' meetings
 - Accepting necessary extra-curriculum requirements
 - Ability to grasp schedules and school regulations
 - Conscientious faithfulness to the interests of the school
- F. *Capacity for work:* (Maximum, above normal, normal, below normal, minimum)
- Mental vigor
 - Bodily vigor
 - Ability to attempt extra-curriculum work without tiring
 - Enthusiasm radiated in work
 - Reserve of power as shown by voice and movement
 - Amount of zest in taking on extra work
- G. *Desire for progress:* (Very decided, self-evident, mediocre, little, unapparent)
- Member of professional associations
 - Subscriber to pedagogical magazines
 - Reader of current literature
 - Welcomes opportunity for research
 - Invents and likes to experiment with new educational ideas
 - Passes on his knowledge for good of all
 - Undertakes university classes and professional service
- *H. *Personal character, outwardly manifested:* (Superior, strong, average, doubtful, weak)
- Standing in the community
 - Ability to analyze character and motives
 - Ability to estimate own work
 - Sense of humor
 - Sense of justice
 - Innate refinement
 - Courtesy and tact in meeting social situations
 - Talent in special lines

Carrying over the survey technic into local practice—The following school year, at mid-semester, the superintendent called for a report on *all* teachers who taught in the individual schools. This report differed from the regular quarterly report, wherein teachers were grouped in classes, as "superior," "strong," "average," "doubtful," and "weak." The new report called for numerical ranking, in which no two teachers might have the same marking.

* (Latter, taken from other rating scales)

Each principal was to list his teachers in numerical order as 1, 2, 3, 4 and so on according to his opinion of their relative proficiency in the performance of their work. Three weeks were given in which to arrive at this judgment, allowing "sufficient time for new principals and principals having new teachers to observe the work of their teachers to such an extent that they might *rate intelligently and fairly*, ALL teachers in their schools."

It was then, when confronted by a seemingly impossible task, that the scheme just put into effect in our individual school proved its worth. Again were brought out for consideration the Instruction Sheet, and the "Teacher-Efficiency Rating Card," sent out by the State committee at their survey, and the "Teacher-Rating Scale," evolved and formerly handed out to our teachers as a guide in self-rating. Using these as bases for judgment, a system of scoring by plus and minus was worked out so that the final score would automatically rank the *whole product*, instead of allowing some *striking phase of that teacher's work*, to determine the grade.

The plus and minus score was as follows: Let 1 (or plus 1) indicate the "average"; much better than average, in respect to the trait being measured, or "strong," was marked plus 2; and the "superior," or exceptionally strong in this trait, was credited with plus 3. On the other hand, lacking somewhat the quality being weighed, this lack was indicated by a minus 1; where the teacher was totally without the quality, a minus mark of 2 indicated the fact. The final score was *high* for the teacher who stood out in a *positive* sense, as the possessor of the necessary elements of teacher-strength; it was *low* in the case of the teacher, who because of apathy in her work, or because of registering a *negative* bent in respect to the trait mentioned, deserved a low mark. Since the traits measured and weighed were expressed as *actual manifestations*, made evident through the teacher's own personality, and the attitudes set up in his sphere of influence, a plus and minus score was possible. Indication that the impersonal score indicated the teacher's relative rank within his group, scored on proficiency of performance, was a just one, was established by the agreement which existed in main between that ranking and the grouping within the quarterly reports.

Recommendations—Such a procedure does not need to be carried through frequently. Its value lies in giving definiteness and justice in a situation which is so easily influenced by personal reactions. Besides the satisfaction afforded the principal by having found a tangible scale for a basis of making an estimate of proficiency, there

are reactive values upon faculty morale. We summarize these as our conclusions:

1. Such a scale gives a teacher an objective standard by which to evaluate his administration within his own room.
2. It gives a teacher a gauge by which to estimate his success or failure in the teaching-act.
3. The scale reminds the teacher that he must give an accounting for the grades which he passes out as an administrator over his class.
4. It impresses upon the teacher that professional grades are no more static than are children's grades. This fact once recognized corrects automatically the attitude of some teachers to rest on past reputation, and to constantly refer to it when a criticism of his work is suggested.
5. It provides an object lesson to the "one-room teacher," by which term, meaning the teacher who feels that his success or failure in following prescribed regulations within his individual classroom is all that is required. Such a teacher fails to see that his individual class is only one within a larger unit, and has its place only by virtue of fulfilling its purpose in the great scheme of education.
6. Finally, we have found that items of this scale which refer to the professional standards proved the stimuli most effective to open up the minds of the group professionally. It is no longer debatable whether or not we are to identify ourselves with the organizations which have as their object the promotion of education, local, state, and national. We are a 100 percent school, and are justly proud of that record. New teachers, entering our school, fall into step cordially, impelled by a true concept of professional responsibility.

BEFORE mailing the questionnaire found on page 135 the reader should consider the policies of the Editorial Committee as set forth in the Preface.

CHAPTER XII

THE EXTRA-CURRICULUM ACTIVITIES

THE PRINCIPAL AND THE BOY SCOUTS

I. VICTOR BURGER

Principal, Public School 39, Staten Island, New York

THE ADMINISTRATIVE duties of the principal permit him to work toward the goal of his philosophy of education. It is through administration that he becomes the inspirer of his teachers and pupils, and exercises a most desirable creative school control. He promotes pupil responsibilities which develop power, initiative, and social and economic usefulness. Every detail in the demands of his administrative pattern, if effectively exercised, points towards the proper and balanced development of the child.

Extra-curriculum activities as administrative function—In a research study lately completed on the functions and duties of the elementary school principal, 89 items are listed as comprising the administrative scope of this official. Extra-curriculum activities, on the average, comprise 7.54 percent of the entire time of the principal.¹ It is rather surprising to note that so little attention is given this important division of administrative work. Through the medium of extra-curriculum activities, the principal is enabled to sound the depths of the children's desires, ambitions, sorrows, joys, defeats and successes. From nine to three o'clock the barrier of formality lies between the principal and the children, and hinders his attempts to get close to them. At his approach they withdraw into their shells and remain adamant against his overtures. Extra-curriculum activities, however, furnish a ready means of removing the barrier, the veil that induces misunderstandings and heartaches on both sides. The principal meets the children on an equal footing, solves their personal problems with them, gives them an inkling into his problems and in this way promotes a spirit of cooperation and an understanding that he can never hope to achieve through the conventional channels of school work.

Underlying principles of extra-curriculum activities—Extra-curriculum activities should be given more emphasis both in degree and

¹"The Functions and Duties of the Elementary School Principal According to Research Studies," *The Seventh Yearbook, The Elementary School Principalship*, Vol. VII, No. 3, p. 183-185, table 22, April, 1928.

in time by the principal in the performance of his administrative duties. The underlying principles of this new tendency in modern education are so fundamental that no progressive administrator can hope to function with satisfactory efficiency unless he decides to make this important phase of education an integral part of his work.

The first of these principles is a recognition of individual differences in children and of the need of a program to meet their needs. Children differ in ability, aptitude, sex, probable careers (educational and vocational), social status, moral atmosphere, and in numerous other ways, which make it imperative to utilize the social instinct and the socializing, integrating factors important in establishing a common basis of feelings, aspirations, and ideals essential in a democracy.

A second underlying principle is found in that simple statement of fact which is almost axiomatic, namely, the best preparation for life is living, and the best training for citizenship in a democracy is citizenship in a democracy. If this be true, both curriculum and extra-curriculum activities should be such that they approach and possibly reach life situations.

The third underlying principle is the equalization of opportunity, a democratic ideal. Whether a student is notably dull, studious, clever, rich, poor, handsome, or ugly he should have an equal opportunity to be a member of a school organization which ought under all circumstances to be organized upon a basis of democratic society.

A fourth underlying principle recognizes that extra-curriculum activities are educative only when they develop qualities that make for complete citizenship, notable leadership, initiative, cooperation and intelligent obedience to authority.

A fifth underlying principle is the one given by Dr. Briggs¹ as follows:

It is the business of the teacher to teach the pupil to do better the desirable things he will do anyway; to reveal higher types of activity; to make these desired and to an extent possible.

A sixth underlying principle is one in which there is almost general agreement. Extra-curriculum activities should have their foundations, in most instances, in the curriculum activities and should help to motivate them.

The seventh underlying principle is of distinct value in that extra-curriculum activities have a definite moral force.²

¹ Briggs, T. H. *The Junior High School*.

² Foster, Charles R. *Extra-Curricular Activities in the High School*.

Outside agencies as aids to principal—Principals frequently cannot achieve the organization of extra-curriculum activities without the aid of numerous outside agencies. It is the function, therefore, of the administrator to familiarize himself with every avenue and agency that can assist him to prepare the child to enter upon a life career which will satisfy the latter's needs and promote the welfare of the community, be they local or national. These agencies surround him on all sides and are willing to lend their unstinted cooperation. Among the most potent is the Boy Scouts of America, highly organized and efficient in operation.

Scouting an adolescent activity—The activity which makes a strong appeal to the adolescent lad is that of the Boy Scouts. Just how do the Boy Scouts of America assist the principal in developing a boy into a happy man? Let us consider physical education first. The new movement in health education stresses free play and more or less unsupervised arrangement of games. The teacher is present merely to act as arbiter in the event that disputes arise. He neither directs nor organizes the games. The children choose their own games, their own leaders, and devise their own rules. Boy Scouts are trained in wholesome games, team play, songs, and stunts. The majority of the Scouts go to school and act as the nucleus in school groups for the training of the entire group. The trained group interests the others to the point of emulation, and gradually a large number of the latter begin to go on hikes, to camps in the summer, and, in general, to participate in the energizing outdoor program of woodcraft, campcraft, handicraft, and healthcraft that the Scout organization provides for its members. James E. Russell, former dean of Teachers College, Columbia University, said about Scouting, "It exhibits positive genius in devising situations that test a boy's self-reliance and full leadership."

A great part of the Scout program is devoted to character training and in this regard is of invaluable assistance to the principal in the administrative performance of this school duty. Character development is derived through service in fulfillment of the daily good turn, the Scout ideals expressed in the Scout oath and law, in the associations with men of character, and in a wholesale group life among boys in patrols and troops.

As a means of instilling ideals of patriotism, no other organization excels that of the Boy Scouts of America. Dean Russell says, "The Scout program is essentially moral training for efficient citizenship. The entire organization is a machine capable of working wonders in fitting the boy to assume the duties of the American

citizen." Citizenship is realized by training through recognition and service in the home, church, school, community, and also through national service projects which engage the entire Scout movement.

In the matter of vocational guidance, Scouting does much to supplement the work of the school. The principal finds this phase of his work a perplexing problem and will do well to seek the assistance of the Scout organization which provides vocational guidance through the Scout Merit Badge projects. Merit badge activities include 88 laboratory experiments in the arts, sciences, trades, and professions. Expert architects, accountants, printers, carpenters, machinists, artists, lawyers, musicians, and leaders in many other trades and professions are lending their cooperation in time, skill, supervision, advice, and, when the occasion warrants, their influence in placing the boy in an environment that will give him every opportunity to develop the special aptitudes which he possesses. The records of the Boy Scouts of America point to thousands of boys that have received vocational guidance from this organization, and through this means, especially in cases of delinquency, Scouting has been able to straighten out the bends of maladjustment.

School service of Boy Scouts—The training that the Boy Scouts undergo makes them especially useful in the field of service. Directing activities of playground; serving as fire guards and safety guards; rendering first aid; providing nature exhibits in classrooms; promoting thrift and saving; assuming traffic duty; acting as ushers at patriotic exercises; having charge of fire dismissals; protecting school property and grounds, and engaging in other projects involving special honor or trust. Scouts may act as leaders in carrying on club work, in gardening projects, in directing unsupervised game periods. They may be chief aides to teachers as marshals on class excursions, and as uniformed representatives of the school at public functions. This kind of work enables the boy to develop a philosophy of life of the highest kind, "Service to Humanity," and in so doing, inspires him with a spiritual satisfaction, a spiritual happiness, and above all establishes a state of supreme well-being.

Relation of Scouting to curriculum work—All the aims and achievements of the Boy Scouts synchronize so perfectly with the objectives of the school that the modern principal feels impelled to organize a troop in his own school. As one of the underlying principles in extra-curriculum work indicates, Scouting can be made to have its foundations in curriculum activities and can be so employed as to motivate the lessons in the latter. It is naturally linked with studies in nature work, history, civics, geography, map work,

and literature. Scout projects can be so organized as to include mathematics and English. It is a strong force in socializing material and processes in curriculum work. It is a powerful force in the field of discipline and development of social responsibility. It is an invaluable link in bridging the school life of the child with his out-of-school life. Finally, it aids immeasurably in merging these two personalities of the child into one.

Progress of Scout work in the schools—Interest in promoting the organization of Scout troops in the schools has become nation-wide. In Reading, Pennsylvania, the public schools made a survey of boy facts in the city which formed the basis for location of Scout troops to serve all boys of the council area. In Montclair, New Jersey, a school Scout association is operating in the interest of moral and civic training of a higher morale in school life. In Atlanta, Georgia, the public schools provide a series of five lessons in Scouting as part of the regular course in civics.

In Detroit, the organization and general supervision of school Scout troops is carried on by field Scout executives under the direction of a joint board of 10 men, five of whom are appointed by the school administration and an equal number appointed by the Scout Council. School credit (one point in physical training) is given for Scout activity and the salaries of field Scout executives are charged to health education in the school budget.

In Queens, New York, Public School No. 96 has worked out a plan of correlation which in reality absorbs the Scout program within the school administration. In Toledo, Ohio, the school board, at its own expense, furnishes the use of gymnasiums, auditoriums, athletic fields, and stadiums for Scout activities, rallies, meets, and demonstrations. Some of the members of the Board of Education, the superintendent's staff, principals, and teachers are actively serving as volunteer leaders, as Scoutmasters, commissioners, merit badge counselors and troop committeemen.¹

The principal the logical leader in Scout work—The above examples indicate the type of work being done in a few cities in 1927. Today the files of the Boy Scouts of America reveal interesting statistics to show that few communities of appreciable size in population lack at least one Scout troop. Too many of these troops are in the hands of leaders who are untrained and unfamiliar with the psychological and sociological demands of the adolescent. There is an urgent need for intelligent, sympathetic, and educationally fit leaders

¹ See *Scouting in Relation to the Schools*, Boy Scouts of America, Department of Education, 1927, p. 6-11.

to assume the great responsibility of guidance to these young lads. The principal who appreciates the importance of projective interest in the scheme of education is the logical nominee for this important function. It falls most naturally in the list of his administrative obligations.

Scout work and good supervision—Among the chief functions of administration is that of paving the way for good supervision. An accepted definition of supervision includes five points: (1) improvement of the teaching act; (2) improving teachers in service; (3) selecting and organizing subjectmatter; (4) testing and measuring; (5) rating teachers. The work with Boy Scouts contributes its share to the improvement in the teaching act. The teacher's ability to carry on his work with pedagogical precision depends very largely upon the mental attitude and physical condition of both his pupils and himself. The physical training nature of the Scout program contributes toward bringing the child to a stage of physical balance. The understanding that develops as a result of the informal contact at Scout meetings promotes a readiness and eagerness on the child's part to cooperate with the teacher to the extent of inspiring him to unusual achievements. We find contacts between Scout work and good supervision (see points 1 and 3 above), since Scout work furnishes a wealth of material for socialization and vitalization purposes.

Conclusion—We add that the principal who aims to be the wise administrator and the constructive supervisor will include in the list of his extra-curriculum activities that of the Boy Scouts of America. It gives him and his children the opportunity to know each other better; to cooperate in solving each other's problem more effectively; to train his boys to enjoy a completer living physically, mentally, morally and spiritually; to develop a philosophy of life based on service; and to realize the fruition of his philosophy of education, by developing happiness in humanity.

WISE administration in an elementary school recognizes the great importance of the right sort of publicity. The taxpayer is as much interested in the kind of school he is paying for as the principal who is anxious for people to put the seal of approval upon his work.—William Brady, see Chapter XIV

THE SCHOOL PROVIDES MUSICAL OPPORTUNITIES

JOHN S. HERRON

Principal, Lafayette Street School, Newark, New Jersey

WHAT CAN the principal do to broaden the music work of his school? This article will give an administrative answer to the question. The purely cultural, social, and supervisory aspects of the subject will be passed over or touched upon only incidentally.

The musical organizations or groups to be treated in this article are: (1) the rhythmic band of kindergarten and first grade; (2) the class in creative music; (3) the glee club; (4) the school orchestra; (5) the harmonica band; and (6) the bugle, fife, and drum corps. Three of these will be treated in general terms and the others, involving greater administrative thought, will be outlined in fuller detail.

The rhythmic band—This is one musical organization which every kindergarten can have and which is to be found today in most progressive schools. The aim and purpose of the band is to develop the rhythmic sense in the pupils through expression of the most elementary nature. In most kindergartens, the teacher-pianist will be the inspirational force. A victrola, however, may prove to be a worthy substitute or, at least, a valuable supplement in providing the necessary musical selections.

The equipment required is of a miscellaneous nature and inexpensive. Most rhythm bands are supplied with one or two drums, five or six bell-clusters, one or two toy pianos, one or two bell-triangles, castanets, blocks of wood, clappers, drum sticks and cymbals.

The kindergarten band is a delightful experience for all children to participate in regularly. Given the opportunity, most children will develop a live knowledge and appreciation of the common time motions—four-four, two-four, six-eight, and waltz time. An expenditure of \$10 will provide amply for all the necessary equipment, which may be bought at hardware, music, and five-and-ten-cent stores. The organization will develop leadership in the little tots and be a great source of pleasure to the entire school. Inexpensive uniforms, consisting of a hat, or a hat and a coat, may be made either in the kindergarten or by the girls' sewing classes. No kindergarten should be without its band.

The creative music class—In the Belmont Avenue School of Newark¹ something of an original nature in creative music work is

¹ Warren A. Roe, principal.

being attempted. Eight classes of first and second grades are being given a special and supplementary course in the development of creative music under the direction of two teachers.

The pupils begin with time recognition and tone, learn to recognize both, and work out their own little rhythms and songs. Boys of the manual training classes have made a tone scale from pipes, and drums of various kinds. These have been supplemented by a number of wood and metal instruments except wind instruments, which cannot be used for hygienic reasons. Oatmeal boxes and coffee cans have been brought from home by the pupils and made into drums, the pupils using clothes-pins as drum sticks.¹

In all classes, the pupils exemplify through dance the story the music tells them. In constructing their songs, the pupils learn the names of the notes. They make up little tunes and put words to them, using steps instead of a staff.

A two-year course has been worked out by the teachers. At the end of second grade, they hope to have overcome the lack of rhythmic feeling in most of the monotonous and others slow at music.

The aim of the course is to develop spontaneous expression in the children, with a close tie-up of rhythm, tone, song-making, and muscular activity.

The glee club—In the Newark school system, every grammar school has at least one glee club; in many schools there are two. These clubs are for boys alone, for girls alone, or are mixed. The members of these groups are selected, not alone because they enjoy group singing, but also because they have shown complete mastery of the fundamentals of sight singing. For the most part, they are chosen from grades six, seven, and eight. The pupils are taught songs in two, three, and four parts by the special music teachers of each school and the results obtained throughout the city are outstanding. The groups meet for rehearsals both within and after school hours. Each school has, therefore, within its own organization a body of trained singers who are at the call of the school for special occasions. Annually there is held a public singing contest when all the glee clubs of the city participate. In many of the schools, the glee clubs are organized on a regular club basis with their own officers in charge.

As an adjunct to the school, a glee club is invaluable. Given a body of pupils trained in the fundamentals of sight singing, an inspirational teacher can mold these boys and girls into a musical organization which, for beauty and art, cannot be surpassed by any other musical group within the school. After all, what instrument is superior to the human voice? Some schools may lack trained instru-

¹ See the manuals of Mrs. Coleman, Lincoln School, New York City.

mentalists, but all schools possess a wealth of natural beauty in the form of children's voices awaiting the master hand.

The school orchestra—The school orchestra is dependent upon a teacher who has been trained to play some musical instrument. Since the piano is the instrument which carries most of the fundamental harmony, the selection of a pupil who is efficient on the piano is very essential. The orchestra may be as large as the school talent will produce. In most school orchestras, violin players will be found to constitute the larger number. In fact, orchestral talent made up solely of violins and piano is quite common. Other instruments desirable are cornet or trumpet, clarinet, saxophone, cello, and drum. A school must start with the talent at hand and develop it.

A teacher who has had no orchestral experience should not hesitate to start an orchestra. Many teachers have been aided by taking up the study of the violin or other instrument solely to learn the fundamentals of correct technic.

Assuming that the school of itself does nothing in teaching the various instruments, the principal, however, can do much by encouraging parents to give outside instruction to their boys and girls. In this field, a zealous, interested principal may greatly influence the cultural atmosphere of a community. If a principal sets as his goal to have an orchestra in two or three years the odds are in his favor that he can accomplish his end if he directly works on the parents of pupils who show talent.

In attacking his problem, the teacher will have to grade and select his pupils. A common standard of proficiency will naturally have to be set up. Looking to the future, the teacher will do well to encourage the beginners by taking them separately. It is recommended that a teacher starting an orchestra write to any well known publisher and have sent on approval graduated orchestral books from which difficulties have been eliminated and which are intended primarily for grammar school orchestras. Music houses which publish such books are Ascher and Company, New York City; Carl Fischer and Company, New York City; and J. W. Pepper, Philadelphia. Once established, the zeal and interest of the pupils will carry along the organization.

The harmonica band—As typical of what may be accomplished with the harmonica as a means of interesting boys and girls in music, the following brief sketches show how a suburban school principal¹ and a city school principal² have developed outstanding musical groups.

¹ Park School, Nutley, N. J., Miss Ann Troy, principal.

² Hawkins Street School, Newark, N. J., Miss Emma Lehlbach, principal.

Park School—In this school, the principal was interested in establishing the harmonica club as a means of discovering musical talent with the hope that some pupils would take up the study of other instruments later and qualify for the school orchestra.

Locating one boy who played the harmonica "by ear," the principal had him perform in assembly and out of this grew the school's wish for a club. On a call for interested pupils, 30 responded and were placed in charge of a volunteer teacher who at the time knew little about the technic of harmonica playing, except what she had studied from Hohne's *Handbook for Harmonica*. The pupils were taught how to play the scale by note, each pupil being supplied with a carbon copy of the C scale. In a short time, they could play *America* and they gradually mastered other easy melodies. In the meantime, the teacher found it necessary to divide the group into an advanced and a beginning class, which she taught separately.

During the second year, the advanced pupils were supplied with copies of *The Harmonica Soloist*,¹ by Somer and their progress became marked. Today, the club consists of 70 members, divided into two groups, each of which meets one afternoon each week for rehearsal. A second teacher is now engaged in assisting, chiefly through the playing of piano accompaniments.

The club has played at a local theatre on Rotary Club Day, before the Parent-Teachers Association, before various women's clubs, and regularly at school assemblies.

Hawkins Street School—In this school, the object of the principal in organizing the harmonica band was "to give opportunity to a large number of pupils to engage in extra-curriculum activity from which they could derive pleasure and, at the same time, render a service to their school." When the call for players was made, 125 responded and were placed under the direction of one of the teachers.

Rehearsals were held during school hours, the teacher devoting one of his teaching periods daily to the work. The pupils met in three different groups, the first few lessons being devoted to the technic of playing. In a short time, the groups were reorganized on an ability basis. From the advanced group, the school band was organized and the lower group became the "feeder" for the band. The rehearsals became varied. The two slower groups were given more time and the band met once a week and occasionally had extra rehearsals at noon. All members were pledged to a certain amount of practising at home and the band members often helped the slower pupils.

The band played regularly at school assembly for marching in and out of the auditorium. Frequently, it played on special school occasions and regularly accompanied the school to the city athletic field games as an adjunct to the school's cheering section.

Uniforms consisting of white duck, trimmed with Yale blue, were made for all members of the band by the sewing classes of the school. Two drums, cymbals and triangles were added to give greater rhythm accent to the marching numbers. One of the members was chosen as leader.

The bugle, fife and drum corps—For the past 11 years, the writer has organized and maintained a bugle, fife and drum corps in each of the three schools of which he has been principal. To form such a group, a qualified teacher would have to be found either within or outside of the school. In the present instance, the writer, being a cornetist, acts as teacher of the buglers, but employs a professional

¹ Published by Irving and Davis, Philadelphia.

teacher to instruct the fifers and drummers. Each group must be taught separately to make progress.

Bugle instruction—The bugle is an easy instrument to master because only four tones can be blown: do, me, sol, do. A redeeming feature of this phenomenon (which all musicians will instantly recognize) is that, even if a boy plays a wrong note, the note will still be harmonious because it is one of the four tones of a major chord. When a pupil can play these four tones with confidence, he is then ready to master all the military and marching numbers possible on the bugle. Lessons are written out on large tag-board sheets which may be read easily by a large group. Pupils make their own copies for home practice.

Fife instruction—Pupils are given mimeographed copies of the scale and a diagram of the fingering of each note. Because the fife contains all notes of the chromatic scale, it is more difficult to play than the bugle. An apt pupil will master the scale in two weeks and then be ready for a simple piece like *Marching Through Georgia* or *Onward, Christian Soldiers*. At the end of 10 weeks, the advanced class will be able to play five or six easy marches.

Drum instruction—Classes are taught to drum first on rubber pads or on long wooden tables. Pupils are not permitted to use drums until they have mastered the fundamental beats.

Costs—Naval G bugles cost \$2.50 each; fifes, \$1.75; drum sticks, 45 cents per pair; snare drums, \$10.00 each; bass drums, \$15.00 each. Each bugler and fifer buys his own instrument when he can afford to; in exceptional cases, the school fund provides. Drums, being more expensive, are bought by the school and remain the property of the school. The writer believes a boy will take more interest in something he has to pay for than in something given to him gratis. To make purchases easy for pupils, the school buys instruments in quantity at discount and the boys pay for them on easy installments.

Instruction is free to all pupils. The professional teacher of the fifers and drummers is paid \$5.00 for each lesson, which is given once a week after school hours, the time being divided between the two groups. For nine years, the services of this professional teacher were paid for out of the school fund but for the past two years the Board of Education has voluntarily stood the cost.

The corps, which consists of between 30 and 40 boys, is outfitted in white duck sailor suits, white leggings, white sailor hats and black satin ties. The uniforms were made as a school project by the girls of the sewing classes.

The corps plays at various school programs during the year and has participated in all school and municipal parades for years.

Not all pupils "make" the corps. As a matter of fact, only one out of three boys will stick until he measures up to the standard for admission. Success in music, as in everything else, demands perseverance and practice. Scores of boys, through experience in the corps, have learned, at small expense, that they would not make successful musicians and money has been saved for their parents. On the other hand, many boys, starting on bugle, fife and drum, have advanced to more ambitious fields of music and are today making good as members of orchestras and bands in the city.

Shall the school provide free instrumental instruction?—It is a question for debate whether or not a Board of Education is called upon to give free musical education on the different instruments. However, in many school systems throughout the country today, this is taking place, to a greater or less degree. The work done in Rochester, through the beneficence of George E. Eastman, is having

its effect in all parts of the country. To approach the ideal of Rochester, Boards of Education are going ahead in this matter, broadening their program of musical instruction.

In Newark, a start was made this year when an accomplished musical director took over the supervision of orchestras, the organization and teaching of the high school and elementary school bands. Afternoon classes are conducted on the various instruments of the band. East Orange and South Orange, New Jersey, carry on a full program of instrumental instruction in which both instruments and instruction are paid for by the Board of Education, the students being allowed to purchase the instruments if they so desire. In many systems, capable instructors are secured by the school to teach, in groups, pupils who desire to study the different instruments, the pupils paying the cost of instruction. In such cases, the cost of instruction per pupil is nominal, amounting to ten, twenty, or thirty cents. Any effort of the school to improve the musical opportunities of the pupils will pay large dividends.

SUPERVISION means making learning conditions favorable for pupil growth. The most potent force in this learning environment is the classroom teacher. Often good supervision involves the elimination of teaching handicaps more than it does the development of special skill. The trained school secretary can do much to place the gilded dreams of supervision among the realities of practice.—F. H. Duffy, see Chapter VI

THE SCHOOL CLUB DEVELOPS CREATIVE POWER

ROBERT P. BROOKS

Principal, School Number 8, Paterson, New Jersey

FOR A NUMBER of years the writer has viewed with considerable displeasure the traditional educational scheme which places so much emphasis upon set tasks. Such a plan presumes much about future interests, and fails to provide for the development of the natural creative powers of boys and girls. In recent years, educators have searched for devices to correct the weaknesses of the old régime. This awakening has resulted in the introduction of numerous innovations into the educational program. The school club has proven to be one of the most desirable forms of student activity.

A rich program of club life in school is in line with the modern conception of education. School clubs provide in a large measure not only for the development of creative power in the individual, but also for the wise use of leisure and for worthy home membership.

How we started—Some three years ago, the writer outlined in a teachers' meeting his club plan. This was based very largely upon the following principles:

1. Only those clubs should be introduced which seem to meet the aims of education.
2. Sufficient clubs should be organized to provide for the varied interests of all pupils.
3. Each club should be sponsored by a teacher who is interested in individuals as well as subjects, and who knows how to work with indirect and suggestive methods.

After a full discussion of the entire plan, the writer suggested that we organize a few clubs which would meet *after school hours*. This plan met with opposition from both teachers and pupils. We thereupon postponed the program until such time as it could be made an intra-curriculum activity, because a club program can not be carried out successfully unless it has the whole-hearted support of both the faculty and students.

When new class programs were prepared for the semester beginning February 1, 1929, the writer found that it would be possible to provide for one club period during the school day. The place assigned on the class programs for club activities happened to be on Wednesday from 1:00 to 1:40 in the afternoon. There was no difficulty at this time in getting 100 percent cooperation. Each teacher was asked to state his preference as to the club group which he would be the most interested in directing.

The pupils of grades seven and eight were then made acquainted with the purposes and the possibilities of the entire scheme. Each child was asked to state a first, second, and third choice for club membership. Wherever possible the first choice was accepted, for we believe that a child's keen interest in a social group is essential for success. We also made it possible for a pupil to change from one club to another during the term if he became discontented and unhappy. In a few instances, we observed that it was desirable to give the children a little guidance in their selection. About a dozen pupils appeared to have no particular interest in any of the organized groups. These pupils were given other activities as all memberships were upon a voluntary basis.

The clubs at work—Early in February, we organized the following clubs: art, cooking (for boys), dramatic, embroidery, first aid, folk dancing, (for girls), glee, mechanical (for boys), nature, and sewing (for girls).

During the semester many members of the art club did soap carving. Others wove hand bags of wool on cardboard looms while others designed and painted muslin table mats. The boys' cooking club, which was organized largely for the purpose of giving instruction in camp cooking, prepared among other things, pancakes, tea biscuits, and muffins. They baked cakes, made desserts, and prepared hamburger steak.

The two dramatic clubs produced some half-dozen plays during the term which were featured at auditorium periods and on special occasions. There was considerable diversity in the embroidery club but most of the articles made had a very definite household use.

Some very practical treatment in first aid was carried out in both theory and practice. The treatment and care of cuts, burns, nose-bleeds, the care of the sick room, bed making with the patient confined to the bed, as well as numerous types of bandaging, were among the activities of the first aid club.

Some pretty and interesting folk dances were taught to the girls. Several of these were given in costume at different assembly periods and one was featured at the commencement in June. In the glee club there was a conscious effort to have the children appreciate certain types of music as well as the actual singing of the selections. This club did creditable work and assisted most effectively at several programs.

The boys of the mechanical club were engaged in various projects. Many pupils worked on radios. Some studied out wiring and wired electric bells while others were intensely interested in boat and ship

building. The director of the nature study club made bird study and the appreciation of the needs for the preservation of our wild flowers the principal objective for the semester. Some members, however, became interested in the study and collection of local minerals. Others experimented in the making of ink, gases, and other chemicals. The girls of the sewing club made aprons which they presented on Mothers Day to their mothers and a few of the girls made extra aprons for their friends.

Club activities during the current year—Shortly after the opening of school in September, 1929, the pupils of grades seven and eight were asked to state their preferences as regards club membership for the current year. Upon careful checking, we found that many of the clubs organized last year were very popular with the pupils and it was thought advisable to continue these. At the request of several teachers and many pupils, some new clubs were organized. The new clubs organized are story-telling, girls' shop, fancy cooking (for girls), and fancy sewing. There has been no difficulty this year in getting pupils located in these social groups. So far, this term there have been only a small number of requests for change and all children appear to be deeply interested in their club activities.

We have found by experience that the most popular clubs are those in which there is a minimum of the classroom atmosphere. We have also discovered that there is urgent need for the display of the particular activity which is being worked out by the various groups. Last term the boys of the cooking class staged for the benefit of the school the entire process of cake baking. This exhibit proved very entertaining as well as instructive.

The principal should find many occasions for displaying all of the activities of the club groups. This year we are planning an exhibition of club work at which time articles that have been made will be placed on exhibition. Several children in the Story-Telling Club will give stories, while the Dramatic Club will produce one or more plays. Prizes will be given in the presence of the entire school and a number of distinguished visitors.

At some future time we shall organize other clubs such as the following:

- | | |
|------------------|--------------------|
| 1. <i>Crafts</i> | 2. <i>Literary</i> |
| Basketry | Book lovers |
| Cartooning | Debating |
| Designing | Writing |
| Home makers | |
| Home nursing | |
| Whittling | |

3. *Social science*

Civic—Know your city
Historical
News
Travel

4. *Miscellaneous*

Bird and flower
Collectors—stamps, coins, and
minerals.
Acrobatic
Dancing
Indoor entertainment

Results of a club program—We believe that a club program properly promulgated has a distinct value to the school and neighborhood; that it aids materially in a new and better relationship between teacher and pupil; and that it provides an opportunity for the child to explore, either for the first time or to continue the exploration, in a field in which he has a special interest. One of the most valuable accomplishments of a club program is to provide the child with useful and desirable activities for his leisure time, and to enable him to participate in the group life of the school. Such active group participation has untold ethical and social benefits.

ONE "withdrawn" child had lived for four years with her mother who kept boarders. These boarders slept days and worked nights. The child was hushed continually and not allowed to play with other children lest the noise awake the sleepers. By special school treatment she became friendlier, happier, and an active member of the school.—Katherine A. Brennan, see Chapter X

CLUBS ENRICH THE CURRICULUM

FORBES H. NORRIS

Principal, Robert E. Lee School, Richmond, Virginia

OUR CLUBS enrich the curriculum, but do not aim to substitute for regular class work. While there are a great many worthwhile things that the school should do it would not be wise to include them in the course of study. Enrichment does not necessarily mean adding more subjects to the teacher's overflowing day. We find that a club period each week gives enrichment without adding any requirements to the prescribed load.

Often the teacher feels obliged to put course-of-study requirements above everything else, even when he knows of better things to do. Extra-curriculum activities give teachers opportunities to work with their pupils in ways which their superiors have not prescribed. The teacher is put in charge of an activity that has no "laid down" minimum requirements, with no grading to worry about, and with freedom in choosing activities.

Since our clubs do not try to substitute for regular work, they either supplement it or offer something that would not be given at all. While in many cases they are closely correlated with classwork, the purpose is to stimulate wider interests than would be possible with strictly subject clubs.

Preliminary plans—Before starting club work, the proposition should be put up to the teachers and worked out with them. If the scheme is to appeal to children, it should be voluntarily entered into by teachers. Cooperation in planning and starting the clubs will create a feeling of teacher responsibility.

Determining the kinds and number of clubs is the first problem. Two plans are suggested: (1) find out the interests and abilities of teachers, and plan your clubs accordingly; (2) get from the pupils a list of the things interested in, and start from these.

Good arguments can be found for each of the above plans. We prefer the first as we have used it and found it successful. Each teacher must sponsor a club and for that reason he should be given an activity which he knows something about. To ask a teacher to sponsor a club of which he may be ignorant would be starting the club under a distinct handicap. On the other hand to give him an activity he likes and is interested in means a challenge to him to "sell" it to his pupils.

The second plan sounds more democratic and more in keeping with modern tendencies. We must not get away from the fact, however, that elementary pupils are very immature and need guidance

more than anything else. Some of their interests are unworthy of development, can be developed elsewhere, or are too varied for the school to meet. It seems far better to list several worthwhile activities and allow the pupils to choose from these. In this way each pupil can satisfy at least one of his many interests. If this can be done (we have found it can) each pupil voluntarily can join a club which has personal appeal.

Club organization and management—The clubs organized in Lee School sixth and seventh grades and some activities of each are as follows:

1. Know your city—Visit historical shrines, clubs and their activities, and industrial plants. Study local history, collect pictures, and make booklets.
2. Literary—Edit school paper; make plays for assembly and patrons' nights; read good books; write original poems and stories.
3. Nature study—Nature walks; make bird houses; make nature booklets; and flower charts.
4. Handicraft—Make baskets, trays, desk blotters, vases, and silhouettes; painting. (This work is done in a regular classroom and does not require a shop.)
5. Music—Music appreciation; chorus singing; operettas; and glee club.
6. Art—Charcoal drawings; color schemes for dress; cuts for Christmas cards; and painting.
7. Physical education—Drills (boys and girls separate); calisthenics; games; stunts; folk dancing for girls; and medal contests for boys.
8. Wood craft—Regular shop work; and airplanes.

Experience has shown that certain requirements and limitations must be put on these clubs. The physical education and music clubs are the only ones permitted to enroll over 20 members. They may have as many as 35 children. In such clubs as art and music, talent as well as interest should be considered. Since all pupils get opportunities to do art work in the classroom, it seems best to limit these clubs to those with some ability. The special teachers are usually willing to sponsor a club activity related to their teaching.

In Lee School it was found that one of the most delicate problems was involved in making up the club rolls. It is a good procedure to have a special assembly at which the work of the clubs is outlined. Pupils may also be reminded that changes may be made at the end of a semester so that they may be in several clubs before leaving the school. In the rooms, the teachers discuss the matter with the pupils and advise as to the proper club to join. It is made clear from the first that in case a club is crowded, preference will be given the older pupils.

After a thorough discussion of the work, plans, and aims of each club, the pupil is asked to hand his name to his teacher stating the club he wishes to join and the reasons for his choice. The names are then passed to the club sponsors so the enrolments may be equalized

or any other changes made. A small mimeographed card as shown in Figure 1 will aid in this.

FIGURE 1—PUPIL CHOICE CARD

Name	Teacher.....
Room No.	
Club Choices	
First	
Why?	
Second	
Why?	

Occasionally, it happens that a pupil can't get in either his first or second choice of clubs. Since the groups should be kept on a voluntary basis, it isn't in keeping with that spirit to place him where there is a vacancy. Usually by telling him the advantages of other clubs, he is glad to give one of them a trial. By providing clubs that have handwork or physical exercise we have eliminated the pupil who doesn't want to join any of them.

As the clubs are on a departmental plan, it is necessary to have a certain time for all. Changes can be made in the time schedule so we are able to set aside one hour per day. This hour is designated as the activity period and always comes at the last hour on club day. By coming the last hour the clubs that go on hikes or trips are able to go without interference. The teachers welcome this for it allows them to carry on the work without hurry and interruption.

Conclusions—Naturally the question arises: Are the clubs worth the time and energy given them? Let the teachers and pupils of this school answer. Last semester the following questions were submitted to over 200 pupils:

1. Have the clubs made your school work more interesting?
2. What have you received which otherwise may not have been given in school?
3. Do you favor stopping the clubs? Why?

All but one of the answers said "yes" to the first question and "no" to No. 3. Practically all declared that it made school more interesting and enjoyable because they were able to do and to learn about things which might have been missed.

The replies to No. 2 were many and varied. Usually the pupils enumerated the many club activities in which they had been engaged. One boy said he had learned to:

1. Obey quickly
2. Work harder
3. Wait his turn.

The following questions were submitted to the teachers:

1. Have clubs made the school work more attractive?
2. Have they contributed to a better school spirit?
3. Do they aid in character building?
4. Have they lessened disciplinary and scholastic troubles?

The teachers were unanimous in affirmative replies to the first three. They were somewhat divided on No. 4. Some were doubtful of any disciplinary benefits while others were positive of great help through the clubs. Some of the statements made by the teachers were as follows:

The duller pupils are given a chance to excel in something.

I have thoroughly enjoyed my club work this year, and hope it will continue.

The children learned to work on a piece of work until it was done well.

The clubs have provided opportunities for learning the interests of some children.

They are a splendid way to develop a school spirit and to develop initiative.

The chief values of these clubs are recreational and educational. There is a spirit of pleasure about them that makes the club hour one of pure enjoyment to many children. To me the chief value is that they have provided for an enrichment of the course of study without adding to the prescribed load of the teacher. They have been a means of widening teachers' interests and pleasures. It affords the principal a splendid opportunity to say to his teachers: "This is your hour, your activity, your interest; its success or failure lies largely with you."

SCHOOL publicity is one of the most efficient means of informing the public about the new educational program of the modern school. It helps to break down misunderstanding and unjust criticism of the school.—Birdenia Bennett, see Chapter XIV

VALUES OF A SCHOOL NEWSPAPER

RAYMOND S. MICHAEL

Principal, Gregory School, Trenton, New Jersey

THE SCHOOL PAPER has been accepted as an important factor in stimulating interest in the English work of junior and senior high schools. In contrast, many school officials in the elementary field still view the introduction of the school paper into the lower grades with a rather critical eye. In the minds of many it is a so-called extra-curriculum activity of the secondary schools imposed upon the elementary school. These objectors insist that the elementary school child is too immature to meet the situation, and therefore has no place in the elementary field. Many seem to feel that if the elementary school drills pupils in the fundamentals of reading, arithmetic, and spelling, it has done enough. Some fear that allowing the pupils to write for the school newspaper will mean neglecting the necessary drill in sentence structure, paragraph building, and word study.

A recent survey¹ of high-school papers and their relation to the study of English shows that 98 percent of the teachers of the 145 schools surveyed are convinced that the school paper is a far better medium for enlisting student interest than the writing of English themes.

One of the major objectives of the elementary school is to teach the fundamentals of good English which are essentially the same for the journalist, the literary writer, or the ordinary letter writer. These essentials are learned when one can express his thoughts in clear and concise language. If the school paper is proving a valuable aid in stimulating the English work in the secondary field, it can safely be assumed that it has a similar value in the elementary field.

This article describes the development of *Gregory High Lights*, a school paper published monthly by the pupils of the B. C. Gregory School, Trenton, N. J. For four years, our experiment has aimed to test the validity of the values mentioned above. The Gregory School is an elementary school of 664 pupils, kindergarten to sixth grade inclusive, located in the residential section of the city.

Reasons for sponsoring a paper—The school has a two-fold purpose in encouraging and sponsoring a newspaper:

1. To encourage all pupils in the art of self-expression
2. To discover and capitalize the individual differences of our pupils.

¹ National Survey of High School Journalism conducted by Mr. Edwin Cates under the direction of Quill & Scroll Society.

FIGURE 1—MIMEOGRAPHED HEADINGS IN SCHOOL PAPER

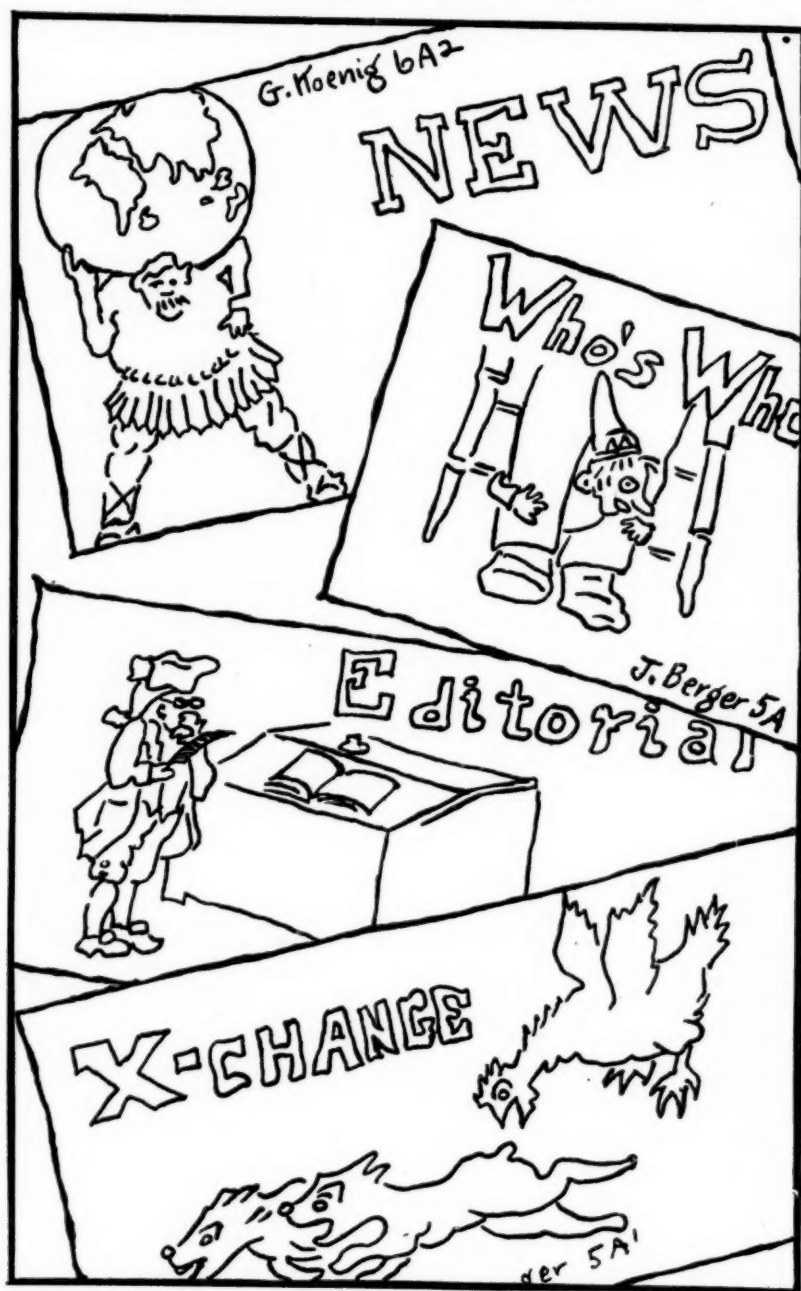


FIGURE 2—SPECIMEN ARTICLES FROM THE GREGORY HIGH LIGHTS

MISS SMITH VISITS

On Wednesday, October 2, Miss Smith, Supervisor of 5th and 6th Grades, came to visit our school. We hope we lived up to our name, "Gregory Go Getters," by showing that we are working hard to get good results in all our subjects and that we are setting a high standard.

5B1 CHOOSES TEAMS

The 5B1 class has chosen teams of boys and girls. The captains are Horace Hunt and Robert Henne. They both have very good teams and have named them the Army and Navy. They play together in both the yard and room.

DOLL HOUSE IN 1B

The 1B Class is making a doll house. Different pupils brought boxes. There are six rooms. They paper the walls. The outside will be painted. Among the furniture that has been made can be found: tables, chairs, beds, and divans. It is very nicely made. The work is cleanly and neatly done. The children are learning to work quickly and quietly. They are interested.

The possibility of capitalizing in our educational program the contributions of children, seems to be often lost sight of through the concept that children are being prepared for the future. Under such theories we attempt to adjust children to some future society. Of course, it is far wiser to encourage children to think and to write of their own experiences in which they are vitally interested now, rather than of the hypothetical experiences of some far distant future.

In addition to stimulating interest in the English work of the school, the paper tends to appeal to and capitalize the individual differences of children. This is in keeping with the new conception of education which takes cognizance of both the sociological and psychological implications of individual differences.

This principle of individual differences was applied in a very definite way at Gregory. Here was a child with a gift for writing but an inability to learn arithmetic. There was a child who could draw, but could not spell. Still another was unable to remember history and geography facts, but appeared to possess the qualities of an excellent leader. With the school paper as a medium it was possible to utilize the natural capacities of these children and at the same time to give every boy and girl in the school a chance for self-expression according to his or her own native abilities.

The success of any worthwhile project, if it is to be in its truest sense a self-directed purposeful activity on the part of the children, naturally depends upon either their interest and desire to do, or the ability of the instructor to create within the children such an interest.

Fortunately, in the case of our school paper the movement was initiated by the children themselves. Several sixth grade pupils, interested in high school papers brought home by older brothers and sisters, asked that they might have a school paper of their own. The question was submitted to the student body in an assembly period and was received with a great show of enthusiasm. Fifty-six different names were suggested by the pupils who themselves later selected the title *Gregory High Lights* by a process of balloting.

After the pupils of the school had decided to have a paper the question was thoroughly discussed in a faculty meeting. The faculty and the principal carefully set up the following aims as worthy of attainment through this project:

THE AIMS OF A SCHOOL PAPER

1. To give our boys and girls a chance to develop qualities of leadership.
2. To encourage initiative.

3. To train and develop good habits of citizenship such as:
 - a. honesty
 - b. judgment
 - c. responsibility
 - d. tact
 - e. courtesy
 - f. self-control
 - g. cooperation
 - h. group loyalty
4. To encourage every boy and girl in the art of self-expression according to natural aptitudes.
5. To contribute to the social welfare of the school.
6. To encourage school spirit.
7. To bring about a closer relation between school and home.
8. In general, to further the best interest of the school by letting the public at large know what we are doing.

The staff and its duties—After a careful study of school papers which the pupils gathered from far and near, the paper was organized with the following departments:

News	Editorial	Art
Literary	Sport	Business
Personal	Jokes	

The pupils themselves decided that staff officers were not to be elected, but would be required to compete for the desired position. Accordingly, all aspirants for positions on the staff were required to write an article for the particular department to which each aspired. These articles were then submitted to a committee of teachers who selected those showing the greatest aptitudes for the various positions. Pupils trying for art editors were required to submit drawings of cover designs, department captions, or cartoons. In this way the danger of a self-perpetuating or clique-picked staff was eliminated and a staff selected upon the basis of merit was guaranteed from the start.

At the beginning of each school year all pupils of the fifth grade, as well as all pupils new to the sixth grade, are invited and encouraged to compete for positions on the staff. In keeping with the established policy each aspirant submits his article or drawings as explained above. After careful examination of the material submitted the editors and assistant editors are selected by the advisers who are best qualified to judge their fitness. This method of selecting the staff is still proving very satisfactory.

After four years of development and growth the number of departments remains practically the same, but the type and content show a big improvement over the original venture. In addition to the editor-in-chief the staff includes the following editors and managers:

News editor	Literary editor	Business manager
Sport editor	Who's Who editor	Circulation manager
Art editor	Exchange editor	Production manager

With the exception of the editor-in-chief who has two assistants called associate editors, a sixth grade pupil is in charge of each department with a fifth grade assistant. This arrangement assures the school of a group of experienced editors for each successive year.

Editor-in-chief—The editor-in-chief is responsible for the general arrangement and makeup of the paper. He also writes editorials, gathers material from the classrooms and *High Light* boxes,¹ sorts these articles, and distributes them to the various department heads. He also keeps a complete file of all issues. The editor-in-chief is assisted in this work by two associate editors.

News editors—Because of the large amount of work in this department, it has been found advisable to divide the news into general school news and local or classroom news. Each editor reads and corrects all articles in his or her particular field, and helps with the headlines and subheads. The news editors are responsible for the arrangement of their particular pages.

Sport editor—The sport editor is expected to attend and write up all important games and interscholastic contests. The interclass games are taken care of by the assistant editor.

Literary editor—The literary editor with his assistant reads all literary contributions making all corrections and selections after conference with the advisor. They have full charge of the literary department.

Who's who editor—The duty of the who's who editor is to keep in constant touch with every activity of the school and note those persons who are doing outstanding work along these lines.

Exchange editor—The exchange editor reviews all papers received from other schools. He is constantly measuring the work of our staff against that of other schools. He is the authority on "good school activities."

Art editors—The art editors not only are responsible for all cover designs, captions, and cartoons, but frequently help others, less gifted, get drawings into the paper. They also cut the stencils for all covers, captions, and notices.

Business manager—Since our paper contains no commercial advertisements, the most important duty of the business manager is to plan and carry through a successful subscription drive in the fall. This pupil collects all the money and keeps a strict account of the cost as well as the proceeds of the paper. He is also responsible for the sale of extra copies each month, and supervises the production and circulation of the paper.

Circulation manager—The duty of the circulation manager is to see that each subscriber to the paper is supplied every month. He also assists the business manager and attends to the mailing of exchanges.

Production manager—The business of the production manager is to see that the mimeograph machine is kept in order. He handles the stencils from the time they leave the office where they are cut, and is responsible for the "running off" of the paper as well as the mechanical makeup of the same.

Reporters—Instead of a specified number of reporters as is the practice in many schools, every pupil regularly enrolled in Gregory School is considered a legitimate reporter for the paper.

The articles are written in the regular English period. They are examined and rated the same as any other piece of written English. After correction, only the best are selected as worthy of contributions for the paper. These are deposited in boxes, much resembling mail boxes, distributed at vantage points throughout

¹ Boxes, similar in size and construction to home mail boxes, are placed near the office and other convenient points about the school. Children may drop news items or articles in these receptacles any time during school hours.

the building. Articles on primary grade activities are usually written by members of the staff following an interview with the lower grade teachers or a visit to the classroom.

Financing the paper—A subscription fee of 35 cents for the school year is charged. This payment entitles each subscriber to nine regular issues which appear about the fifteenth of each month from October to June inclusive. It also entitles each subscriber to the special convention number, issued each year, telling of the activities of the delegates at the Columbia Scholastic Press Association Convention in New York City.

An intensive drive for subscriptions is launched by the Business Manager early in the school year. The usual competition between classes is supplemented by posters placed about the corridors and in the classrooms. This year's business manager inaugurated the idea of hand bills distributed to each and every pupil in the school. The results have been very gratifying.

Mechanical production—After the articles have been corrected and arranged under guidance of advisors, the material is sent to the school office. Here the stencils for the mimeograph machine are "type cut" by the school clerk. The stencils are then taken by the production manager who places them on the mimeograph machine and supervises the "running off" of the same.

After a sufficient number of copies of each page has been run off, they are placed on a long table in piles arranged from the last page to cover. When this has been done the "stuffing squad" takes charge and assembles the paper. The completed copies are then inspected, counted, and placed in units of twenty-five, after which the circulation manager takes charge.

Thus it is readily seen that every process in the organization and production of our school paper is a pupil activity except the actual type cutting of the stencils.

Value of the project—The entire project takes in practically every child in the school. Drawings done by pupils even in the kindergarten have been published.

It has proved an excellent means of motivating the English and art work, and of furthering the best interests of the school. Not only the children but the parents and friends of the school take pride, for the paper actually reaches more than 400 homes in the community.

This type of activity also gives all pupils a chance to see things through to a successful finish. It gives rise to many situations through which desirable character traits are developed and strengthened. It gives children a chance to assume responsibility, to develop initiative,

and encourages creative effort. It tends to develop excellent school spirit by creating a keener interest in the activities of the school as a whole.

At every turn the staff members are forced to think things through for themselves, weigh their conclusions and form good judgments. They are encouraged to form correct habits of living with their fellow-workers, and tend to develop a sense of team work through cooperative endeavor.

Through the examination of exchanges the boys and girls of the school are given a constant measure of their accomplishment in terms of relative success.

The project of a school paper can be an invaluable asset to any school, elementary as well as secondary, providing it is made a part of the regular school curriculum. The larger the number of pupils that participate in its composition and production, the greater will be the benefits to the school. A paper to be of greatest value to a school should be read by parents as well as townspeople of the community. This outside distribution tends to bring about a closer relationship between the community and the school.

Such a project is in keeping with modern educational philosophy which emphasizes the fact, that, in order to have children enjoy to the fullest the fruits of our instruction, we must adapt our school procedure to the vital interests of child life.

PART III includes a list of approximately 180 local and 25 state principals' associations. Is your organization in touch with the activities of these groups?

ENGLISH COMPOSITION AND THE SCHOOL NEWSPAPER

HARMON LUTHER LOWMAN

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WHEN ONE thinks of the use of a school newspaper to motivate English composition, he is likely to focus his mind upon a high-school situation. There have been, however, many successful practical experiments in the use of the school newspaper in the elementary school as a means of creating an added interest in written composition. Many schools are now engaged in issuing, in one form or another, some type of a newspaper which either in part or in its entirety is written by the pupils themselves.

A project in this field was successfully supervised sometime ago by the writer in Manor, a rural town in central Texas. The English classes of the three-year high school at that place had assumed the responsibility of editing a bi-weekly newspaper of six pages which proposed in its policy not only to give complete school news, but to cover thoroughly the happenings of the local rural community as well. The title of the paper, *The Manor Community News*, indicated this purpose. The high-school pupils organized themselves for the project and launched it successfully. After several issues had come off the press, the two highest elementary grades became interested and through their English teacher asked permission to take upon themselves the responsibility for one or two pages of each issue. The privilege of preparing this copy was granted them by the high-school organization.

Training the pupils for newspaper writing—The next step taken by the elementary English teacher was to prepare the pupils to write newspaper articles. While they did not propose to attempt anything which would require more than three paragraphs, it was necessary even in the case of the shortest article to follow some fundamentals which would apply to the correct organization of the facts in any news story. The pupils learned that every story must have (1) a lead, in which the main facts are given, (2) the first paragraph should contain answers to the well-known five W's: Who? Where? When? What? and Why?, and (3) the succeeding paragraph or paragraphs should be an elaboration of the facts given in the lead. After a discussion the following principles for the writing of newspaper articles were deductively formulated by the pupils: (1) Be sure you have the news exactly right, (2) do not be satisfied with half of the story, (3) write the news before it becomes old, and (4) carry a notebook and pencil with you.

For several days an attempt was made to master these principles through practice. Articles were written for practice exercise in news composition. A number of them were placed on the blackboard to be examined by the class. Newspapers were scrutinized to see if the rules were followed by reporters actually engaged in newspaper work.

The teacher for each issue made appointments of an editor and an assistant editor in each class group. His knowledge of the individuals composing the two grades made it possible for him to distribute this responsibility among those to whom it would do the greatest amount of good. The editors were charged with the duty of collecting a list of possible news stories, and assigning these to the reporters on "newspaper day." The assistant editors were responsible for getting the articles handed in on schedule time the following day. The assignments were made only one day before they were due. In this way the project was presented only twice a month which allowed a sufficient rest period to prevent a feeling of monotony in the work.

Correlation with regular English work—All of this work was closely connected with the usual lesson teaching. The text used by the two upper elementary grades at that time was *The Junior Highway to English*, by C. H. Ward and H. Y. Moffett. Several examples of lesson procedure might be of interest. Lesson 10: "Learning the forms for themes," page 36, was studied by one class during this period. The explanation by the textbook of why it was necessary to have a composition in the correct form made an impression that was effective now. The children felt, perhaps for the first time, that there was a vital reason for writing in the approved way. Then, too, the printer of our newspaper insisted that good form must be followed before he would set the type for the story.

The second lesson which follows in the text has for its heading: "A three-paragraph story." Now most of the news stories to be written by these pupils would be just this type of a composition. The first paragraph would be the lead and the next two bring out the one or two exciting parts of the story. There was a new interest to the pupils in the lesson that day. It is unnecessary to continue to show how the correlation took place; it is obvious to any teacher. It is sufficient to say that on the day for the newspaper work the principles developed in each of the lessons were used in a series of short newspaper articles rather than in uninteresting and artificial written compositions.

Gathering the news—While it was necessary to secure a large number of topics for each issue, there was little dearth of subjects. A group of rural pupils of the junior and senior high school age

generally know everything that is happening in their neighborhood. After they have received some training in this field and are enthusiastic to secure information, they develop into excellent reporters with a sharp "nose" for news. Whenever there appeared a shortage, the editors had a list of possible sources of news which was slowly read to their groups giving them time for reflection after each suggestion. After the subjects for articles were listed, the class was asked who wanted to obtain each story. If there were several volunteers, the pupil who showed the most knowledge of the incident was assigned to run down the facts.

After the articles had been prepared by the pupils, they were brought to the desk of the teacher for a conference. Mistakes were indicated only, textbook references given, and the pupils sent back to their seats to make their own corrections. Occasionally the pupils were informed that no corrections would be made for certain issues and the printer would be directed to make no changes in the copy. In each case the articles were written as a class exercise in the room, there was no chance for an outsider to do the work for the pupil.

Perhaps the greatest incentive to write correctly came from the fact that the pupils placed their names in small type and enclosed in parentheses at the head of their articles. When this idea was first proposed there was some objection to it on the part of some of the children. However, the objections had been anticipated and were overcome by the teacher who showed articles in leading newspapers at the head of which appeared the name of the writer. The children readily realized that under such conditions their work was open to the criticism of the public and, therefore, they did their best.

Conclusions—What objective evidence does the supervisor have that the project was a success? He has none. No attempt was made to measure. It would be well for some teacher to repeat the experiment using the proper scientific technic. The question of whether or not the study of English composition was motivated can be answered very definitely. No longer were there complaints over the necessity of doing written composition; no longer did pupils state that there was nothing of interest for them to write about; no longer did they ask, "Who cares for what I write?" This newspaper project motivated their English work.

SCHOOL ASSEMBLY PRACTICES

MARY E. GRAVES

Principal, Ketcham-Van Buren School, Washington, D. C.

THE SCHOOL assembly as a theoretically desirable thing is nothing new. The instinct to come together for the celebration of various events is inherent in all of us. Even the old idea that school was a place of "all work and no play" could not wholly kill this tendency toward sociability. There were gatherings, of a sort, as far back as the history of school life is recorded. Doubtless we can all recall school assemblies, not indeed always happy ones, but occasions such as Memorial Day, or Flag Day. Usually the several hundred children of a school were herded into a corridor and swarmed over stairs, to hear a well-meaning, but often prosy veteran talk for an hour or more on his glorious experiences in a long past war. These events were endurance tests, and some of us literally fell down under them. We appreciated and applauded the patriotism of the speaker, but the hoped-for values were considerably lessened by the physical discomforts of the scene.

In those days, not wholly "good" old days, no thought had been given to an assembly hall by the architects of the elementary school building. It would have been considered a ridiculous waste of space and public funds; since the school régime of an old day would have restricted its use at most to three or four times a year.

Our philosophy on school assemblies—Long before the citizenry in general dreamed of such a thing, teachers visualized the benefits possible from assembly halls in our buildings. When the suggestion was finally made by some progressive soul, the community raised its hands in protest at the useless extravagance of the thing. However, by dint of much discussion the idea began to take root, and here and there a community dropped its protesting hands and plunged these same hands into its pockets, producing the wherewithal to make the dream come true. So in the early days of the twentieth century a few of the new elementary schools were equipped with assembly halls.

In 1908 the novel feature was included in the Ketcham School. This was the first elementary school hall in the eastern half of the city, and one of the first in Washington. Determined to live up to our convictions that such a hall was for use and not for ornament, we immediately began to hold school assemblies, even though it was necessary at first to take with us newspapers and sit on the floor. Indeed this hall had its limitations. It was placed at the top of the

building and was accessible only by two very narrow flights of wooden stairs at the rear, up and down which pupils could pass in single file. For a period the hall was closed by order of the fire marshal, so that we had to hold our gatherings in corridors, but the assembly idea has always been active among us.

Eventually the worst defects in the hall were remedied. The wooden stairs were torn out and the space added to the floor space of the room. Excellent broad stone stairways were built at either end of the building and other minor changes were made to meet requirements of fire regulations. We consider this hall our most valuable material asset. It is kept in constant use for general assemblies, music classes, lectures, parents' meetings, and pupils' clubs. Our general school assemblies are of three kinds: the morning assembly, the program assembly, and the special assembly.

The morning assembly—Each Monday we hold a general assembly because the faculty believe that this is an excellent way to begin the week. The assembly is somewhat in the nature of college chapel. Promptly at nine o'clock the classes from the third grade up pass to the hall where each class has its assigned section. Our music teacher plays a march for the entrance and as soon as the classes are seated, she changes the martial notes to soft music, during which the standard bearers for each class walk quietly forward with their flags, depositing these in a rack in front of the platform. After a moment of the soft music, the assembly is opened by the principal reading a short selection from the Bible. The pupils then rise, repeat the Lord's Prayer, and sing a stanza or two of a familiar hymn. After the pupils are again seated, necessary announcements are made. Opportunity is then given for any teacher or pupil to bring before the assembly any matter of which he or she desires to speak. Right here it may be well to state that pupils feel entire freedom to do this. Last week some one rose and told of a brave deed done by one of our school patrol. At a recent meeting a third grade boy made the statement that he thought the flag salute should be given more slowly and distinctly, a bit of good advice by which we've been trying to profit. Another pupil asked for the privilege of holding a club election in the hall. Many really valuable suggestions have been offered in this way, and the chief advantage is the feeling of freedom to do this. The children realize that it is a real family gathering to consider family interests.

Another regular feature of this morning assembly is a report from each class on promptness in school attendance. As the class is called a representative of the room announces 100 percent or states the

number of tardiness cases during the preceding week. It is gratifying to know that almost all of the reports are 100 percent. Occasionally before closing the assembly a short poem or very brief selection is read. The last feature is the lifting of the flags by the standard bearers, the entire assembly rising to join in the salute and the singing of one stanza of the Star Spangled Banner. The classes then pass to their rooms, the entire assembly having occupied about 20 minutes.

The program assembly—Our second type of assembly occurs on each Friday afternoon. This might properly be called a club assembly for it is almost always in charge of one or another of our school clubs. Perhaps a word of explanation is needed as to these clubs. It is our belief that the school club is one of the valuable means of securing an excellent school spirit, while at the same time giving the children an opportunity to do some of the worthwhile things not included in the regular activities provided by the curriculum. For several years we have maintained a number of these clubs during the last period Friday afternoon, open to pupils of grades six, seven, and eight. Pupils join the club which appeals to them, finding both pleasure and profit therein. The clubs are not organized to plan assembly programs, but when any one club has something worthwhile to offer this offering is made to the school in assembly.

The Dramatic Club, under able leadership of one of our eighth grade teachers selects and studies, and sometimes writes, simple plays. They frequently dramatize for themselves events in history or prepare little sketches to emphasize events, as *The Boyhood of Lincoln*, *Opening the West*, *The Story of a Pioneer*, *A Hallowe'en Broadcast*, and *Forest Protection*. The primary purpose of this club is, of course, to provide an outlet for the dramatic instinct strong in most children, and to develop their powers in this line. The presentation in a school assembly is the outcome—the sharing of their product.

The same is true of our other clubs. One of our book clubs has done exceptionally fine work. Its aim is to cultivate a joy in reading and to become acquainted with some of the best in juvenile literature. In the course of their work and for their own pleasure they have made lantern slides illustrating some of their favorite books—*Uncle Remus* for instance and a number of Kate Douglas Wiggin's stories. The characters of these books, and many others are real living friends, and sometimes the book club conducts an assembly to share with the rest of the school some of the joys they have

found. The Hand-Work Club also holds an occasional assembly, when each child exhibits his handiwork with a little explanation of it. Assemblies are also conducted by the Glee Club, the Story Club, and so on through the list.

One Friday each month is devoted to the Bird Club, and in this all pupils from the third grade up are members. We believe that every child should know and love birds, so we start their study early. Whole pages might be written about our bird and beast pets, but that is another story.

The special assembly—There is still a third type, the occasional or special assembly. These are held when the occasion demands. Sometimes a speaker comes from outside. Once a year a representative of the Washington Dairy Council talks to the children on the value of milk or a similar health topic. Often the American Automobile Association sends a speaker to keep before us the need for care in safety. Sometimes the director of music holds a song rally.

Throughout the year many special occasions present themselves as opportunities for participation by all grades. One such occasion was during the week of October 21, when all the world celebrated "The Golden Jubilee of Light" and Edison's achievements. Our assembly on this occasion consisted in a simple dramatization by a group of seventh grade boys purporting to be playmates of the boy Edison. They talked about him to one another so as to unfold a picture of his early life. Another class had prepared a series of charts and lantern slides illustrating the story of light, from the days of the torch to now. Other pupils showed and talked about different types of electric bulbs.

Each year we make a great point of Book Week. Last year there were character portrayals in costume, each character telling a little of the story—enough to make other children want to read it. Sometimes little scenes from books are dramatized. Once we had a Book Shelf. There are so many ways to make splendid assemblies for Book Week. Of course there is always a Christmas play—either a "ready made" one or one of our own making. Four or five years ago one of our teachers wrote a very charming little sketch called "Peter Pan and Christmas," and this was so popular that we used it three different years. The last assembly before Christmas is always just a carol service, when many carols are sung, and one or two Christmas stories told. From time to time we have given assemblies to present something more elaborate such as, a history pageant, the story of knighthood, or an operetta.

Summary—It would be possible to extend this article indefinitely. Probably enough illustrations have been given to show that our school assembly is a very vital part of our school life. It has proved of great value in making for unity within a large school. It not only serves as a source of inspiration and pleasure to the children, but affords a means of growth by developing self-reliance and a sense of responsibility for working with others and sharing with others. In short, the school assembly is a wonderful help in character education, and will be found a stimulus to any school adopting it as a regular activity.

SEE President Hansen's message on page 137. What are local principals' organizations doing about the problems which Mr. Hansen raises?

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CHAPTER XIII

THE SCHOOL LIBRARY AND MUSEUM

THE PRINCIPAL AND THE SCHOOL LIBRARY

ELIZABETH MADISON

Supervisor of School Libraries, Oakland Public Schools, Oakland, California

ELEMENTARY school libraries have been developed successfully under various forms of administration. In some school systems, the libraries are managed by the public library, serving the school system as an auxiliary agency. In other systems the school board operates a complete elementary school library system within the school scheme, placing a library expert in charge. Or, the school system may operate its own library system with a school executive at the head, and a trained librarian, or staff of librarians, carrying out the technical and professional part of the program. Or, elementary school libraries may be centralized with delivery service to each school from a large central collection. The Oakland system here discussed is a departure in that it makes the principal in each school the local supervisor of the project, with a trained library supervisor advising the faculty, and the teacher-librarian, who, with the principal, are the real planners and doers in the library project. It is an organization in accord with the general trend towards supervisory responsibility of the principal.

The Oakland plan—The elementary school libraries of Oakland are organized as integral parts of the schools in which they flourish, and are the direct responsibility of the principal of the school, in his general program of responsibility for supervision. Herein lies their uniqueness, or at least their unusualness, since, in general, the elementary school principal, while accepting mental testing, student accounting, architectural construction, and art instruction as among his daily responsibilities, has not, in many places, added library administration to his list of duties.

Oakland had the tradition in its secondary schools of well-organized libraries, administered by the Board of Education, paid for from school funds, directed in each school by college and library-trained librarians and supervised by a library supervisor.

The elementary schools made one departure from this plan by using for library operations especially selected teachers, with or without much special library training, and in placing the primary responsibility for carrying on the library project directly upon the principal, with the library supervisor as his adviser.

For two years the venture was considered an experiment, and regarded with corresponding enquiry, sometimes tinged with anxiety, sometimes illuminated with hope that seemed fairy-like. Now, however, the mists of both doubt and romance seem to be clearing away from around the project, which is emerging into the daylight of common fact. We can observe what has happened now in terms of actual accomplishment.

School libraries exist in all of the 50 elementary schools of the system. In 34 of the schools, the libraries have special rooms with carefully standardized library equipment, such as tables, chairs, files for pictures, catalogs, charging tables, librarian's consultation tables, display boards and pinning spaces, textbook and supplementary book alcoves or rooms, and with certain types of special service for furthering the work. Last semester 115,000 library books (exclusive of textbooks) were owned in the 50 schools. Our last attempt at a circulation figure for the last semester rose to the 1,372,969 mark. Reading attainment has steadily risen; public library borrowing has doubled; use of books and libraries in junior high school has shown improvement; students, teachers, and principals know more about books, and show an increasing desire to keep open and alert minds in book matters, and to desire eagerly to increase the gold to be mined from this quarter.

How the plan developed—These results have been obtained by the following details of administration:

First, the superintendent of schools was book-minded, in the sense that he desired the book to do all that it could legitimately do for the child, and desired the child and the principal alike to do all that they could to understand the power of the book, to secure the book for themselves, and to know what to do with the book after they had received it. The superintendent believed that only when the principal came to understand the needs of the elementary child in the book world, would the best book service get into the elementary school libraries.

Under the superintendent's direction, a group of principals was organized each year, with certain carry-over members and certain new members, whose duty it was to study the elementary school library problem, and to report their findings to the general Elementary Principals' Conference, from time to time. Also, the selected group of principals was responsible for the development of the library idea within their own schools, and for the spread of the idea throughout the city. When something good was attained in library procedure, other principals were invited to go and look at it. The trained library supervisor of Oakland sat as ex-officio member with these committees.

The first year the committee worked out a definition of the real objective of the elementary school library, saying at last that the elementary school library existed intrinsically for the purpose of *getting the right book to the right child at the right time with the greatest ease and the greatest educational training to the child in the process*. The "right book" here meant the best book or group of books selected from all the books in the field for that particular child, at his particular level of reading ability; "at the right time" meant when his interest was the greatest, involving careful correlation of book material with the classroom work; getting to the child with the "greatest ease," the principals found, meant smooth running machinery of processing, cataloging, loaning, and other technics; getting the book to the child with the "greatest educational advantage to the child," meant teaching him how to use the book itself, its table of contents, its index, the library catalog, and other guides to book selection *on the part of the child*. The discovery of this definition, and all that it implied, opened up for the principals, themselves, the fundamentals of library selection and operation.

In the second year, the next Elementary Library Committee undertook very definitely to determine the principal's best procedures in carrying out his responsibilities towards this program.

The committee found that the operation of a successful elementary school library in the terms of the definition adopted, depends upon the four following fundamentals:

1. Wise book selection, fitted to the needs of the pupils and to the budget of the school.
2. Classification and cataloging of material, to facilitate rapid location and handling of books.
3. Establishment and operation of a flexible and accurate loaning system throughout the school.
4. Systematic instruction of students in the use of individual books, and in the use of large groups of books, as in libraries.

How the plan functions—Book money is budgeted to each individual school from the central office. Writing of requisitions for books against this fund is the responsibility of each principal in each school. To assist him, the principal develops a book committee within the school, which in turn may look for help to the list of recommended books supplied by the central Book Committee of principals, working with the supervisors of the city, the library supervisor, and the superintendent. From this recommended book list about two thirds of the school's purchases are made. The other third of the material is secured by browsing at large in the book markets.

These committees in the schools are under the necessity of budgeting their school money to all the various needs, such as English,

social studies, nature study and science, health, art, character education (including safety and thrift). Each of these subjects must carry books for each of the six grades of elementary school, and in each subject and grade it should carry material classed as "easy," "medium," or "advanced" in reading difficulty, to fit the wide span of reading abilities of children in each grade and subject. The selection of books means real work for the principals, teachers, and supervisors making the recommended lists, and for the teachers and principals engaged in evaluating the book material of any one school by the measure of this reading list.

The second function of classifying and organizing the books upon the shelf of the school, for rapid location and distribution, was at first undertaken in the school by teachers, but this was soon discovered to be a waste of time and effort and efficiency, since untrained teachers must either make poor catalogers, or give up some of the energy required for making them good teachers. Within a year, a centralized cataloging system had been established in the office of the supervisor of libraries, in the administration building, from which the catalogs are made for the elementary schools, as their new book purchase orders pass through the Purchasing Department of the central office. Thus the cataloging function is distributed to specialists.

The function of seeing that the right child gets the right book at the right time—that is when his interest is keenest in any special topic—is fundamentally a teaching function, and becomes the combined duty of the classroom teacher and the special teacher selected from among the faculty to give guidance to library selections, and library distributions. This special teacher is relieved of certain of his classroom duties by a regular teacher substitute, on a certain day in the week, and by other program adjustments which the principal is able to make. This function, then, of bringing, the child and the book together at the most advantageous time, is considered primarily a teaching function. It involves developing a loaning system, which is a technic worked out in a school with the principal guiding the local administration, through his faculty, after the library supervisor has suggested plans, which correspond with the centrally printed forms and blanks for book circulation.

The last function, that of teaching the child book selection, book choice, appreciation and efficiency in handling book material, is developed partly in the classroom by the teacher, and partly in the central library room in the school, where the children come in scheduled visits from their classrooms, sometimes to do assigned reference work, and sometimes to enjoy a free reading and browsing

period. Planning the visits for all the classes of the school is an administrative detail managed by the principal; developing the work of the class is a teacher and a teacher-librarian function.

In each of the schools the library finds itself the center of various developments; in one, the student "librarians" take upon themselves the responsibility of telling stories in various rooms of the school. To do this well they must accomplish a great deal of reading, must hear other story tellers; must provide recommendations of books to pupils who become interested in hearing the stories; and must know their own school library.

In another school, the library spirit worked itself out through a correlation of art, library, and social studies projects, centering in the sixth grade, which resulted in a most astonishingly beautiful book showing the rise of the art of book-making with the rise of man's civilization. Each process was illustrated in water color pictures; each was accompanied by an exhibit of material, such as class-made parchment, class-made paper, clay tablets, and other writing and book-making media. The history of the rise of man, and the history of books, was carried together in the minds of the young authors.

In still another school poetry writing was an outcome of library and English work.

Through the public library, loans are secured which enrich the material available in the local school libraries, and also furnish a carry-over experience in public library use.

Conclusion—On the whole, this experience of knowing books; planning to handle books; teaching children through the right book at the right time, has all become something which the principals of Oakland seem to treasure as a thing valuable to them and to their faculties. The children at the same time are learning to choose books; to use books; to keep books in order; to loan them unselfishly, and in a good civic spirit; to consult books for pleasure and profit; and to make the library and the classroom better places to be lived in.

THE 1931 Yearbook will center around the principal's supervisory problems. Have you material to submit to the Editorial Committee?

TRAINING FOR THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL LIBRARIAN

MARION LOVIS

Supervisor of Libraries, Board of Education, Detroit, Michigan

THE ELEMENTARY school library is here, bringing its problems of organization and administration. It has come as the inevitable accompaniment of progressive methods, demands for varied and attractive books, and the child's freer choice in recreational reading.

The platoon school program has undoubtedly brought about the establishment of elementary libraries in large numbers, but the library in the lower grades has been a logical trend of the school and is not necessarily limited to any type of school organization.

Basic library principles—The primary principle of a library is centralization of the reference materials which are used throughout the school. This collection must be properly arranged and organized for flexible circulation to teachers and pupils in classrooms and at home. Any picture, clipping, magazine article, or book which has a relationship to the curriculum, and any good book or magazine which holds interest and delight for a child has a place in the library.

The magic of the library is that through the creative organization of such materials it achieves entity. The library has a vital being, and that is the difference between a library and any other method of conserving and distributing books.

The library room is planned and furnished with a constant vision of its child users. It must be their room. There is the subtle task of creating an environment to which the child reacts in natural social behavior, courtesy, and consideration for others. In this room he finds books, bulletin boards, and posters to stimulate his interest. He finds much loved old books, or greatly anticipated new ones. In the library he happens, perhaps, upon the picture of an animal whose name and habits caught his interest in the science room discussion, and his impulse is to find out something more about the creature.

The fact that the picture of that particular animal is on the library bulletin board, and that besides it stands a little row of animal books is not an accident. The librarian follows the course of study with the science teacher, and it is through the cooperation of these two, the librarian and the science teacher, that the child comes so happily upon this particular interest and the opportunity to pursue it further.

In the library, too, the child with the help of the librarian experiences the new and important accomplishment of looking up references in the card catalog, encyclopedia, or reference book.

And in the true library, the child may lose himself in golden periods of reading. By what means does a collection of books come to life, and become a library? There is only one answer—the librarian.

Selecting the teacher-librarian—The librarian of the elementary school will, without doubt, be selected from the teaching staff, because such a person has regular standing, and is an integral part of the system. She has her place on the salary schedule, shares in insurance and pension privileges, and is eligible for promotion in the system. Since it may be possible to have a librarian only if she teaches part of the time, it is especially important that she be a trained teacher.

In the light of what he hopes his library to be, the principal should consider what teacher has the temperament, interests and personal qualifications for this work.

The librarian should be the teacher whom the children trust and in whom they recognize a warmth of sympathy and understanding. She should be one whom the faculty also trust, and for whom they have a wholesome liking and respect. Deep-rooted in herself she must have the love of books and an unobtrusive but active desire to share them with others. Her creed must include belief in the child, and belief in the social, spiritual and emotional values of the library as a social environment. She must have knowledge of the school's curriculum, and of the classroom methods of her fellow-teachers, ability to carry on her informal library procedure successfully, ability to work harmoniously with teachers, and ability to keep the technical routine of the library running smoothly.

Such a person is to be found on nearly every faculty. Is she your best teacher? Then she is the one who, in the position of librarian, may radiate her influence most widely throughout the school.

The selection of such a person is the first step towards the creation of a library. Equally important, and sometimes underestimated, is the necessity of special training.

Existing standards on library training—For many years there have been national standards of school librarianship for secondary schools and colleges, emanating from two national associations. The first national standards appear in the *Report on Library Standards and Equipment for Secondary Schools*, prepared by a committee of the North Central Association under the chairmanship of C. C. Certain and adopted by the National Education Association and the American Library Association. A college degree, and one year special library training in an accredited library school, with one year

library experience, was the stated requirement for a librarian of the high school.

During 1927 to 1928 a survey of High School Libraries was made by a committee of the North Central Association under the chairmanship of Mr. E. L. Miller, assistant superintendent of schools of Detroit and the findings were published in the *North Central Quarterly* for September, 1928.

Following this survey a committee on quantitative standards, under the chairmanship of Mr. Miller, carried on this work. This committee will submit its report to the North Central Association in March, 1930. It specifies for the training of the secondary school librarian a college degree divided into:

75 hours academic work
15 hours education
30 hours library training

120 semester hours

or the alternative standard of a college degree with an additional year, or 30 hours, of library training. The hours of "education" may vary with the demands of the city and state but in general "education" should constitute a minor and library science a major in a four year college course.

The American Library Association working through its Board of Education for Librarianship has been surveying, classifying, and making recommendations for the curriculums of the various types of accredited library schools. In the *Second Annual Report* of this Board appears the first recommendation for the training of elementary school librarians.

Because of the definite need that the elementary school librarian should also be a teacher a curriculum is suggested for use in Normal Schools and Teachers Colleges, and requires 16 hours special library training, which is approximately half the library specialization required for the secondary school librarian.

The American Library Association publishes standards for elementary school libraries, in which the subject of training is not considered.

At the present time these constitute the nation-wide standards. Many states have definite library laws and provisions for certification of school librarians and in many of the larger cities the problem of training librarians has necessitated local standards and provisions for training in the nearest university or local teachers college.

Special training for librarians—What must be included in the training of a school librarian who has teacher training and experience? This question is debatable in its details, but in general there is agreement that she must develop first, a philosophy and point of view. Second, she must learn how to create the library environment. Third, she must learn a number of special library technics such as classification and arrangement of books, circulation and care of materials, library record keeping and report making, processes of borrowing materials from outside sources, and all of the machinery upon which the library rides with such apparent ease and serenity. (This phase of the work is usually either overestimated by the school administration, with too great insistence on cataloging or underestimated, as when no time is allowed in a day's program for these essential processes.) Fourth, and highly important, she must learn to know and to select children's books. Fifth, she must learn reference books, and how to serve the classroom reference needs of teachers and children. Sixth, she must understand how to teach children to use the library and books. Seventh, she must have opportunity for practice and observation in a good school library.

Out of these needs the American Library Association through its Board of Education for Librarianship has set up the following suggested curriculum.¹ This is recommended for the second year of the three-year teachers college or normal school, and for the second semester of the first year of the two-year institution.

	Semester Hours
Book selection and allied topics for the school library.....	2
Cataloging, classification, etc., for the school library.....	2
Children's literature and story telling.....	2
Field work (children's rooms, school libraries).....	2
Library work with children.....	2
Methods of teaching the use of the library.....	2
Reference and bibliography for the school library.....	2
The place, function, administration of the library in the modern school	2
	16

As an example of how this curriculum may be adapted, its adaptation to the needs of Detroit school libraries is cited. This has evolved during the past 10 years. Fifteen, with a possible 20 hours of library specialization have been offered to teachers college students in their third year, or in "in-service" and summer courses to experienced teachers.

¹See the *Second Annual Report of the Board of Education for Librarianship*, American Library Association, Chicago, 1926, p. 74.

	Semester Hours
Children's literature.....	3
Elementary school library administration.....	3
Reference and book selection for elementary schools.....	3
Cataloging and classification.....	3
Methods of teaching the use of the library.....	3
Field work.....	2
Research (may be applied to a library problem).....	3
	20

Beginning in September, 1930, the Detroit library courses are planned to offer 30 hours in the four years leading to the degree. The following set-up is tentatively arranged.

	Semester Hours
Foundation courses	
School library organization.....	2
Book selection.....	2
Reference.....	2
Cataloging.....	2
Classification.....	2
Methods of teaching the use of the library.....	2
	12
Additional required courses for elementary libraries	
Elementary school library management.....	2
Practice work in elementary school libraries.....	2
Literature for children I.....	2
	6
Courses for intermediate and high school libraries	
Administration of secondary school libraries.....	2
History of libraries.....	2
Advanced reference and bibliography.....	2
Literature for children II.....	2
	8
Electives	
The intermediate school or the high school.....	2
	30

Where to obtain training—Many teachers in elementary schools are eager to fit themselves for this new work, and are at a loss to know where adequate and direct training may be had.

There is a growing tendency for Boards of Education and those public libraries which direct the library work in the schools, to enter into an argument with a nearby state or city institution which has the facilities for library training. The curriculum will vary from a possible one course, to a full standard curriculum. For example, in Cleveland teachers in training may combine their work with the curriculum of the Western Reserve Library School. At Pittsburgh,

elementary school librarians may be trained at the Carnegie Library School. At Detroit a full curriculum is offered at the Teachers College. The library school of the University of Washington offers courses for school librarians, as does also the University of Oregon.

The teacher desiring library training should consider her city and state resources, and study the catalogs of library schools and teachers' colleges. She will find an increasing number of school library courses offered, not all of which, however, are adapted to the elementary library.

With a year for study, one has a range of choice, which includes full professional library work at an accredited library school. Most school librarians, at present, however, are taking advantage of summer courses, and extension courses, and it is in summer and extension work that the greatest choice of school library courses is offered.

The strongest tendency to be observed at the present time is that of introducing a library curriculum into the teachers college. When such a plan includes high academic standards, a competent library faculty, adequate library facilities, and practice libraries in schools, and when it can meet the standards necessary for accrediting by the American Library Association, this combination of librarian and teacher training offers the hope of answering the need for ever larger numbers of well-prepared elementary school librarians.

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THE EQUIPMENT OF THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL LIBRARY¹

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APPRECIATION of the library as an essential part of the elementary school is rapidly increasing. A thorough consideration of modern educational objectives and of the nature and aspects of the learning processes places a premium on that agency which provides an attractive environment, abundant reading materials, stimulating social contacts, and facilitates a wholesome interrelationship of all departments of the school.

The numerous and varied activities of the school library, and the importance of such features as comfort, attractiveness, and general utility give prominence to units of furniture and equipment which are especially desirable in this department. The careful selection of the different items is so essential it is suggested that wherever school library service is to be established, the librarian or teacher who is to be in charge should be consulted in advance of the purchase or installation of furniture and equipment for this unit. Rarely can all desires be fulfilled, but this foresight will be directly in the interest of the proper ultimate functioning of the library.

Lighting—Since reading is to be the chief activity of this room the lighting facilities should be most carefully planned. Exposure from one side, admitting plenty of light and sunshine, is best. If there are no skylights, the width of the room must be restricted so as to preserve the efficiency of window lights. The glass area should approximate one fifth to one fourth of the floor area. Artificial lighting should be provided by means of indirect ceiling fixtures hung sufficiently low.

Walls and ceiling—Light grey or buff walls are the finishes approved by authorities. White or ivory white are best for the ceiling. There should be picture moulding but no chair rails or wainscoting.

Finish of woodwork and furniture—Light colors are preferable in woodwork, trim and furnishings. Light oak is excellent and when properly finished is very durable.

The finishes in the reading library rooms of the Seattle Public Schools are as follows: ceiling, cream color; walls, a light buff, so as to give more reflection from the ceiling for the artificial as well as natural light; woodwork, a light finish; desk, tables and chairs, a

¹ This article is taken almost entirely from the author's book *The Elementary School Library* (1929) by permission of the publishers, Charles Scribner's Sons.

walnut brown, which, with large semi-indirect lighting fixtures hung at the proper height for best results, gives a pleasing general effect.¹

Floors—Since much of the furniture is not stationary and free movement about the library is frequently to be encouraged, the floor should be covered with cork carpet or heavy linoleum to deaden sound. This point of quietness can scarcely be overemphasized. If suitable floor covering is not provided, rubber tips must be provided for the chairs.

Shelving—In planning the library, as far as practicable, radiators, pipes, and thermostats should be placed so as to leave as much wall space as possible for book shelving, magazine and newspaper racks, and cupboards. The standard adjustable library shelf is three feet long, eight inches wide, and one inch thick. In the elementary school there should be five shelves, the lowest two 12 inches apart, the remaining three 10 inches apart. With a base of four or five inches and a plain two-inch cornice at the top, the sections will be about five feet high. The uprights should be solid, and these together with base and top should be flush with the shelves.

The amount of space to be used for storage cupboards depends largely on whether a librarian's workroom is provided. If there is a workroom, the main reading room should have two three-foot sections of shelves 12 inches deep substituted for the regular shelving. Also provision should be made for built-in magazine and newspaper racks. The standards of the National Education Association and the American Library Association call for cupboards with solid doors in the alternate space between the lowest shelf and the next above. There should also be one section with glass doors for finely illustrated books and rare editions. If there is no workroom, then the space of an additional section or two should be devoted to storage cupboards for books, magazines and a limited amount of extra large material.

Tables—The standard reading table is three feet by five feet. The rows of tables should be placed so that the ends are parallel to the wall which admits the greatest amount of light. Before arranging or even selecting the tables, the shape and illumination of the room should be studied. The room shape may make it advisable to select tables somewhat longer and to avoid placing a chair at the end opposite a bank of windows. The height of tables should be 24 inches, 26 inches, and 28 inches, the proportion of each depending on the range and number of classes that will use the room. From a study of seven schools in 1927, the author compiled the following data with

¹ These finishes developed by F. A. Naramore, architect, Seattle Public Schools.

reference to the provision of tables and chairs and their adjustment to the needs of the children:

- School A. Tables 24 inches and 26 inches, chairs accordingly.
B. Five tables 25 inches, five tables 28 inches. One smaller for circulating.
C. Tables 30 inches high, 29 inches wide, 72 inches long.
D. Medium and large in upper grade; small in lower library.
E. Two sizes tables and chairs.
F. All medium.
G. Low table and chairs for little children. Some low benches.

The two library-reading rooms of the B. F. Day School, Seattle, Washington, are now equipped with standard (3 feet x 5 feet) library tables and chairs to match. The upper room which accommodates the fourth to sixth grades has six 27 inch tables and two 28 inch tables; the other room, which accommodates the third and fourth grades has six 26 inch tables and two 25 inch tables.¹ There is also an additional table for reference materials accessible at all times to pupils and teachers from other departments of the school. Hence these rooms are able to care for several individuals in addition to the class that is regularly scheduled to the library. Such equipment provides a comfortable and attractive environment for recreational reading. Also, it facilitates the handling of groups of various sizes for numerous other phases of work that are required.

Chairs—The chairs should be chosen with the greatest care. The gradual and often half-hearted introduction of library facilities in a school sometimes means the gathering together from numerous random sources a collection of chairs and tables that are not only unattractive but uncomfortable. Chairs should be light, strong and without arms. As to height in comparison with tables the 14 inch, 16 inch, and 18 inch chairs go respectively with 24 inch, 26 inch, and 28 inch tables. Rubber tips are necessary unless suitable floor covering is provided.

Miscellaneous furniture and equipment—Schools vary greatly not only in their ability to equip their reading rooms adequately, but in organization, and hence have need for various kinds of equipment. Table 1, compiled from a few reputable sources, will perhaps prove suggestive as well as indicate the more essential items. Asterisks opposite an item mean that this piece of equipment is recommended by the authority cited at the head of the column.

It should be understood that the various lists upon which Table 1 was based were not originally presented as complete. Minimal essentials in equipment, accompanied with brief explanatory notes, are given in the following paragraphs.

¹These measurements refer to height of table top above the floor.

TABLE 1—MISCELLANEOUS LIBRARY FURNITURE AND EQUIPMENT

Items	Planning the School Library (A. L. A.)	School Library Manage- ment (Wilson)	School Library Service (A. L. A., Eaton)
Bulletin boards	*	*	*
Atlas stand	*	*	*
Book truck	..	*	..
Catalog case	..	*	..
Celluloid picture holders.....	*	*	*
Display case	*	*	*
Exhibit case	..	..	*
Filing case	..	..	..
Charging tray	..	*	..
Blackboard	..	..	..
Librarian's desk	*	*	*
Magazine rack	*	*	*
Typewriter	..	*	*
Typewriter desk	..	..	*
Vertical file	*	*	*

Bulletin boards—Wall spaces between windows should be used, when possible. A portable board will also be found serviceable. No library should be without these. Among the numerous uses to which they may be put are posting notices concerning routine library practices, announcement of projects to be undertaken, announcements of new books or magazines received, notices of committee meetings, book reviews, and interesting clippings and photographs from various sources.

Catalog case—The catalog case should always be bought from a reliable dealer in library supplies. The initial purchase for a small library should be a case of not less than four or six drawers.

Book supports—Economy, convenience, and general appearance are all served through the consistent use of book supports. Schools having metal-shops will find the making of these a worthwhile project.

Display case—The library of Lincoln School, Teachers College, Columbia University, uses to decided advantage a display case which combines a shelf and bulletin board. Here are found attractive cover designs of new books, also clever posters, many of which are the work of pupils in the school.

Charging trays—The charging trays can be provided in various forms. As a beginning a small library with limited funds may use shoe boxes with pasteboard slips to classify the book cards. As soon as possible, these should be supplemented with double wooden trays placed upon the librarian's desk. Eventually, the library having adequate appropriations should be equipped with a specially designed

librarian's desk. The desk will care for a variety of details such as filing cards, and fine money.

Librarian's desk—The librarian's desk is a most important piece of furniture. The size and design of the desk should, of course, be in keeping with the other appointments of the library.

Magazine rack—Through careful planning, magazine racks can usually be provided as a built-in feature, one section of regular shelving being omitted to provide the required space. A table may be used for magazines, but such an arrangement is not conducive to neatness and good appearance.

Typewriter—A typewriter is a necessity in any library. If it is not provided, the typewriter in the principal's office can be used occasionally.

Vertical file—Pamphlets, clippings, pictures, and other loose materials rapidly accumulate in an active library. If well classified and properly filed, these become valuable reference material which supplement the textbooks to great advantage.

Supplies—Even a small library, if well organized, requires quite an assortment of supplies. A few items, not peculiar to the needs of the library, may usually be obtained from the general school supply room. These are: blotters, scratch paper, pencils, paper clips, thumb tacks, pencil sharpener, penholders, rulers, ink, paste, paste brushes, twine, rubber bands, chalk, and scissors. A list of more technical supplies to be procured mainly from firms dealing in library supplies is shown in Table 2. The items of this table are selected from a list of articles for use in a platoon library.¹

The list of supplies required for a given library should be compiled by the person in charge, provided she has had a course in library training. Size of school and type of organization are determining factors. The more truly the library becomes the "heart of the school" the greater will be the need for a wide variety of supplies.

Librarian's workroom—Library efficiency requires the provision of a workroom. Here routine work, consisting of the preparation of new books and magazines for the shelves and racks, book-mending, and typing, is performed and a wide range of materials is stored. Plans for new buildings should include either an alcove or separate room communicating directly with the library. In establishing library service in an old building, it is often possible to select for library quarters a classroom with alcove or small room adjacent or

¹ Pritchard, Martha C. *Platoon School Libraries*. Part II. Manual published by Detroit Teachers' College, 1926.

TABLE 2—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL LIBRARY SUPPLIES

Article	Unit	Distribution
Adhesive mending tissue.....	sheet	5
Binder, double stitched, 1½", 2", 3".....	roll	3 of each
Blotters, large	each	12
Bone folder	"	1
Book pockets	"	300
Book support, steel	"	50
Catalog cards, unruled white.....	"	1000
Charging cards	"	300
Charging guides	set	1
Eraser, art gum.....	each	1
File, folders, manila, Cap. size.....	"	100
Ink, drawing	bottle	1
Ink eraser, steel	each	1
Pamphlet binders, 5 x 9, 6 x 10, 8 x 11.....	"	50 of each
Pencil, date holder, and set of dates....	"	1
Pens, stub	box	1
Press board guides for vertical file A-Z		
Cap. size	sets	2
Punch	each	1
Shellac	pint	1
Slips, reserve	each	100
Stamp pads	"	1

near by which will serve as a librarian's workroom. Shelving, similar to that in the main room should be built in. The two lower shelves will serve as cupboards. Additional storage facilities can be gained by substituting wide shelving for one or more sections of the regular shelving. Doors should be provided here. A sink and running water are essential. The size and location of the work table will depend largely upon the shape and dimensions of the room.

The ends justify the means—As in the industrial world, successful school administration depends upon sound business methods. The efficient school superintendent or principal not only sets up objectives, measures results, and weighs psychological and social values, but also adopts financial budgets, takes inventories, and buys equipment and supplies intelligently.

No matter how small the beginning, the school library budget should include the items of furniture and equipment. For approximate costs reference may be made to a price list¹ published by the American Library Association. Whenever library service is to be established in large schools, usually the most essential items of furniture and equipment can be provided at once.

¹ American Library Association, *Elementary School Library Standards*. Chicago, 1925, p. 21-23.

Frequently, in smaller schools the less essential units can be added only as funds become available. In dealing with this financial problem progressive school people will not lose sight of the major aims in the important field of reading at the elementary school level: (1) rich and varied experience through reading; (2) strong motives for, and permanent interests in reading; and (3) desirable attitudes, and economical and effective habits.

A careful survey of "The library at work"—use of the card catalog, withdrawing books for classroom and home reading, looking up references, studying bulletin boards, browsing among the new books and magazines, lessons in the use of the library—suggests the economy and practicality of suitable and adequate physical appointments.

THE school paper can be an asset to any school, providing it is made a part of the regular school curriculum. The larger the number of pupils that participate in the composition and production, the greater will be the benefit to the school. A paper to be of greatest value to a school should be read by both the parents and the townspeople.—Raymond S. Michael, see Chapter XII

LIBRARY AND TEXTBOOK SERVICE

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AN ECCLESIAST of some four thousand years ago declared: ". . . of making many books there is no end; and much reading is a weariness of the flesh." His declaration as to the making of books is proving to be true, and while it is possible to find many children at home and also many pupils in school who grow weary while reading (and of their reading), the amount of reading now being carried on by children of from six to twelve years of age is evidence that the early preacher's statement is scarcely applicable to twentieth century youth.

The United States Bureau of Education calls attention to the greatly extended and improved library service, especially in rural districts, during the last biennium. Explanation for this advancement is assigned to new and better legislation, to state supervision of school libraries, to extension of traveling library service, and to the extension of cooperative effort between schools and public libraries.

Three additional explanations may be countenanced as yet more vital. Our newer schools are proving to be far more effective than in earlier years in developing in pupils ability to read freely at a much younger age. In the eighties and nineties a one-reader program per grade was the custom. How haltingly did that early reading progress! Now-a-days our first grade pupils *read* from a half dozen to a half hundred books within the year. And many children read additional books at home, not usually accounted for at school.

Better methods in the initial steps in reading are promptly followed in our modern schools by a greatly enriched curriculum. The "activity program" is not, as many erroneously regard it, a provision for mere bodily movement in doing things—good, bad, or indifferent. The approved activity program is essentially a provision for very greatly extending vital contacts by pupils with the activities of home, social, and industrial life. It is this greatly enriched curriculum that motivates the much extended reading habit.

Further, to the credit of both authors and publishers, our youth of today are more and more generously supplied with attractive and profitable books. This environment of books is a great inducement to read.

But our conventional textbooks are evidently too limited in number to satisfy the insatiable reading interests of these young people; and are too meager in information to contribute satisfactorily to the

progress of their activity program. Most schools are provided with the basal text in various subjects. Each pupil has a copy. Supplementary texts are supplied in sets, sometimes sufficient in number to supply each pupil with a copy. More frequently each set numbers less copies than the membership of the class. At this point the school library enters and contributes tremendously to the tendency to supply our pupils with reading material far in excess of the traditional textbook.

It is this current trend in the modern school that gives occasion for a yet more serious inquiry into relative service that may be rendered by the textbook and the library in public school work.¹

From 1905 to 1923 an experiment was conducted at the University of Missouri in the elementary school of the School of Education.² The curriculum of that school was taken directly from the life activities of children and adults and expressed in terms of those activities rather than in terms of the traditional Three-R subjects. This curriculum called for a study of life acts rather than school acts. To accomplish this objective a library of 3000 volumes was a substitute for the conventional textbooks. The results in terms of the traditional school subjects,³ as well as in terms of the objectives of the school were highly gratifying. This experiment was not conducted as a "model" school exhibiting practices to be adopted by other schools. But that school did exhibit, in a much advanced form, a school policy clearly in harmony with a present tendency in our public schools, namely, a greater use of the library and a relatively less use of the traditional textbook.

The purpose of this article is to present some facts that may encourage schools in their present tendency and to offer some suggestions for the extension of library equipment in public school work. One issue relates to the relative economy in expenditures for textbooks and libraries. Another issue questions investments irrespective of current expenditures.

We may first ask: What is the cost of textbooks used? The United States Bureau of Education reports⁴ the median costs of free text-

¹ By reason of a number of unavoidable mishaps, this article is only a portion of the study intended when promised for this yearbook. It may serve to introduce a problem calling for much further investigation.

² A discussion of the principles involved in that experiment is presented in *Child Life and the Curriculum* by J. L. Meriam. The World Book Company, 1920.

³ See *Child Life and the Curriculum*, chapter 19.

⁴ *Bulletin*, 1923, No. 50, page 7.

books for the elementary grades, during the year 1919-20, per capita of enrolment:

Population of Cities	Cost per pupil
100,000 or more.....	\$.76
30,000 to 100,000.....	.68
10,000 to 30,000.....	.65

But the bulletin does not indicate with accuracy of what this cost consists. Moehlman, in his study of school finance,¹ gives the cost of securing new textbooks in Detroit for the several grades:

First grade	\$1.90 per child
Second grade	1.65 per child
Third grade	2.95 per child
Fourth grade	3.68 per child
Fifth grade	4.38 per child
Sixth grade	4.47 per child
Seventh grade	4.10 per child
Eighth grade	4.08 per child

Two leading factors in the actual cost of textbooks are:

1. Interest on the purchasing price of the books. This is virtually an investment.
2. The amount of depreciation in the books through use. This is virtually the cost of upkeep.

In various studies of textbook costs, I find no account taken of the interest on the investment. Of depreciation in the books, Moehlman says: "Very little research has been made in this direction, and general data for determining textbook replacement are lacking. . . . In some books depreciation is as high as 100 percent, while in others it is as low as 15 percent. . . . The general average for depreciation may range from 25 to 33½ percent."²

I present data on a preliminary investigation to show more accurately the actual costs of textbooks including the two items, interest on investment and the cost of depreciation. The data for this study are supplied by the office of the superintendent of schools of Los Angeles, California. These data consist of the semi-annual requisitions made by the city superintendent upon the office of the state superintendent for state textbooks. These requisitions show the number of books in condition to use for each of the school subjects, on hand at the time of requisition. The number of additional books required is indicated. These requisitions usually made out in January and July of each year indicate also the enrolment by grades. The data here used are the ten requisitions from July, 1922 to (but not including) July, 1927.

¹ Moehlman, A. B. *Public School Finance*, page 261. Rand McNally, 1927.

² *Ibid.*, page 260. The figures quoted are probably estimates, not findings.

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¹ Moehlman, A. B. *Public School Finance*, page 261. Rand McNally, 1927.

² *Ibid.*, page 260. The figures quoted are probably estimates, not findings.

The investment consists of the funds represented in the cost of books on hand, July, 1922. Interest on this investment is calculated at 7 percent.

The actual depreciation is ascertained by adding to the books on hand in July, 1922, the books purchased during the five years considered and from this amount deducting the books on hand in July, 1927. The price of each of the various texts multiplied by the number of books gives the real cost of depreciation.

The reader would not be interested in all the details of these calculations. Table 1 shows the number of readers from primary to eighth grades consumed, the price of each and the total costs. Table 2 gives a summary of the seven classes of books used during the five years. This summary omits

199,369 copy books, costing.....	\$ 5,981.07
91,277 music readers, costing.....	26,716.29

inasmuch as these two items do not enter the library problem considered in this study. Table 3 shows the investment in books on hand, July, 1922.

The sum of the cost of books consumed in the five years (\$223,423.36—Table 2) and the interest for five years at 7 percent on the investment (\$42,859.20—Table 3) is a fairly accurate cost (\$266,282.56) of textbook service during these five years.

Table 4 shows the enrolment by years and by grades, with a total of 692,625 year-pupils for the five year period. The actual textbook cost divided by the number of year-pupils gives 38.4 cents as the cost per pupil per year for textbook service during that time.

TABLE 1—COST OF READERS *

July, 1922—July, 1927

Texts	No. Books Consumed	Price	Cost
Primer	23,198	\$.24	\$5,567.52
First reader	24,341	.24	5,841.84
Second reader	26,749	.27	7,222.23
Third reader	28,482	.31	8,829.42
Fourth reader	16,737	.38	6,360.06
Fifth reader	13,303	.42	5,587.26
Sixth reader	16,743	.33	5,525.19
Seventh reader	15,125	.31	4,688.75
Eighth reader	9,572	.32	3,063.04
	174,252		\$52,685.31

* This table for the cost of readers is presented as a sample of others used to construct Table 2.

TABLE 2—COST OF TEXTBOOKS
July, 1922—July, 1927

Texts	Number Consumed	Cost
Reader	174,252	\$52,685.31
Speller	147,411	6,594.54
Arithmetic	106,999	40,620.63
English	40,920	13,900.32
Geography	70,838	41,721.85
History	97,882	60,169.51
Hygiene	19,328	7,731.20
	657,630	\$223,423.36

TABLE 3—INVESTMENT IN TEXTBOOKS ON HAND JULY, 1922

Texts	Number	Price	Investment
Primer	17,084	\$.24	\$ 4,100.16
First reader	14,324	.24	3,437.76
Second reader	12,866	.27	3,473.82
Third reader	14,029	.31	4,348.99
Fourth reader	14,665	.38	5,572.70
Fifth reader	12,856	.42	5,399.52
Sixth reader	12,614	.33	4,162.62
Seventh reader	11,381	.31	3,528.11
Eighth reader	9,071	.32	2,902.72
Speller one	29,065	.04	1,162.60
Speller two	31,495	.05	1,574.75
Arithmetic one	24,427	.34	8,305.18
Arithmetic two	22,256	.36	8,012.16
Arithmetic three	16,571	.39	6,462.69
English one	16,587	.20	3,317.40
English two	30,983	.34	10,534.22
English three	17,313	.39	6,752.07
History begin.	15,414	.44	6,782.16
History adv.	18,470	.81	14,960.70
Geography one	10,043	.69	6,929.67
Geography two	9,915	.54	5,354.10
Hygiene	13,202	.40	5,280.80
			\$122,454.90

TABLE 4—ENROLMENT BY YEARS AND BY GRADES

Grade	1922-23	1923-24	1924-25	1925-26	1926-27
I	18,448	23,913	24,164	24,148	26,434
II	14,793	18,590	19,383	20,131	21,395
III	14,431	19,431	18,320	18,791	19,824
IV	13,211	18,159	18,384	17,910	18,969
V	13,206	17,392	17,470	17,818	18,033
VI	11,714	15,475	16,495	16,723	17,073
VII	10,698	14,732	15,666	17,379	17,060
VIII	10,146	12,891	13,099	15,008	15,718
	106,647	140,583	142,981	147,908	154,506

Total year-pupil units 692,625

This small sum of \$.384 per pupil per year as the cost of textbook service in Los Angeles for the period from July, 1922 to July, 1927 seems ridiculously low. Mr. W. S. Dyas, Chief of the Bureau of State Printed Textbooks, states in a letter: "... the cost for all Elementary State Textbooks distributed during the 79th fiscal year ending June 30, 1928, was \$.5824 per pupil." This, I understand, is cost to the state rather than cost to the local schools. The locality does not meet the full expense. Swift supplies the following interesting data¹ on California schools:

Total expenditures—elementary schools, 1919-20.....	\$30,516,052.00
Cost of textbooks as 1.52 percent of total expenditures	[\$463,843.99]
Elementary pupils enrolled, 1920.....	500,367.00

These figures indicate that for the one year, 1919-20, elementary textbooks cost \$.927 per pupil. But it is not indicated in these data whether basal and supplementary texts are included or only the state printed texts.

There seems to be considerable discrepancy between the data supplied by Swift for the whole State of California in 1920 and the statement of the Chief of the Bureau of State Printed Textbooks. The lower cost to the schools in Los Angeles is explained above. At even the highest of these three costs, the amount of \$.927 per pupil per year may be sanely deemed cheap education on the basis of textbook supply. (It should be said, before proceeding further, that it is surprising that our pupils are so well educated in our schools at that cost of books, but emphasis on this point is aside from the problem in this article.)

Cheap Education! But there is another phase of the situation which is little noted. From the data used above, Table 5 is constructed.

TABLE 5—COST OF TEXTBOOKS FOR GRADE VI FOR THE YEAR 1926-27

Texts	Price	Enrolment as No. of Copies	Cost
Sixth reader	\$.33	17,073	\$5,634.09
Speller two	.05	17,073	853.65
Arithmetic two	.36	17,073	6,146.28
English two	.34	17,073	5,804.82
Geography	.54	17,073	9,219.42

Attention is called, not to the small cost of these books, but to the small amount of *book content* at such a cost. The story material of *one sixth reader* costs \$5,634.09. What a very limited amount of

¹ Swift, Fletcher Harper, *Studies in Public School Finance*. California-Colorado Volume, pages 8, 55, and 145, respectively.

geographical information is purchased for \$9,219.42; the contents of one geography. Answer would be made by some to the effect that these texts are used essentially as methods of study, which require duplication to the extent of enrolment. But at the opening of this article, notice was made of the fact that modern methods of reading greatly reduce the use of the conventional text, and the modern activity program demands a greatly extended supply of information. In a sixth grade room of 35 pupils, \$11.55, as the cost of readers, might be much more economically expended in the purchase of one third the number of non-duplicated books of suitable reading material rather than 35 copies of one reader. A similar statement might be made more emphatically in reference to the geography. The 3000 volume library at the University of Missouri Elementary School was a most generous supply for the one hundred pupils using the books. Until some such liberal provision is made, school management on something of the platoon plan would be needed to provide alternating use of the books by adjacent rooms or groups of pupils. It may be discovered that the life of these books would be sufficiently long to insure an accumulation of books amounting soon to a very considerable library.

Thus far, reference has been made to the basal texts and the low cost. There is yet to be considered the library of:

1. Supplementary readers
2. Information books
3. Browsing table books (leisure reading)

Table 6 shows the three classes of books and the number of books in each class in each of the five years actually out in use in the schools throughout the city of Los Angeles. The librarian, Miss Jasmine Britton, comments to the effect that the life, or service, of these books will approximate four years on the average throughout the library. She also states that the cost of the supplementary readers is approximately 70 cents and the cost of books in the other two classes is approximately \$1.00 each volume.

TABLE 6—BOOKS USED, ADDITIONAL TO TEXT¹

	Supplementary Readers	Information Books	Browsing Table Books
1922-1923	46,466	87,437	96,514
1923-1924	61,385	110,984	167,408
1924-1925	83,589	122,065	197,782
1925-1926	120,675	152,467	205,460
1926-1927	147,719	214,147	207,995

¹ Data of Table 6 supplied by the librarian of the teachers' library of the Los Angeles City Schools.

Until investigation discovers more accurately the life of books in a school library (such data was not available for this study) the librarian's estimate of four years may be tentatively accepted. Referring to Table 6, we may consider that one fourth the total of books in each of the three groups for the four years, 1923 to 1927, would represent the number of books consumed in those four years. Thus we have:

103,342 supplementary readers at \$.70.....	\$ 72,339.40
149,916 information books at 1.00.....	149,916.00
194,661 browsing table books at 1.00.....	194,661.00

By dividing these costs of library books by the number of year-pupils, 585,978, for the four years, 1923-27 (see Table 4) we have the cost of this library service per pupil per year:

Supplementary readers.....	\$.123
Information books.....	.256
Browsing table books.....	.332

Let me now throw into one group (1) the basal textbooks, which are essentially exercise books, and (2) the supplementary readers, which are essentially texts.

Textbooks	\$.384 per pupil per year
Supplementary readers.....	.123 per pupil per year
Total	\$.507 per pupil per year

Similarly group together (1) information books, which in part do go to the schools in sets of duplicates but are essentially reference books to supply additional information for study, and (2) browsing table books which are leisure reading books. Some of these contain much information.

Information books.....	\$.256 per pupil per year
Browsing table books.....	.332 per pupil per year
Total	\$.588 per pupil per year

All this means that the Los Angeles schools are spending eight cents more per pupil each year upon information and leisure reading books than upon the formal texts and supplementary readers.

Is this slight emphasis placed upon the group of books which should be favored? And are our school officials to be encouraged to spend more upon information books and leisure reading books, or are they to be warned against a neglect of the formal texts? The answer may be found in the results of an investigation into the relative service of these two groups of books. One can see in Table 6 that in these five years the percentage of increases was higher for the supplementary readers than for the other two groups combined. But

Table 6 does not include the increasingly large number of books drawn from public libraries, especially branch libraries near or even connected with individual schools. The general observer is impressed with the great increase in library books and the apparent lessening in the actual use of the formal text. The data used above seem to support this general observation. Unquestionably the greatly increasing activity programs call for marked increases in library material. We have yet to discover the extent to which we can reduce the use of the formal school text, in order to provide adequately a library for the enriched curriculum.

OUR schools have been so engrossed in the past with the academic factor that they have failed to adequately stress the importance of attitudes which give the learner satisfactions along the educative road. Such attitudes have much to do with the development of a high type of school morale.—
Nellie A. Remick, see Chapter X

ELEMENTARY SCIENCE AND THE SCHOOL MUSEUM

GRACE DAUGHERTY

Elementary Supervisor, Lakewood Public Schools, Lakewood, Ohio

HOW DOES the school museum play an important part in the education of the young child? It remains and strengthens his spirit of inquiry, satisfies his collective instinct, encourages him to share his treasures, and creates social relationships reaching beyond the doors of the classroom. Children want to learn. What agency provides greater opportunity for the growing child to live and learn naturally than that afforded by the ever changing school museum?

A museum is a collection of natural, scientific, and literary curiosities, objects of interest or works of art. The collection may consist of real specimens or models in the classroom, school building, or in the community. With this in mind it is my purpose to give some of our experiences connected directly and indirectly with school museums.

Talks by the museum teacher—Two closely related factors, namely, cooperation with the Cleveland Museum of Natural History and our emphasis upon elementary science, have been largely responsible for the interest in the development and use of the school museums. After two years of cooperation with the Cleveland Museum of Natural History, Lakewood, a suburb of Cleveland, has evolved the present plan of lectures and exhibits. Each semester a museum teacher talks to the children in the elementary schools, which include the kindergarten and the first six grades. His four carefully planned subjects aim to be seasonal, to teach something of the locality, and to relate themselves closely to the phases of elementary science with which the course of study deals. The theme for all grades is the same, but the content differs to interest the primary and intermediate groups. For example, the older children hear about "Lakewood's Woods," the younger children learn "How a Tree Grows Big," the older children hear "Sharp Teeth," the little folks learn "How the Beaver Builds his House." Other interesting talks include: "When Ohio Was under the Ocean," "When Lakewood Was a Lake," "Things That Breathe," "The Heavenly Zoo," and "A Pocketful of Minerals." The talks, well illustrated with real material and slides, never fail to instruct and to please the children.

In preparation for these lectures, each teacher receives an outline of the lecture and each child in the upper grade, a letter challenging his knowledge of the topic. Excerpts follow.

THIS TICKET ADMITS YOU TO THE TALK ON SEVEN SLEEPERS

All the sleepers are mammals. Fill in the blanks.

The B - - and the B - - -, they never care

What winter winds may blow;

The Jumping M - - - -, in his cozy house,

Is safe from ice and snow.

The C - - - - - and the W - - - - - ,

The S - - - -, who's slow but sure

The ringed R - - - - - who hates the moon,

Have found for cold the cure.

—Samuel Scoville, Jr.

DIVING BIRDS

If your feet were as long as your legs and as wide as your shoulders, how well could you walk? Draw such a picture of yourself walking.

WINDS AND RAIN IN THE GREAT BASIN

The waters of the ocean cover nearly three-fourths of the earth. Water from brooks, streams, ponds, rivers, and lakes keeps flowing into the ocean. Why doesn't the ocean overflow and drown us all?

Exhibits loaned by the Cleveland Museum illustrate each lecture. Specimens of Bob White, wood-pecker, chickadee, nuthatch, cardinal, brown creeper, goldfinch, and junco assure identification of our winter birds, "Back Door Neighbors." In the spring time an electrical chart, a fascinating device, flashed the month of the birds' return. Other exhibits planned for the year are Fish, Minerals, Social Animals, Moundbuilders of Ohio, Indians, and Eskimos. Unusual plants, visiting animals, and children's contributions add to the attractiveness of the branch museum.

The parent-teacher associations of Lakewood equipped a third floor room of Wilson School, centrally located, with four walnut cases, insect proof, with removable backs, facilitating the change of these exhibits. Parents as well as children frequent this museum open to the general public three afternoons and one evening each week.

The teachers of science—The second factor pertaining to the development and use of the school museum is the teachers' interest in elementary science stimulated by the Nature Council, composed of one enthusiastic naturalist from each elementary school. An outstanding feature of the Council's work is the week-end Nature Institute. Last October approximately one-half of our elementary teachers spent some time at Lantern Lodge, the Lakewood Y. W. C. A. Camp on the shore of Lake Erie, 10 miles west of the city. Council members acted as hostesses and gave instructions. On Saturday morning groups organized for different purposes. Some went to search for wild flowers, to learn the trees in the camp, others to fish

in the brook, still others to split rocks on the shore, or to identify the birds of the neighborhood, while another group observed the building of a terrarium. In the afternoon these groups interchanged. Some teachers preferred to print leaves, read books, or wander at will. Evenings about the camp fire passed pleasantly with legends, songs, and star games. At this Institute, now regarded as one of the worthwhile activities of the school year, teachers make new contacts, exchange ideas, and find novel interests in the out-of-doors. Weighted with specimens they leave camp, taking with them a strong desire to grasp each opportunity to help children and use their own museums.

How have these two influences manifested themselves in the classroom?—Tadpoles growing legs, crayfish with their young, mother snails and baby snails, turtles, clams, lizards, bloodsuckers, fish, boatmen, and striders stock the aquariums. Snakes, opossums, chipmunks, rabbits, white mice, tame crows, canaries, baby chicks, and alligators visit schools. Moths emerge from cocoons; male crickets sing while the female deposits her eggs in the earth. Bittersweet and milkweed pods open; witchhazel scatters its seeds. Miniature hot beds start plants for the home gardens; slips growing in water make a Christmas dish for mother. Common rocks classify as conglomerate, quartz, flint, granite, mica, shale, or slate. Shells become pen shell, Crusader's shell, angel wing, whelks, conch, Venus's comb, scorpion, and helmet. A cupboard museum containing well arranged specimens with labels on one side and comments on the other encourage first grade children to read.

Interest extends beyond the classroom. A cellar museum, the pride of the neighborhood, displays the treasures of a small boy—a black snake skin, "Skinned by Daddy and me"; a copperhead skin, "Presented by Daddy"; stones from Buffalo Bill's grave; specimens of coal brought home in his clean white sweater; flint from Ohio's caves; a dollar fish; seaweeds, "From Aunt Bertha"; shells from China; an almond from Edison's garden, and a skeleton of a canary's eye.

Summary—Lakewood teachers are of the opinion that the school museum is an important factor in education. Children look forward to the lectures and their exhibits eagerly. Books in libraries and schools have greater use. Articles in newspapers and magazines become meaningful. Superstitions and wrong impressions disappear. Children have increased desire to collect and organize; they take pleasure in sharing their experiences with others. Since the child himself made it, the school museum has become a place of vital import in his life.

CHAPTER XIV

THE PRINCIPAL'S COMMUNITY RELATIONSHIPS

STUDYING THE COMMUNITY

JOHN S. THOMAS

Principal, Clippert School, Detroit, Michigan

EDUCATION is a race between civilization and catastrophe, according to H. G. Wells. Educational sociologists are generally agreed that education must point the way and lead society in its rapidly changing form and organization. The consensus of opinion among these writers is that education lags behind. At the present time it is considerably behind the social structure.

It would seem that the school must maintain an intimate and constant contact with the community, of which it should be the center, if it is to assume the important place allotted to it. A careful analysis of the immediate community, as a part of the larger city, should be one phase of every school's activity. The purpose of this article is to suggest possible sources of information that will serve to give a clear understanding of the community's peculiar problems and needs.

In this presentation, there is no attempt to discuss the formulation of a program of adjustment based on collected information, as such an undertaking appears to be an entirely different and separate phase of the principal's supervisory program.

The plan described below is naturally colored by the conditions under which the writer's experience has been gained. No definite policy is presented. Not all of the information discussed, and not all of the contents made, were secured in one school. The writer's present school is situated in the heart of a combined residential and industrial district. Parents are largely foreign-born. English is the language used in comparatively few homes. Parents are not well-to-do, and children are under a considerable handicap for this reason. The previous school is located in a moderately affluent neighborhood where parents are all American-born, and where there is no language handicap. The two situations, though quite dissimilar, show the value to the principal of certain knowledge gathered according to the same basic principles.

Why study the community?—To meet the individual needs of each child in a school requires a broad and sympathetic understanding of the community from which he comes, not only on the part of the

principal, but also by everyone who is connected with the school in any way. It is desirable to collect a background reservoir of information that will serve, perhaps wholly unconsciously, in the solution of many problems. This understanding, which can come only through careful study of the community will serve to unite the three human factors in education—the child, the parents, and the teacher. The information secured by studying the community should serve as a foundation on which to create and to build a spirit of cooperation between the school and the district. A policy of community study is in direct accord with the Code of Ethics of the National Education Association: "The teacher should seek to establish friendly and intelligent cooperation between the home and the school."¹

Too frequently, the conduct and materials of a school, whether it be the center of a single school system, or merely one unit in a much larger system, are decided by some authority far removed from direct personal contact with the homes from which the children come. Text-books are written and published to fit general situations. Courses of study are seldom devised to fit the needs of an individual school. Adaptations and adjustments must be made in any material to fit it to particular needs. If adjustments are made, they should not be haphazard and based only on estimates of conditions, which after all are little more than guesses. They should be based on facts—facts secured through personal contacts with the school neighborhood. "Progressive theory holds that a major responsibility of the principal is to adjust the school to the local community."²

If education is training in life, it is vital that the school be thoroughly cognizant of all the factors influencing the small proportion of the child's life that is spent under the guidance of teachers. It seems desirable to think of education as a joint enterprise, an enterprise in which the child, the parents, and the teachers unite in the common purpose of providing every possible opportunity for the child to develop. Modern theory says the chief function of the school is to teach the social concept. The aim is to teach attitudes and ideals as they effect human relationships. The school cannot proceed blindly. The many home factors influencing this kind of teaching must be considered.

In addition to the necessity for an understanding of the community for purposes of instructional adjustment, another closely related activity of the school will benefit from the accumulated knowledge of actual

¹ Article 1, Section 5, "Code of Ethics," *Journal of The National Education Association*, Vol. 18, No. 8, Nov., 1929, p. 261.

² See "The Principal as a Supervisor," *Research Bulletin*, the National Education Association, Vol. VII, No. 5, Nov., 1929, p. 297.

conditions. This is the public relations program. To secure the highest form of cooperation between the home and the school, it is essential not only that the school know the community, but also that the community know and understand the school. A clear, straight-forward program of information to the community describing conditions, and telling the aims and purposes of the school is of inestimable value in securing confidence from, and the support of, the people of the district. It appears that the community study and public relations programs are rather inseparably connected. School papers, community papers, report cards, and other notices from the school to the home should be based on a knowledge of the way in which they are received and the impressions they make.¹

In considering a program of this kind it is imperative that recognition be given the tremendous problems faced by the schools in adjusting to the multiplicity of demands, and the wide divergence of conditions encountered in the heterogeneity of American life. Miller and Charles recognize the stupendous problems when they say:

The heaviest part of the task of making Americans out of the foreign-born and the children of the foreign-born rests upon the schools of the nation. It is one of the most difficult tasks in all history. Its performance necessarily involves the cooperation of all of America with the schools.²

Palmer, in considering the purely instructional problems of the school, also takes an accounting of the situation:

Among those conditions which oftentimes produce failure in school work are foreign parentage, unfavorable home and neighborhood conditions, and the conflict between the ideals and customs of the home and the school.³ Unless the school knows these conditions through actual, personal contact, it does not seem that it is properly fitted to conduct instruction which is designed to fit practical needs.

What information is desired?—There are many different kinds of information that the principal and teachers want concerning the parents and the district at large. The first of these, although it may not be the most important, is that attitude toward life which parents hold. It is commonly agreed that not all groups of people expect the same monetary returns. Although America theoretically knows no classes, economic conditions sometimes group together those of the same general education and experience. Some groups tend to think

¹ See Moehlman, Arthur B., *Public School Relations*, Rand McNally and Company, 1927.

² Miller, C. R., and Charles, Fred, *Publicity and the Public School*, Houghton Mifflin Company, 1924, p. 4.

³ Palmer, Anthony Ray, *Progressive Practices in Directing Learning*, MacMillan Company, 1929, p. 199.

differently, largely because their scopes are comparatively limited through conditions partly beyond their own control. Not all people have the same understanding of citizenship and all that it implies. Not all people have the same attitude toward law and its demands. Some people look with ridicule upon the common courtesies which others consider necessities in human relationships.

The attitude toward the school constitutes a type of information that is greatly to be desired. It may be difficult to obtain, but if it can be gained it should provide a good basis for future planning of activities. Sometimes, an antagonistic feeling will be found throughout the neighborhood, through no fault or lack of the school, that may be changed easily. Or, it may be that the school is hindered by a feeling of suspicion engendered by a lack of mutual understanding. Various situations may arise during the year which through unconscious misinterpretation may have a retarding effect upon the full development of the school program.

The expectations that the community has of the school, while closely related to the attitude toward the school, will show after study what the parents want the school to do for them and their children. Some parents expect more than the school can possibly attempt. Others expect practically nothing, sending children only because the law compels them. A comprehension of the expectations will help to develop a closer cooperation.

Because of economic conditions, most of the children in some schools will leave to work as soon as possible. Facts concerning the length of school life of the children will be of considerable value in fitting the education as a means to an end.

In connection with an awareness of economic conditions in the homes, it is possible to obtain information regarding the ownership of homes. These facts are desirable because they give insights into the stability of the school population. Where home ownership is the rule, totally different conditions are usually found and there is also a tendency for children to have a greater respect for property rights.

The nationality of the parents often provides interesting facts, but it is doubtful if enough differences exist between people of other countries to provide any variation in procedure. The main fact to discover in this connection is the percentage of parents who are foreign-born and among whom American ideals of citizenship may need promulgation.

The home language spoken is of primary importance. Where it differs from English as it does in many schools, decided use must be made of the information. Children who come from homes where

English is not the language spoken are laboring under a distinct handicap. It is unfair to conduct classes for them in the way ordinarily used for most children. The kind and amount of adjustment required will depend entirely upon accurate and specific knowledge of the degree of language handicap.

To a certain degree, the occupation of the parents gives information of value to the school. Economic conditions in the homes are largely determined by the compensation the parents secure for their work. In turn, the educational opportunities of the children are affected by the circumstances imposed on them by the work of the parents.

In some school districts, there is a large percentage of broken homes, where the children have not the guidance of both a mother and a father. This knowledge on the part of the teachers and principal will many times help children.

Building surveys, which give the number of new buildings, and the general type will show what is to be expected in the near future for the school. Such a survey is frequently productive of additional information in the way of a gradual change in the entire character of a neighborhood.

There are many other types of information which may be obtained about the community. This discussion does not deal at all with educational information which the school has through various sources, but is limited to that which may better be secured outside the school and which affects the child in other than purely school relationships.

This section may be summarized for purposes of recognition: (1) attitude toward life, (2) attitude toward the school, (3) expectations of the school, (4) length of school life, (5) ownership of homes, (6) nationality of parents, (7) home language spoken, (8) occupations of parents, (9) number of broken homes, (10) new buildings.

How to study the community—If there is a sincere desire on the part of the school to make contacts with the people of the community to secure information of value to both groups, no difficulty should be encountered. Individual and group contacts may be made in innumerable ways, many of them through mutual social relationships, and others as the result of planning a definite program. No matter how the contacts are made, every one will find a place in a policy of mutual understanding between the home and the school that will tend to create a common sympathy in a great undertaking.

Of greatest value, probably, although more restricted from the standpoint of numerical strength, are the personal acquaintanceships which the principal may form with the leading men and women of the district. Many of these develop naturally as a principal stays

for a number of years in the same school. In other cases, it is necessary for the principal to assume the initiative. He must call on many people who are well considered in the community, even though they may have no children in the school. A simple, informal visit may be the forerunner of future assistance.

In those schools where worthwhile interest is manifested in a parent-teacher association, and where the membership is representative of the community at large, contacts are made that may be secured in no other way. Parents are members because they are vitally interested in the welfare of their children. Meetings provide a common source of stimulation for both teachers and parents. All come together for the same purpose—to create better conditions and provide better facilities for the children of the school.

Other evening and afternoon meetings serve to bring parents and friends to the school. Plays and school entertainments help to interpret the school to the community. At such times, it is possible to gather much information from the patrons by talking to them informally. A feeling of friendship usually exists. Visiting days, when fathers and mothers are invited to observe regular school work, are frequently the occasion for many comments that may be put to good use by the school. American Education Week, with its many activities, coming as it does early in the school year, is usually an opportunity for establishing another contact with the community.

Where possible, church affiliation brings a bond of understanding and unification of ideals that may be secured in no other way. In the larger cities, where teachers and principals frequently live at a considerable distance from the school, this contact is rather difficult, but it does offer a situation for mutual esteem and respect.

Home calls by both teachers and principal, not only to the homes of problem cases, but also to confer with parents of normal children, furnish an intimate and direct contact.

The noon-time clubs, such as Rotary and Kiwanis, and the various women's clubs, provide admirable opportunities for the principal to become acquainted with people in the community who can and do give valuable information. Membership in these clubs is coming to be considered as one of the professional activities of the principal. Club members are usually those people who are dynamic in the affairs of the community and who are vitally interested in education as providing the future for the community. Probably in no other field of community contacts will so responsive a group be found.

Visits by classes of children, accompanied by teachers and the principal, are a fine way to collect information about places of interest in the neighborhood. They also furnish material for study and direct

application as part of the social science courses offered in all schools. An idea is becoming more prevalent that children of the elementary school should know first those things which they have around them in close proximity, gradually spreading out their interests and understandings, connecting new and untried experiences to those which they actually have had.

In the same connection, visits by teachers to typical industries which either serve the district or in which parents of the neighborhood work, give an insight into problems that must be considered in the daily activity in the school. Where industrial organizations are situated in the immediate vicinity, there is a strong probability that they are the place of work of many of the parents and will in turn afford a vocation for many of the children. The information which may be found will many times make the problem of teaching appear in a totally different light.

The attendance officer and social worker or visiting teacher can give many facts obtained from homes visited that might otherwise be unknown to the school. The nature of their calls brings out many sordid situations that should be known in the school, but which would probably not reach it through any other source.

In the larger cities, there are usually other child agencies that have information which is available to the school. Various welfare organizations are organized to care for children who are handicapped. A closer cooperation between these and the school cannot help but bring assistance from each to the other.

Teacher study of group or type responses, where the school district is relatively homogeneous, is a valuable method of searching for conditions in the community. This may take the form of free-discussion teachers' meetings, where individual teachers or group chairmen offer conclusion for discussion by the entire meeting. Such a plan serves to focus teacher attention on the typical problems of the school. Frequently one teacher may contribute an idea that has not been considered by others, but which is essential in the development of the particular school.

Most schools now use some form of cumulative pupil record, on which is recorded information about the nativity of the parents, home language spoken, place of birth of the child and other similar facts. These records may easily be used for a rough survey, within the school, to give typical figures about the community on nationality percentages, and other similar statistics.

There are other means of obtaining information about the community, such as the questionnaire, which are not discussed here,

because there are attendant dangers making their use quite questionable. A summary of the methods of seeking information indicates that none are beyond the use of any school, and at the same time do not require elaborate formulation of mechanical set-up or technic: (1) personal acquaintanceships, (2) parent-teacher association, (3) school meetings for parents, (4) church affiliations, (5) home calls, (6) noon-time and women's clubs, (7) class visits to points of interest, (8) typical industries, (9) attendance officer and visiting teacher, (10) child welfare agencies, (11) teacher discussion groups, and (12) pupil cumulative records.

Conclusion—Adjustments in the courses of study to fit the individual school to its community should be based on a continuous study of all the factors that influence the children during their school and subsequent life. Formulation of future physical needs, standards of conduct, social habits, and ideals and attitudes will depend largely upon the intimate and specific knowledge that the school should have of the community of which it is an integral and vital part.

WHEN we speak of a pupil being 10 percent underweight we are referring to the fact that he weighs 10 percent less than the average boy of that age and height. Now it is obvious that such a deviation from the average is far different and far less serious than a similar deviation from an optimum weight.—C. I. Fleming, see Chapter IX

CONSTRUCTIVE CONTACTS BETWEEN PARENTS AND SCHOOL

GEORGE D. TAYLOR

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THE WRITER has used the word "constructive" with a definite purpose in mind. Parents have a right to be interested in the school to which they send their children because directly or indirectly they are helping to defray the cost of education, including the building and maintenance of the school plant, teachers' salaries, supplies, and equipment. Parents are required by law to provide for the instruction of their children, which in a very large sense means that they are compelled to send their children to school. What the school will do to these children during their very impressionistic and formative years of life is a distinct challenge to the school system and of utmost concern to the parents.

For these and many other reasons it will be readily granted that parents not only have the right, but it is their duty to know their school system and to be acquainted with the educational procedure and character forming agencies employed. They have a right to be critical of cost, of conditions, of teachers, and of teaching. The welfare of the children entrusted to the school system is of such vital importance to children, parents, and to posterity as to justify the keen interest on the part of the parents in the school and its management.

Kinds of parental attitudes—The attitude of the parents and the community toward the school may be indifferent, severely critical, friendly, or cooperative. An indifferent attitude may be dangerously neglectful of the welfare of the school, the children, and the community. A critical attitude, even an aggressive one, is far better for all concerned. Of course, the school principal, and faculty must be professionally broad-minded enough to appreciate the situation and make it clear to the parents that they would much rather have the criticisms directed to the school than used as a matter of neighborhood gossip. The principal and teachers should be ready to meet the parents in a fair, frank, friendly manner. Unless the school people are able to justify their actions on the ground of sound educational policy they should admit that the decision is based upon incomplete information and agree to make the necessary adjustments. The parents soon realize that the school is not acting in an arbitrary authoritative way. Consequently the community soon loses its combative fault-finding attitude and assumes one of friendly interest and cooperation.

It is a fortunate and wise school community that can capitalize upon such a desirable and wholesome attitude. As in other things so in this, organization and united effort mean strength and increased effectiveness. No finer agency could be desired than the parent-teacher association or mothers' clubs in supplementing the school's efforts.

Types of parents' clubs—The writer has heard some principals say that Mothers' Clubs are most unsatisfactory when the club tries to run the school, and put over its own hobbies or propaganda. This condition of affairs might be properly termed a "destructive relationship" for both club and school are jointly responsible for the inarticulations.

Then there are clubs which have their meetings with some form of an interesting program, but with no vital interest in the needs and problems of the school. Such clubs are friendly to the school yet take no active part in building up the work and influence of the school. Such organizations are neither destructive nor constructive, but neutral in influence.

Here and there exist parent-teacher associations which have the true interests of the school at heart. Associations of this type cooperate with the school authorities for the welfare of the children. Such an organized group needs only guidance and appreciation to become a powerful influence for constructive relationship.

Given half a chance the constructively bent association should be a success as the efforts of all center about the child. The parent with "the mother love that passeth all understanding" may pull together with the teacher with knowledge of the psychology of the child and training in aims and methods of teaching. Both have that desire to cooperate, but too often lack the understanding and appreciation of the viewpoint of the other.

Some constructive contacts between home and school—The first type of constructive relationship makes the parent-teacher association an educational clearinghouse for exchange of ideas. The school and the teacher are required to do so many new things that the wonder has been that misunderstanding and criticism is not more common. This condition of potential clash is relatively inert when we remember how easily the child tends to forget, to misrepresent, or to exaggerate. Teachers often receive blame when they are only following directions and rules from the principal. The latter, in turn, may be acting in accordance with his superior officers. There was a time when the writer was puzzled at the complaints and criticisms received and wondered how intelligent parents could think such

things. Now his feeling is one of thankfulness that parents are willing to come with these apparently strange and foolish questions for explanation. Frequently, some school regulation or policy can be explained to the parents so that they understand not only the fundamental reasons for it, but appreciate the school's problems of trying to safeguard the mental, moral and physical needs of all its children. From time to time the principal should be invited to discuss with the club problems of the curriculum, home study, promotions, physical education, noon lunches, vaccination, and the classification of pupils.

Thus through classroom visitation, conferences with teachers, observation of the school activities, and discussions in meeting both parent and teacher understand each other better. The members of the parent-teacher association spread this information throughout the neighborhood until gradually there is built up in the community a knowledge of their school, a cooperation in its work and a pride in its achievements. Community spirit is in turn reflected in the attitudes of the pupils and the quality of school work.

If a parent-teacher association did no more than the above, its existence would be more than justified, but there are additional lines of constructive relationship. Never before have there been such special demands upon the schools from the outside. In the proper understanding of them and their effective solution the parent-teacher association can have a most important part.

In the school with which it was the writer's good fortune to have been connected for eight years, there was a parent-teacher association whose officers and members have always worked in happy cooperation with the school. A few illustrations of cooperation will suffice.

Pictures, flags, furniture, and reference books selected by a joint committee of parents and teachers have been given to the school. A fund for musical instruments and supplies is provided for the school orchestra, and a moving picture machine has been installed.

Cooperation in material matters, while desirable and valuable, may be the least of the contributions. Our parents' club took an active interest in the expansion of the school facilities by cooperating with the Board of Education in bringing about the completion of the building and the grading of the school grounds. They aided in the work of beautifying the school grounds by helping to buy plants and shrubs. Many parents donated bulbs and flowering plants. The association used its influence with the Playground Bureau and public officials for the maintenance of a playground.

Each spring the school has given an outdoor pageant. The parent-teacher association has made the occasion an outdoor picnic for the entertainment of pupils and teachers. Each fall, shortly after the opening of school, the parents have provided a banquet for the faculty as the means of getting acquainted with the new teachers and renewing friendly relationship with all. The teachers have reciprocated by having a faculty reception with stunts and refreshments for the parents. Little neighborhood social gatherings are held where the parents having children in the kindergarten and first grade have entertained that group of teachers. Other groups of teachers have entertained in similar manner.

The association has been organized on a firm business basis with an exceptionally strong force of officers and a fine committee of parents and teachers that actually do the work assigned to them. The membership is by no means limited to the mothers, and at many meetings the fathers are in the majority. On several occasions the association has had a man for its president. While some meetings have been held in the afternoon, the majority of the meetings have been in the evening. The programs have been exceedingly worthwhile, the school being responsible for one or more numbers, usually in the form of school orchestra, school chorus, or a number furnished by the health education classes. These meetings have developed a very definite school community feeling. The parents have come to really understand the school program and consequently have been able to help in its development and to support it in an intelligent manner. For several years the association prepared and sponsored some form of community entertainment which not only raised considerable money for a variety of useful purposes but brought the parents and school in a closer, friendlier relationship.

In the writer's estimation, probably the most valuable relationship developed was that of a clearer understanding on the part of the parents and teachers as to the best ways by which the school program was being developed. For instance, when the matter of homogeneous grouping was under consideration, the writer was advised that the community would never stand for such a policy. The matter was first taken up before the executive committee, and then was made a subject of discussion before the association. They in turn discussed it with their neighbors. As a result the attitude of the community was so favorable toward a practical and sensible plan of grouping children that the few that were opposed considered it advisable to keep quiet. In the same way other problems which might have caused serious differences of opinion between the community

and the school were talked over in a frank open manner and a policy or plan formulated which had the approval of the community. In fact the community became so generous and whole-hearted in its response that the principal's chief concern was to live up to the faith and loyal cooperation given by the mothers and fathers.

Probably the best proof of the genuine success of the organization and the soundness of this mutual relationship is the fact that although it is eight years since the writer had the privilege of working in that school community, the parent-teacher association still is a vital factor for good.

Summary—The welfare of children depends heavily upon a cooperative attitude between school and home. Such an attitude must be based upon many opportunities for "constructive" relations. A constructive and cordial contact is not an accidental thing. A few principals who have viewed these relationships with indifference have been rudely awakened to the menacing aspects of an uninformed, but aroused parents' group. When such inarticulations exist the principal should blame himself quite as much as he does the parents' group.

The experience of the writer has been that a parent-teacher organization responds to the right kind of leadership. Few people have the intense interest in child welfare which most parents have. Who can capitalize and guide this enthusiasm into channels which supplement the school? My answer is: the elementary school principal.

THE community of the district is entitled to more than the educational crumbs that fall into the homes through contacts with school children. The elementary school principal needs to have a definite policy of helpfulness in community endeavors, a purpose and determination to raise the standards of aspiration, and should help in releasing latent power that can and will bring about communal improvement.—Susan M. Dorsey, see Chapter II

FACTS AND THE PARENT-TEACHER ASSOCIATION

SARA E. CHASE

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COOPERATION between home and school is more intelligent when based upon facts. As a step in collecting facts we made a five months study of the out-of-school interests and activities of our fourth, fifth, and sixth grade pupils. As the work progressed, we extended the original plan for investigation to include an inventory of the books received by the children as presents at Christmas, and a free reading period in the program of each classroom so that the teachers might study and guide reading habits and interests.

We added to the data collected by the above study a summary of the excuses given for the tardy marks of an entire year, a list of telephone calls from residents of the school district in regard to the children's lack of respect for property, and a five year record of the reasons that had brought the police to the school for interviews with boys.

A combination of the above facts served as a basis for four talks to the parent-teacher association. The titles of these talks were: Growth Through Play; Free Reading of Children; Moving Pictures, Good and Bad; Building Two Social Habits, Punctuality and Respect for Law and Property.

Collecting the data—The study of out-of-school interests and activities was made through blanks filled out by the children. On Monday mornings each child filled out a blank which read:

On Saturday morning I did these things:
On Saturday afternoon I did these things:
On Sunday morning I did these things:
On Sunday afternoon I did these things:

On other mornings of the week each pupil filled out a blank telling what he had done the night before, what he had done after supper, and at what time he had gone to bed.

Data on the reading interests of pupils was collected upon the completion of each book. The child reported, on a blank, the title of the book, the author's name, and date when he finished reading the publication.

Pupils were asked to report on moving pictures the next day after attending the theater. The facts reported included: the title of the picture, the leading actor, and the date seen.

During the first week after the Christmas vacation, each teacher listed the books his children had received as presents. The older

children copied the titles and authors of their books and the younger ones brought their books to the teachers.

Some of the facts discovered—The information on the blanks filled out by the children was transferred to individual and class record sheets. Summaries from these sheets showed the following facts which suggest many problems for cooperation between the school and the home.

1. Facts in regard to play and work in out-of-school hours:

1. There was no real team play in games.
2. The three recreational activities reported the largest number of times by boys were marbles, movies, and books.
3. The recreational activities reported the largest number of times by girls were books, funny papers, and movies.
4. The list of imaginative plays was a long one.
5. There were many constructive activities.
6. The clubs reported indicated a desire for companionship.
7. Only three boys and three girls reported going to the largest playground of the city which could have been reached by ten minutes of walking.
8. The girls were doing more house work and home chores than the boys.
9. Several girls were getting little play because so much work was required of them.
10. Blanks for certain days showed that girls were working while their brothers played.
11. A few boys were spending so much time on music lessons that they were not getting much play.
12. Some children reported only five or six work activities in 20 week-ends.
13. A majority of the children were receiving pay for the work they did at home.
14. Five boys were working in stores in violation of the law.

2. Facts in regard to free reading:

1. During the five months of the study, 221 boys and girls read 1198 books by 563 authors.
2. Ten boys and four girls did not read any books during this time.
3. One girl read 86 books; one boy 66.
4. The average number of books read by the boys was 8; by the girls, 10.
5. Stories about children or adults were the most popular.
6. Stories with backgrounds from history had second place, and stories about animals were third.
7. None of the individual lists followed any one line of interest.
8. Some of the books on the lists have been highly recommended by book guides for children's reading; some have been much disapproved.
9. Thornton Burgess was a very popular author.
10. The books read the largest number of times by boys were *American Hero Stories*, Tappan; *Robinson Crusoe*, Defoe; and *Tom Swift and His Aerial Warship*, Appleton.
11. The books read the largest number of times by girls were *Heidi*, Spyri; *Clematis*, Cobb; and *Merry Tales*, A. M. and E. L. Skinner.
12. The list of magazines in the homes included very few for children.
13. As Christmas presents the 574 children (Grades 1 to 6) received 792 copies of 551 different books.
14. Among these books were many rated as undesirable by guides for children's reading. All the best sellers in children's series were represented.

15. A librarian of a children's reading room rated 41 of the 551 books as excellent, and 18 of them as good books for children.
16. In the free reading periods at school each teacher found some children of high intelligence who did not care to read.

3. Facts in regard to moving pictures:

1. During the five months of this investigation, 209 children bought 1155 tickets for moving pictures.
2. The boys' average was 7 tickets; the girls', 4.
3. One boy went 30 times; one girl, 31 times.
4. Five boys and 16 girls did not see any pictures.
5. The pictures most popular with boys were the *Vanishing American*, *The Volga Boatman*, *Black Cyclone*, *Cohens and Kellys*, *Best Bad Man*, and *A Laugh Guy*.
6. The pictures most popular with girls were the *Volga Boatman*, *Vanishing American*, *Blind Goddess*, and *Beverley of Graustark*.
7. The description of the *Vanishing American* written by the children showed no appreciation of the historical scenes.
8. The description of the best liked pictures written by the children indicated that these qualities won their favor: excitement, war or fighting, funny acts, sadness, action, bravery, mystery.
9. The children who had long moving picture lists also had long reading lists.

4. Facts in regard to tardiness:

1. The enrolment above the kindergarten on June 29, 1927 was 618.
2. The total number of cases of tardiness for the year was 758.
3. The following reasons were stated in excuses:

Slow in getting up or in getting ready.....	216
Clock slow or stopped.....	120
Work for home.....	75
Play on the way or at home.....	53
Mother's fault.....	51
Waiting for another child.....	39
Sickness.....	32
No known excuse.....	33
Going back for something.....	26
Bad weather.....	24
Clothes.....	22
Father's fault.....	11
Late hours the night before.....	4
Other children's fault.....	3
Work outside home.....	3
Late return from out of town.....	3
Transportation.....	1
Going to church or downtown.....	2
Misunderstandings.....	2

5. Nature of telephone calls about lack of respect for the property and comfort of others:

1. Hedges had been broken by children jumping into or over them.
2. Wire fences for grass protection had been torn up.
3. Corners of lawns had been crossed.
4. Fences had been jumped.
5. Vines and plants had been broken.
6. Lawns had been littered with candy and gum papers.
7. Buildings had been marked with chalk.
8. Sidewalks had been covered with writing.

6. Nature of police interviews with boys:

1. Bicycles had been ridden away from other schools.
2. Doll carriages, scooters, and bicycles had been stolen.
3. False fire alarms had been rung.
4. Automobiles had been seriously damaged on Hallowe'en.
5. Fires had been lighted in the street.
6. Our portable school buildings had been broken into three times within a year.
7. Memorial windows stored in a church had been deliberately broken by sling shots.
8. New houses under construction had been damaged.
9. Vacant houses had been damaged inside and out by sling shots and stones.

Using the facts—In the talks with the mothers, the investigations we had made were described and the findings were enumerated. The growth that may come to the children through play, work, books, and moving pictures was pointed out with illustrations from our study of the children. Explanations of the school's attempts to increase this growth were given with suggestions on ways in which the home might cooperate.

The desirability of mothers and teachers working together in attempting to build right attitudes toward behavior was pointed out. Some reforms that the school needed to make were stated. Changes that the home should undertake with promptness and persistency were suggested.

Quotations from the talks—A few quotations from the four talks will indicate the procedure followed. The first three paragraphs below show the way in which the parents were told of the value of simple play activities of children. Each fact presented in these paragraphs was illustrated by reference to details of the latest play activity introduced on the boys' playground, such as the making and flying of toy parachutes.

1. GROWTH THROUGH WORK AND PLAY

Through the right sorts of play, muscles, minds, and morals grow. In many of the play activities, the children are in constant motion which stimulates the nervous system and tones up the entire body. So the muscles grow.

As the children play, they see, hear, and handle things about them. They observe, associate, compare, and generalize. They experiment and draw conclusions. They create and weigh values. So the mind grows.

Through the approval and disapproval of their playmates, children learn to appraise courage, perseverance, justice, and other qualities. As they play together they learn to give and take. They discover that effort bring results. They see that one must try many times for success. So moral attitudes grow.

* * * *

What can you do to increase the growth that comes to your children through work?

1. You can give each child some home task to perform each day to develop in him a sense of duty and responsibility toward the home. You must find some

task in the changed home life of today if your child is to have some of the moral values you found as a child.

2. If the boys are to see the home as a fellowship, they must take part in its obligations and responsibilities. Washing dishes and getting meals are in good repute on hikes. Why not in the home? There is nothing about sweeping and dusting that overtaxes a boy's skill. Boys can learn to make beds. They can develop skill in caring for a younger child as well as their sisters can.

3. Don't pay the children for every task. If you do they are going to think more about their rights than they are about their obligations. When you do pay them, let the amount bear some relation to the work done.

4. Don't pay for A's on report cards. Our stamp sales jump enormously on the day after the cards go home. One fourth grade recently started a heated discussion about the economic value of report cards, declaring that one father had no right to get for a nickel what another father was paying a quarter for. The report cards, in spite of our efforts and desires, represent "information getting" more than anything else. The end desired is growth in the ability to think, to understand, to appreciate, and to use knowledge. This school aim does not lend itself to our report cards. When you pay for marks on these cards you are helping to put the emphasis in the wrong place.

2. FREE READING OF CHILDREN

Not long ago a father said to me, "I do not let Alice read books for I wish to keep her mind on her school work." Alice read only two books during the five months of our investigation.

Books would have helped her school work. At the end of the five months we found that the children doing the best classroom work had read four and one-half times as many books as those doing poor work.

* * * *

In our free reading periods, we found a number of children of good intelligence who did not care to read. This is a serious matter. Free reading is an out-of-school activity of very great importance for it opens an opportunity for wider experiences and wider learning than the children can get in any other way. It does more than any other activity to satisfy a variety of desires and to arouse new interests. Under skilful guidance it leads to habits of finding enjoyment in worthwhile reading and to permanent interests in reading as a play activity for leisure hours.

* * * *

On Christmas day the children above the kindergarten received 792 copies of 551 different books. Miss P., the excellent librarian of the children's reading room, rated only 59 of these books as belonging among the best books for children.

In the last few years the books for children have increased greatly in number. We shall have to acknowledge that we do not know the books for children as well as we should know them.

During American Book Week the reading room has these book guides, "Book Shelf for Boys and Girls" to give to mothers. The librarians display some of the newest books and they are anxious to talk with you about children's reading.

3. MOVING PICTURES, GOOD AND BAD

You can keep your child entirely away from the moving picture only while you are keeping him under your thumb. Training a child to live under the thumb does not train him to live when the thumb is raised.

You do not say he shall hear no music because some of it is bad. You do not say he shall read no books because some of them are trash. You help him to form

tastes in the matter of music and books. Why not help him to form tastes in the matter of moving pictures? Why not help him enjoy some of those that are really fine?

You can help him find pleasure in other activities. You can join him in outdoor pleasures. You can take him on trips to the science museum or the library. You can let him tell you about some of his books. You can read to him. You can know what your child is going to see when he starts out for an afternoon in the moving picture theatre. You do not need to let him go because it is Saturday or a holiday. You can read the advertisements and the reviews of the pictures to learn the nature of those to be shown. If you had done this, I do not believe that 81 of the children in this school would have seen *Dancing Mothers*; 70, *The Blind Goddess*; or 60, *Let's Get Married* and *The Untamed Lady*.

4. THE GROWTH OF SOCIAL HABITS

If you were to follow the plan I have outlined, you would talk with your child about punctuality. You would point out the need for his father to be at work on time. You would help him to think for himself about the advantages and disadvantages of being prompt. You would be careful to illustrate your point with cases real in the life of this particular child. You would set before him good examples of promptness, by getting to church on time, by getting to the trolley or station more than a minute ahead of the scheduled time. You would have breakfast ready on time. You would reward his attempts to dress more promptly and his immediate responses to your call for bed hour with a look of praise.

You would be making mistakes when you allow breakfast to be late, when you take him into church late, and when you do not recognize his attempts to be more prompt. You are making a mistake, I think, when you let him think that a clock that won't keep time is a thing to be tolerated in a home that believes in punctuality. Teachers make mistakes when they criticise tardy children and allow themselves to be late about dismissals. Teachers make mistakes when they let children think that the bad thing about tardiness is a black mark in the register for the bad thing is one more impression on the child's brain to work against the habit of promptness.

* * * *

You may think, "My boy wouldn't do such things." Yet we find that the mothers of our worst offenders are often entirely uninformed. Probably the one thing that helped to bring about these unfortunate incidents was the fact that the mothers didn't know where their boys were or what they were doing at nights or after school.

* * * *

What can home and school do to increase the child's respect for law and property? First: Make the desirable examples we set worthy of imitation. Second: Make a fresh start for the development of intelligent obedience, the basis of law and order.

Summary—Principals sometimes use their speeches before the parent-teacher associations as opportunities for complaining about pupil behavior. Such talks are apt to be based on a few pathological cases and may not win the cooperation of parents who are interested in *typical* children.

We felt in our school that the children were "slipping away" because of a lack of intelligent cooperation between home and school.

But we did not care to raise the problems with the parents until we could present facts and suggest constructive remedies.

The above paragraphs have given a brief description of our procedures. The short excerpts from talks imply a preaching quality which was not present in actual fact. Rather, our parents saw that there had been a careful survey and that the recommendations were made in the best interests of children. We have been pleased and helped by the resulting evidence of cooperation.

IN CLEANING up for health the parents and children eliminated many fire hazards. Trash and rubbish were removed and the community took on an improved appearance. Parents who cared little for cleanliness of person or environment became interested in our drive because they saw that health gave children a better chance in the world.—R. C. T. Jacobs, see Chapter IX

UNITING HOME AND SCHOOL FOR THE WELFARE OF CHILDREN

ELLEN S. NYE

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ONE OF THE MAJOR factors in promoting the growth of the child is an understanding relationship between the home and the school. For the school to work alone on its policies and its aims is to work blindly. The united efforts of the parents and the school are needed if its ideals are to be carried out to a complete realization of all that is best for the children. Without a knowledge, on the part of the parents, of the standards and the aims of the school and the visions of the principal and the teachers, there cannot be a unified influence brought to bear upon the children. The school needs to know the home and the neighborhood conditions under which the children spend 19 hours of their day. We must reach out and make close contacts with the homes and help the parents to understand us and in turn they will help the children to come to us with better attitudes. Once the policies of the school are established in the community the divergent points of view are reconciled.

Our school and community—The Van Cleve school is decidedly foreign. There are 64 American families and 261 foreign ones in the district. The Russian and Polish people predominate, though there are 18 nationalities represented in the school. It requires time and patience to penetrate through the reserve and the stolidity of the Slavic people to the friendly cooperative spirit which lies below. It is not always an easy matter to make close contacts with foreign speaking people, due to the language difficulty; but when sorrow or trouble comes to them they immediately seek comfort from the principal of the school. Their domestic and neighborhood difficulties are settled in the school office more frequently than they are settled elsewhere. We are always welcome in their homes; but with little children as interpreters we are not sure that the messages are delivered as given. They are willing to assist us in any way as far as their understanding of the situation goes.

Visiting teacher contacts—One of the greatest factors in bringing about the understanding with the homes is the work of the visiting teacher. He guides and directs the children who are apparently out of tune with the world. By making a study of the home, the school, and the child he enables the school to help children to live the fullest and richest lives of which they are capable. The children are led to use their energy in satisfactory, constructive activities instead of wasteful ones. The special behavior problems are referred

to the child guidance clinic which is maintained by the Board of Education. There the children receive under experts, physical, mental, and emotional examinations. The cooperation of the home and the school are needed in this work of securing the adjustments suggested by this study if lasting corrections in the children's lives are to be made. The clinic has been of very great value to us in broadening the view points of the teachers and the parents as well as correcting behavior problems.

The following story about John is an example of the type of work the visiting teacher does. John came from a thrifty Russian family of large numbers, but with good standards. They were struggling so hard to buy a home that pennies for candy were few and far between for John. On the night before John's trouble he had heard his parents discussing the ways in which they must save in order to pay the taxes which were soon due.

At school the following morning one of the girls' clubs was having a candy sale. Their leader was assisting them. She turned to speak to one of the teachers and thoughtlessly laid on the table her coin purse and a bag of candy which she had purchased. In a moment she turned around; the candy and the money were gone.

Later in the day the money was found in John's possession. He was sent to the office with it. He told the principal that he had taken the money to help his parents pay the taxes because they were worried. The visiting teacher went with John to return the money to its owner and then to his home for John to tell his mother. An older sister, trained in our own school, acted as interpreter.

Through this visit the foreign mother understood and appreciated the school's attitude toward John's act. The story of the money for taxes was verified by the mother. An opportunity was arranged for John to restore his self-respect and strengthen his knowledge of what is mine and thine by earning money to pay for the candy he had taken. It was a hard lesson for the little boy; but it was a lasting one.

Parent-teacher association activities—Our parent-teacher association is another connecting link with the homes. Here the principal, teachers, and parents unite in a common group for the welfare of the children. The parents understand and appreciate our efforts through this contact and are themselves led to contribute their efforts toward the welfare of the school. Before each afternoon meeting the mothers plan to have time to visit their children's rooms and see them at work. They are busy people and it is no small effort for them to do this.

Classes in cooking, English, sewing, and millinery are discussed at their meetings in the fall. Later an invitation to join these classes is sent by the school to all mothers. Interested ones and those who have attended the classes before try to interest others by calling on them and even bringing them to the school for the first time. All of the classes are recreation for those who attend.

The cooking classes are especially enjoyable as well as instructive. At each period after the food has been prepared, the table is set and different mothers take the parts of host, hostess, and waitress. During this period their instructor gives them constructive criticisms in serving. Once each term they serve a complete meal and that is the real test of their social training. To these meals the state and local association officials and the principal are always invited.

A mother whose health and that of her family had been greatly improved during the year that she had attended the class said, "I never knew before I came to this class that there were other ways to cook food beside frying it. My whole family has benefited by my attending this class." She was a member of the class for two years to make sure that not one point of the instruction given had been missed by her.

The classes in English which are made up entirely of our foreign mothers have a party at Christmas time. They bring their friends with them and spend a happy hour around the Christmas tree in the assembly hall. They delight in singing their native Christmas hymns in their own language. Their children prepare a program for them and refreshments are served.

The sewing and millinery classes have as a final demonstration of their year's work an evening style show at the school house. This is divided into three distinct parts. First, the children act as models wearing the outfits and hats that their mothers have made for them. The next is a group of mothers wearing aprons, house dresses, and summer dresses. Then the adults appear in their best hats, silk gowns, and coats. This exhibition makes an enjoyable ending to the year's work in adult education.

The mothers of our parent-teacher association have always taken entire charge of the serving of milk to the school children. They not only serve the milk but attend to the ordering of it, the care of the money, and the paying of the bills. A fraction of a cent is made on each bottle of milk sold and that money takes care of the children who are unable to pay for their own milk. The undernourished children are reported to the principal by the school nurse. If they are not drinking milk the visiting teacher calls at the homes to see

if their parents are unable to furnish it for the children. Many times we find that they have all that is needed in the homes; but if not, the mothers furnish milk to them free of charge. This service means much to all of us and the willing spirit in which it is rendered is gratifying.

The city wide parent-teacher organization joins with the Council of Social Agencies of Minneapolis to support the child welfare group which is housed in a separate building erected by the Board of Education. From the store of clothing accumulated there, a school principal or visiting teacher may equip any child who is kept from school by the need of clothing. Careful investigation and cooperation with social agencies are observed in the giving of clothing supplies. The groups of parents and teachers meet in their own school buildings under the auspices of the public school child welfare group to make shirts, bloomers, middies, and other articles of clothing for the central supply. The mothers of the Van Cleve School organize a group and sew one afternoon each month.

The school health work—The health department of our schools is one of importance. Information about free clinics and how to obtain this service is given to mothers when needed. The daily visits and inspections made by the school nurse are the means of preventing many an epidemic. The information given to the children and through them to their parents has built up standards of health and cleanliness. Improved attendance is an important result of the nurse's training in the home and the school.

The school doctor through her kindly and helpful attitude has built up a feeling of trust that is expressed in many ways. The report of her examinations that are sent to the parents and her conferences with them have brought desirable results. Through her work and the nurse's work we have been able to place our physically unfortunate children in schools where they receive direct medical attention of a superior type. Our little, underweight pupils are sent to the Trudeau School where the aim is to build up anemic, undernourished, and easily exhausted children. Lymanhurst School cares for the tubercular children. They are under the care of doctors and a nurse all through the day. Fresh air, regular hours for rest combined with good food does much for these little children. At the Dowling School our crippled children receive expert medical attention, treatment, and advice. Sight saving classes and classes for the deaf are located in convenient localities. In some of the sight saving classes large type is used while in others the Braille is taught. At these classes the children have the advantage of examination by one

of the best oculists in the city. In the classes for the deaf, lip reading is taught. Through these classes children are assisted to take active places in life. Teachers of speech correction help children to overcome speech difficulties such as stammering, stuttering, letter sound substitution, baby talk, and so on. The mentally retarded children are organized into small classes where the course of study and instruction are adapted to their needs. The cooperation of the home and the school is always needed in this corrective work.

Other cooperative activities—The summer schools which are helping to solve indifference and individual differences are established in Minneapolis. Many of our pupils who would fail because of personal illness, language difficulties, or who need a few more weeks to complete their grade's work are given this opportunity each summer. Through this work they experience the joy that comes with success and achievement when they would otherwise be failures.

Our boys and girls clubs under the direction of the school help the children to develop the art of living together. Their activities, with each child helping to make the situation a success, brings out the best that is in him. Leadership takes the place of dependence, helpfulness is fostered in them, and joyous service is rendered. All of this work helps to make each child a loyal citizen and also brings one of the few social pleasures and experiences into the lives of many of our foreign children and the least fortunate of our American pupils.

The Van Cleve School is located on a busy highway which many of the children must cross. A group of the older boys with the direct cooperation of the police department which has detailed an experienced officer to supervise this traffic work, is organized to care for the younger children who cross the avenue. Dependability and leadership, which the boys willingly accept, are developed through this responsibility. These traffic officers greatly enjoy the dignity of the Sam Brown belts which they wear. The parents feel that the safety of their children is guaranteed, making the situation satisfactory to all.

Conclusion—It is difficult in limited space to give any adequate description or analysis of these many extra-curriculum activities in which the school administration concerns itself; but I hope that even their enumeration may have given some idea of the interpenetration of the home and the school for the good of the child. It is as true for an organization as for an individual that, "Nothing lives for itself or just its own; 'Tis but death to live alone."

ADJUSTING THE SCHOOL TO THE COMMUNITY¹

G. H. WEBLING

Supervising Principal, Elementary Schools, Honolulu, Hawaii

HAWAII has awakened to the need of a closer coordination of the educational facilities of school, home, church, and industry.

Educators of our fair Isles are accepting more and more of the responsibility for dealing with this problem. We are ever desirous of adjusting the school to the community, but we also sincerely hope effectively to use the social heredity of each child in the fullest growth of that child. In other words, adjusting the community to the needs and capacities for growth of the future citizens of that community.

We recognize the fact that life is a series of adjustments and that each "child is plunged at birth into a bath of human relations." Let me quote from Hobhouse on this point:²

The greater part of each man's personal experiences is made up out of his interaction with others in the multifarious relations of life, and these relations, from the earliest known phases of human society, are controlled by customs which arise out of the needs of social life, and are maintained by social tradition. Through this tradition society exerts a continuous control over the individual—the social milieu into which he is born interpenetrates his thought and will, and turns his individuality into a creation of the time and place of his life.

This great fact forces the educator to strive for a coordination of society's institutions or else he wastes himself since the social environment can so easily counteract his most ardent effort for desired pupil growth. The child can somewhat escape the school exposures since he often is one of many children similarly exposed and this experience is often not life-like but the exposures of society all around him are intensively life-like, somewhat individual in approach, and unusually effective educationally.

With such serious competition it behooves us school men to court the favor and cooperation of our competitors if we are sincerely interested in pupil growth or character building.

With the above thoughts in mind the following article is humbly submitted. It is a report of what has been done and is being done in

¹ While this article is limited in its details to Hawaii the amazing vision and common sense practices are worthy of widespread emulation. Apparently, educators in Hawaii consider "the community" as synonymous with the whole territory. Do school workers in the States often limit community concepts to the small local district?

Sections in this contribution have been prepared by various persons under Mr. Webling's direction. Due recognition has been given to these co-authors in the footnotes.—*Editorial Committee.*

² Hobhouse, Leonard T. *Social Evolution and Political Theory*. Columbia University Press, 1911, p. 94.

Hawaii. We have not solved our problem, but we do know that there is progress. We hope that no one thinks us presumptuous. We really submit this article apologetically. We are as orphan children in the large family of educators, and are located so far from the heart of educational things. We are affectionate, loyal orphans whose most fervent prayers are that something we do will be of value to our big brothers and sisters of the mainland.

The following sections have been taken from reports by Mrs. Willis T. Pope, Parent-Teacher Association; George Axtelle, Kawanakoa School, Bess Exton, Supervisor of Nutrition, Helen Haukin, Supervisor of Dental Hygiene; and the Hawaiian Environment Committee. The accounts from these sources show the scope of the work done in Hawaii.

I. PARENT-TEACHER ASSOCIATIONS IN HAWAII¹

In Hawaii, many factors enter into our home, community, and school life which are peculiar to the Islands. Immigration was found necessary to provide laborers for our industries. Naturally these people are foreign speaking and have very little education, while their attitudes and customs differ from the few Americans residing here.

Our parent-teacher associations are giving special consideration to foreign-speaking groups in which discussions take place in their mother-tongue thus saving time and lack of interest in the English-speaking open session meetings to which all who understand English are invited. Uniform by-laws and program suggestions have been furnished to all associations. It has been found that foreign speaking parents are desirous to learn of school programs, activities, physical tests, and corrective work undertaken.

The awarding of the national membership banners to our Hawaiian Congress this year was due to the fact that membership slips in gay colors and in the three predominating languages, giving objects and accomplishments, were taken home by school children each day for a week. These, with the daily articles in our papers helped to inform the public of what we are trying to do for the schools and homes.

The seven cardinal objectives of education have been discussed in the year's programs. It is at these meetings that parents who are reluctant to have teachers visit their homes are privileged to meet and discuss their problems and to meet teachers and principals.

During Education Week the "Parents-Go-To-School-Day" has opened the way for parents to visit the school in groups when they

¹This section prepared by Mrs. Willis T. Pope.

would otherwise refuse because of embarrassment. Associations have helped in the improvement of school grounds, secured equipment for visual education, provided for an extension of library service and sanitation as well as aroused an interest in kindergartens. Hundreds of children have been examined this year and last year in the "Summer-Round-Up."¹ This and the thrift chart work has been conducted in schools regardless of whether they have parent-teacher associations. Parents are working with doctors, often going to three or four schools to give assistance. Through parent-teacher effort, one doctor is giving one day each week to assist in corrective work at one of our high schools.

Playgrounds are not only discussed in meetings but provision is made for equipment and supervision even during the summer months by some of our associations to help children have a better understanding of the wise use of leisure. Junior school police are patrolling street corners. Clean up work at home as well as school has been promoted. Through our legislative committee, the legislature has granted the islands of Oahu and Hawaii the same privilege as Kauai and Maui in having student janitor service for lighter work thus reducing the school costs to the taxpayer and giving boys and girls a chance for self development. We owe much to our National Congress and the Department of Public Instruction of Hawaii for their never failing cooperation.

A project of great value and known as our Home Project Contest sponsored by the Hawaii Congress has been a means of improving interior and exterior home conditions; judges basing their decision on utility, economy, and beauty. Cement bags and sugar sacks, painting, box-furniture-making, appliqueing, needlework, coloring, planting, cleaning, and general reconditioning has taken place in many homes where conditions were most uninviting. In this contest, the banks have cooperated in awarding small bank accounts to winning contestants in each school district in the Islands.

In our two years of development as a Congress, we feel that the social intercourse of parents and teachers has contributed toward a better understanding and appreciation of child nature and that while our work is just begun that schools and communities have already derived a benefit in having better understanding of our presentday conditions and needs.

¹ Summer-round-up. Physical examination, and registration of incoming beginning school children followed by removal or remedying of physical defects; all performed during summer vacation period. Child reports ready for school in September. Work under the direction of Board of Health with assistance of parent-teacher associations.

II. A CHILD CENTERED PROGRAM¹

The Kawanakoa Experimental School was organized by the Division of Research as a school in which we are attempting to work out a socialized activity program in accordance with the philosophy of John Dewey. The teachers at Kawanakoa think of education as modification of behavior. Consequently they must look upon their subjectmatter materials in a very different light than hitherto. Subjectmatter materials are instrumental to action. Our great concern in this school is that learning be of such a quality as to modify action in the significant relationships of life.

There are two ways in which the teachers are working on this program. In the first place they are creating a general, democratic, social, occupational atmosphere in which each child finds himself an individual in a social group making his contributions in terms of his interest and ability. Not only is this true in the classroom but the school as a whole is organized in representative committees which are responsible for creating general responsibility for the various aspects of school life. This general program goes very far indeed in solving the individual needs of children for after all an individual finds his individuality in genuine, social, occupational relationships.

There are those however who because of previous training and environment do not adjust to these democratic relationships. A second part of our program then is the study of individual children to discover social and physical conditions responsible for present behavior in order to diagnose and prognose behavior difficulties. Through such a study teachers attempt to discover how they may alter the social and physical environment of the children in such ways as will condition more desirable behavior. In order to understand the significance of environmental factors in conditioning behavior most of the teachers of the school are organized in a reading course given by the University of Hawaii on methodology of case study.²

In addition to the study of these books our teachers are meeting with specialists in various fields of child work. Our reports to parents and our own personal records of children consist of written descriptions of the behavior of the child in his various activities and relationships indicating strengths and difficulties and probable causes.

¹This section prepared by George Axtelle, Principal, Kawanakoa School.

²Some of the books used in this course include: Sayles', *The Problem Child in School and The Problem Child at Home*; Van Waters', *Youth in Conflict and Parents on Probation*; Green's, *Psychoanalysis in the Classroom*; Wembridge, *Other People's Daughters*; and *The Delinquent Girl* by Thomas.

The teachers at Kawanānakoā are attempting to modify the environment of their children in view of conditioning certain dispositions. They are therefore evaluating their work in the terms indicated by the following:

CLASSROOM CHARACTERISTICS

1. *Health*—Does this classroom situation of mine secure active, positive attitudes and interests in health?
Are the various health practices, stimulated in the group, matters of routine, or is opportunity taken to develop active, definite dispositions toward health? (Consider weighing and measuring, drinking milk, rest periods, etc.)
2. *Initiative*—Does this classroom situation of mine allow and stimulate initiative?
 - a. Do I lay out what is to be done, or do I allow opportunity for originality?
 - b. Do I foresee difficulties and smooth the paths, or do I allow opportunity for resourceful action?
 - c. Do I tell them what to think, or do I help them to organize their own thinking?
3. *Responsibility*—Does my classroom situation definitely provide for the development and practice of responsibility?
 - a. Is my main aim to get pupils to carry out what I tell them or is my main aim to get them to set up standards of their own of which we are always conscientiously critical?
 - b. Is there opportunity for the discussion of group problems?
 - c. Is the situation such as to develop active interest in seeing things through, or do I usually find it necessary to apply the stimulus for consecutive effort?
 - d. Do I foresee difficulties and state consequences, or do I arrange things so as to stimulate growth in power to anticipate, evaluate, and accept consequences?
 - e. Is the situation such that thinking is carried on in isolation from activity or is it a quality of behavior, connected with it, an aspect of it?
4. *Wholeheartedness*—Does my classroom situation get wholehearted participation?
 - a. Is it such that there is enthusiasm, abundance of interest, and conscientious effort or do I find it necessary to apply extrinsic motivation to secure response?
5. *Cooperation*—Does this classroom situation of mine provide opportunity for cooperative action?
 - a. Do I think of cooperation as conformity to my goals? Or do I arrange things so that pupils help to set up common goals, or at least actively take my suggestions over as their own?
 - b. Do I demand individual, isolated work, (1) at times, (2) always, (3) never; or is there opportunity for group participation, coöperation and division of labor?
 - c. Is the situation such as to develop loyalty to the common interests of the group; or does it develop passive acceptance, hostile acquiescence, or even anarchic individualism?
 - d. Is the situation such as to develop thoughtfulness and consideration, fairness, sportsmanship, courtesy, or is it such that it develops selfishness and inconsiderateness?
 - e. Is the situation such that it develops large mindedness, generosity, or is it such that it develops petty mindedness?
6. *Open Mindedness*—Does this classroom situation of mine provide opportunity for the development of open mindedness?

- a. Do I encourage and guide discussion, or do I demand agreement with my statements? Do discussions end with acceptance of traditional, provincial, or radical modes of thought; or are they characterized by a critical attitude toward all ideas, both new and old?
- b. Is activity characterized by stubbornness, dogmatism, impetuosity, and capriciousness, or is it experimental and thoughtful in quality?
Is the situation such that there is suspended judgment, continued inquiry, and intellectual alertness?

PERSONAL TRAITS

1. Initiative:
Originality, resourcefulness.
Does he stand on his own feet intellectually?
2. Responsibility:
Persistence, continuity of purpose.
Does he see things through?
Is he intellectually thorough?
Is there consecutive effort?
Does he anticipate, evaluate, and accept consequences?
3. Wholeheartedness:
Enthusiasm, abundance of interest, conscientiousness.
Is work a pleasure?
4. Cooperation:
Thoughtfulness and consideration of others, fairness, sportsmanship, courtesy, large-mindedness. Is he loyal to the common interests of his group?
5. Open mindedness:
Are his attitudes rigid or flexible?
Does he welcome and criticize ideas?
Is he always critical of present achievement?

A visiting teacher supplements the work of regular teachers making a more detailed inquiry into special cases that are particularly problematic, than the regular teacher would be able to do. He works with the various social agencies such as the Juvenile Court, the Palama Settlement, and the Social Service Bureau. He is oftentimes able to suggest changes in the home and community environment of children which are necessary to reconstructing the behavior of the child.

The things the school has hitherto stood for have so got in the way of the actual life of the child that it requires the courage almost of iconoclasm to drive ahead at the goals we have set ourselves, preventing academic considerations from too seriously side-tracking us.

III. STUDYING LOCAL PROBLEMS¹

The Hawaiian Environment Committee.—There is a recognized need in Hawaii for material that will acquaint the people (children and adults) with the genuine values of our local life. An understand-

¹Section III prepared by G. H. Webling from materials prepared by the Hawaiian Environment Committee. This committee includes representative business men as well as educators.

ing and appreciation of the social, economic, and political aspects of Hawaiian life of today is needed by every individual in Hawaii. To meet this need, the Hawaiian Environment Committee was appointed to make a study, compile pertinent material, and place such material in the hands of teachers. During 1928-29 the Committee concentrated upon material for the elementary grades. A description of the material in preparation for school use follows:

1. *Industrial Primer. A Child's Day in Hawaii*—The content of this reader is designed to supplement the best pre-primer material now published. The content is suggestive of the wide variety of activities possible for the children of Hawaii. The subjects are in the field of nature and the various industries. There are stories of sugar cane, rice, pineapples, bananas, and other fruits and vegetables of Hawaii. Natural phenomena, showers, rain-bows, plants, trees and flowers peculiar to Hawaii, furnish the content for other stories. The material is simpler in form than the material of the average primer.
2. *Samples of self-instructive seat work materials correlating with the content of the primer*—This self-instructive material can be made easily by any teacher at little if any cost.
3. *Cook Book for Children*—A book of simple recipes that may be used by children of the first, second, and third grades. The material correlates with the study of sugar, rice, pineapples, bananas, and vegetables. It is intended to be used in the study of home and community life and the study of those industries which are the source of foods in Hawaii. Problems of health are a feature of this book. One story considers the intelligent use of sugar and candy based on a recent article by Dr. Woods Hutchinson. The majority of the recipes may be made without cooking.
4. *Leaflets*—Reading lessons, rich in content and covering a wide range of subjects, correlating with the observation of nature and the industrial life common to Hawaii. These leaflets are similar in form to the leaflets published by the Francis Parker School. The content is simple and can be used by upper grade children of low reading ability.
5. *Books of Games*—A book containing the favorite games of children with directions stated so simply that the children can interpret the games by themselves. The book can be used by children of the upper grades who have low reading ability. Problems of simple arithmetic are a feature of these games.
6. *Story of Sugar*—A story of sugar from the standpoint of the development of Hawaii. It begins with a simple story of the factors in the development of trade in the Pacific and the gradual supremacy of the sugar industry in Hawaii. The starting point of the story considers the problem of how sugar became king in Hawaii. The organization of this book is completely outlined and the factual material gathered from a wide variety of sources. The translation of the factual into story material is not completed.
7. *Monographs*—This material covers the more important aspects of primitive Hawaiian life. These single monographs may be combined ultimately to form the different chapters of a book similar in form to *The Indian How Book*. For the first trial, they will be arranged in such form that they can be mimeographed, bound in simple folders and tried out in different grades to test their usefulness. Each monograph treats of one particular aspect of life in Hawaii.
 - a. *Early Hawaiian life*—Includes such titles as the following: *How the Polynesians Came to Hawaii*, *How the Hawaiians Sailed the Seas*, *How the Hawaiian Built His Village*, *How the Hawaiian Furnished His House*,

How the Hawaiian Provided Himself with Food, How the Hawaiian Provided Himself with Clothing, How the Hawaiian Built His Canoe, How Sugar Cane Came to Hawaii, How Sugar Cane Became King in Hawaii, How the Hawaiian Made Dye, How the Hawaiian Made Fire, How Sugar is Made from Cane, How the Hawaiian Made Tools.

- b. *Our City*—A group of monographs giving interesting information in regard to the development of the institutional life of Honolulu.
- c. *Industry*—A series of monographs on the history of rice, sugar, coffee, and pineapple industries in Hawaii.
- d. *Statistics*—A group of statistics compiled for reference in the study of industry. The references are arranged in such a way that they may be used easily by Grades VII and VIII. These statistics date back to the year 1860 and carry on down to the present day.
- e. *Labor*—A series of monographs relating to the introduction of labor to Hawaii.

8. *Maps*

- a. Map illustrating Captain Cook's voyages in the Pacific, prepared by Mr. Bryan of the Bishop Museum and put out as blue prints by the Department of Public Instruction.
- b. Pictorial map to illustrate the source of plant life in Hawaii—this map is being planned but is not ready for publication.
- c. Large map to illustrate the early voyages of the Polynesians in the Pacific.

This map is also being prepared but is not ready for publication.

The material listed as relative to life in Hawaii, past and present is best adapted for use in grades VI, VII, and VIII. The material should enrich the study of primitive life, the study of industry, or the study of the history of Hawaii.

9. *Pictures*—Collections of sample pictures that can be secured for the study of different industries, the different aspects of primitive life, and for the study of present community life.

- a. Photostat reproductions of the English and French prints of primitive life in Hawaii relating to the subjects of the monographs described above,
- b. Photostats of prints of early community in Honolulu.
- c. Photographs of the various factors of our industries.

The Hawaiian Environment Committee during the year 1929-30 will center its efforts in serving the junior high school grades.

The excursion—The excursion¹ is a natural activity of people, and when used by the school is a means to connect the school with the community, but an unorganized excursion not only fails to give the pupils the material to be learned but has a detrimental effect upon routine and good order. A well organized excursion will permit the pupils to do better the desirable things that they will do anyway, in addition to revealing to them the higher activities. It is more profitable when following a topic of discussion. It should be taken with a purpose in mind and with notations on items to be observed.

After an excursion the wise teacher provides follow-up work, depending upon the nature of the excursion. Group discussions will permit pupils to compare notes, to correct wrong impressions, to make

¹ This section prepared by Mr. Webling separate from the work of the Hawaiian Environment Committee.

further applications and to unify their observations. When planning an excursion the following should be carefully considered:

1. Is the place, activity, or organization, to be visited worth observing?
2. Will the excursion illustrate or contribute to a larger issue in the pupil's regular work? If it is part of a project, is it well placed?
3. Is there a careful preparation on the subjectmatter side?
 - a. Do the pupils know what they are going to see, and why?
 - b. Are they prepared to understand it?
 - c. Are they directed while observing?
 - d. Is an aim set up?
 - e. Are the observations tested while being made?
4. Is careful preparation made on the routine side?
 - a. Clear explanation of where to go, how to get there, how to conduct themselves while there, how to return?
 - b. All signals worked out and explained for moving class from place to place, gathering it together, etc.?
 - c. Has the teacher been over the ground beforehand and made sure of all arrangements?
5. Are there individual and group assignments in addition to the big aim for all? Instructions as to note taking?
6. Is there careful preparation for a summarizing lesson to be held on return, or next day, involving reports and discussions?

The teacher should ascertain whether the pupil reactions are desirable. The following should prove helpful:

1. Do the pupils contribute by questions and discussions to developing the reason for making the excursion?
2. Can the pupils state clearly the reason for making the trip? State the details they will observe that are to contribute to clearer understanding of the problem under discussion?
3. Do the pupils actively search for details and ask questions? Avoid mere passive observation or amusement with obvious but unimportant details? Does the occasion seem to be one of business, or merely a holiday for the killing of time?
4. Do the pupils cooperate while observing and combine efforts in the endeavor to get all the details and a clear understanding of them? Take notes?
5. Avoid interference with any process being observed or annoyance to workmen and operatives?
6. Can the pupils restate accurately the directions given them regarding conduct in going and coming?
7. Can the pupils summarize and tell intelligently what they have seen? Do better than mere description? Can they relate it to the rest of their work?

Form 1 is a report blank used by the teachers of the schools. This form is mailed, duly filled-in to the central office so that it reaches the office a week prior to the date of excursion. The administrative officers are especially interested in the educational purpose of the excursion and occasionally send helpful material to the teacher assisting in making the project valuable.

FORM 1—REPORT OF EXCURSION TRIPS

.....School.....				Principal.....	
Teacher	Grade	Room	Place of Visits	Date	Purpose
.....					
.....					
.....					
.....					
.....					
.....					
.....					
.....					
.....					

Please mail the above report so that it reaches this office a week prior to the excursion.

IV. WELFARE WORK

Nutrition Division—It is not the aim of the Nutrition Division¹ merely to bring children within a zone of normal weight, but rather to develop an attitude toward positive health so that the children will voluntarily and from choice put into daily practice the essential health habits. Continued through life, this will eventually give us a people of greater vigor, more resistant to fatigue and disease, and better able to carry their share of responsibility in the community, and thereby, reduce the vast number of people who are now liabilities to the community.

The health growth and physical development of children, and to a considerable degree their mental development and progress depend upon their nutrition Health and normal nutrition are not quite synonymous terms, yet as applied to children during the period of growth they are so closely allied that one may be taken as an index of the other. While there may be normal nutrition without health, there cannot be health without normal nutrition.²

Realizing, then, that a diet capable of supplying the body's needs is one of the first essentials of health, we have been successful in getting a great number of children in all of our schools to drink milk at recess each morning. The demand created by unceasing efforts of principal and nutrition teacher has succeeded in establishing a supply. Many dairies having been started during the past four years. The child is given the opportunity to drink his milk through a straw

¹ The report on nutrition work prepared by Bess Exton, Supervisor of Nutrition.

² Statement by the late Dr. L. Emmet Holt.

with his classmates. One-half pint of milk with a straw and one or two crackers, depending upon the cost of the milk, is served the child at the cost price of twenty-five cents a week.

The nutrition teacher works with the cafeteria teacher of the school. The cafeteria teacher aims to serve plain simple foods that will benefit the child by supplementing the foods that he has at home; milk, vegetables, and fruits being used as much as possible. That the lunch may be a constructive part of the health program we are trying to have all children sit down to eat.

The Nutrition Division has distributed much material such as posters, plays, food models, and devices which may be used to create interest in health habits. This school year we have on hand two or three Health Films to be sent out to the different Islands on schedule. It is our primary interest to do everything possible to insure a strong body.

We strike at one of the roots of physical unfitness when we begin the teaching of food selection to all children, regardless of whether they appear undernourished or not.

This statement from the recent report of the joint committee on health problems in education of the National Education Association and the American Medical Association indicates clearly the place of nutrition in the school program.

Children and youth should be so instructed that these habits and principles of living will become a part of their lives. Only in this way can we "assure that abundant vigor and vitality which provide the basis for the greatest possible happiness and service in personal, family and community life."

DIVISION OF DENTAL HYGIENE AND DENTISTRY

Dental Hygienists—Since the organization of the dental hygiene program¹ in the Territorial public schools in 1922, the staff of dental hygienists has gradually been increased from nine to twenty five. This increase has been made possible through appropriations of the Territorial Legislature. Mrs. Helen Strong Carter, founder of the Honolulu Dental Infirmary and the School of Dental Hygiene, has been interested to the extent of continuing the Dental Hygiene Training School. This school has trained the staff that is now functioning in our schools. It has been the ideal of leaders in dental hygiene to include the dental hygiene course in teachers colleges and

¹ The sections on dental hygiene and school dentists prepared by Helen Haukin, Supervisor of Dental Hygiene.

normal schools, thereby training the dental hygienist as a special teacher. It is interesting to note that Hawaii is the first to establish such a course in a normal school, and the first class was graduated in June, 1928. These graduates are now in the service of this Division.

Funds for the appointment of five additional dental hygienists were available last September. Due to resignations and leaves of absence, seven of the eight graduates of the Dental Hygiene Training School were placed at this time. This addition filled our quota of twenty-five workers. It has been possible to render service in thirty-three more schools this year than last, and to give prophylactic treatments to 2,073 more children.

The dental hygienist is thoroughly trained in the fundamentals of oral hygiene. Her prophylactic treatment of the thorough scaling and polishing of the teeth is but a part of the service rendered. She is a special teacher of oral hygiene and through short classroom talks, demonstrations, playlets, projects, toothbrush drills, as well as individual instruction given at the chair, she has been able to bring about better mouth conditions. Many dental health plays have been given under the direction of the dental hygienists.

In some localities the dental hygienists have done considerable home visiting. This has been voluntary on their part, and has been done after school hours and on Saturdays. There is no doubt as to the value of home visiting, but with the large school enrolment and a limited number of workers, this work has not been incorporated into the program.

Realizing the beneficial results of visual education, three dental health educational films were added to the Division last year. These films have been shown in more than sixty schools in the Territory since September and will be sent out again as soon as possible after school reopens. The films are available for parent-teacher association meetings, and a number of associations have used them during the past school year.

A supervised toothbrush drill has been incorporated into the school day in many schools. Special troughs with running water have been installed in some of the schools. Unless it is possible for a child to have two brushes, one at home and one at school, the daily toothbrush drill is of little value, as sanitation must be taught and the care of brush as to washing and sunning actually carried on in this project. Through the Hollister Drug Company, we have been able to supply the children with an excellent brush for ten cents. Colgate Company has been most generous and has given us sample tubes of toothpaste for distribution. More than 13,000 tubes have been distributed during the past year.

The dental hygienists have cooperated with the dental societies in an effort to reduce the number of unlicensed dentists in the Territory. There is an appalling number of such practitioners doing detrimental work for our children.

There has always been the greatest cooperation between the Dental Hygiene Division, the Palama Dental Clinic (supported by Mrs. Carter), practising dentists through the Territory, and the Mokihana Club of Kauai.

In the past few years, the public has come to realize the necessity for healthy mouths. Medical and dental research have given us some alarming data on systemic infections due to bad teeth. Parents are interested in the health and progress of their children and more and more dental hygiene teaching is reaching the home. The number of children receiving dental treatment from their own dentists is very large and it is not uncommon to find entire families visiting their dentists twice a year.

Tables 1 and 2 show the expansion of the work in the past year, as well as a detailed report for the past school year.

School dentists—During the past school year this Division has had in its employ five full-time and one part-time school dentists. This number is the full quota allowed by the Territorial Legislature

TABLE 1—ANNUAL DENTAL HYGIENE REPORT FOR HAWAIIAN SCHOOLS
(September 1, 1928—June 30, 1929)

	No. of Patients	Temporary Cavities	Permanent Cavities	Malocclusion	Fistules	No. Drills & Lectures
Honolulu	10,978	41,288	47,080	10,249	1,329	453
Rural Oahu	6,255	21,071	20,329	5,906	841	236
Hawaii	7,960	20,056	28,430	6,566	1,653	526
Maui	5,517	14,519	19,614	5,274	293	273
Molokai	598	926	735	569	2	43
Lanai	247	439	480	247	..	12
Kauai	5,168	18,776	17,729	5,126	89	166
Total	36,723	117,075	134,397	33,937	4,207	1,709

TABLE 2—THE EXPANSION OF THE HAWAIIAN DENTAL PROGRAM FROM
1922-23 TO 1928-29

	No. of Hygienists	Total No. of Treat's	Total No. of Cavities	Av. No. Cavities Per Child	No. of Tooth Brush Drills and Lectures	No. of Schools Served
Sept. '22-June '23.....	9	10,562	119,655	11.2	381	29
Sept. '23-June '24.....	16	19,401	169,630	8.7	1,141	76
Sept. '24-June '25.....	20	28,746	218,887	7.6	1,382	121
Sept. '25-June '26.....	20	31,117	224,791	7.2	1,269	121
Sept. '26-June '27.....	18	29,368	196,255	6.68	1,248	120
Sept. '27-June '28.....	17	28,650	191,385	6.67	1,269	119
Sept. '28-June '29.....	25	36,723	251,472	6.4	1,709	154

of 1927. Inasmuch as the Palama Dental Clinic gives service to the Honolulu children, no provisions have ever been made by the Legislature for reparative dentistry in Honolulu. The dentists are appointed as follows: Rural Oahu, Kauai, Maui, Lanai, West Hawaii, East and Central Hawaii and Molokai (2 months each year).

The dental program is arranged so that the dental hygienist precedes the dentist, thereby scaling and polishing the teeth, and giving instructions as to proper home care of the mouth, before the dentist arrives. With a limited staff of dentists, the work is necessarily limited to the children in the first four grades. So that as many schools as possible may receive attention, the dentist restricts his work to the extraction of all badly decayed and infected teeth and to the filling of the six years molars. These teeth are filled with amalgam and every effort is made to insure its permanency.

Dental repair and dental hygiene are closely related inasmuch as one depends upon the other. A system of only repair would be inadequate. To only fill and extract teeth would be an endless task and a useless one. Definite principles of home care as well as dietary measures from the standpoint of dentistry must be taught.

While the number of schools completed this year is small, the number of patients receiving treatment is large. The majority of the schools given service this year have been large rural schools.

With the enrolment continually increasing and with no funds for additional workers, the most logical procedure would be to eliminate dental service for the third and fourth grades, concentrating only upon the children in the receiving, first, and second grades. With this program it would be possible to work in more schools during the year, as well as to make second visits more frequently, thereby making an accurate check upon work previously done.

V. CONCLUSION

In Hawaii the adaptation of the school to the local environment has taken in consideration the whole territory. Laymen and educators have joined in gathering information about the people, the history, and the industries of the islands. Excursions are frequently used in giving pupils first-hand experiences. Parents have contributed their enthusiastic support and concrete assistance through the parent-teacher associations. Principals and teachers are experimenting with new and better teaching technics. And last, but not least, the medical and nutrition work helps children to that condition of health where instruction becomes most profitable. Are not our efforts challenging to our fellow educationists of the mainland?

THE IMPORTANCE OF SCHOOL PUBLICITY

BIRDENIA BENNETT

Principal, Harrison School, Terre Haute, Indiana

IN THE PAST the public was satisfied with the traditional curriculum of the school which taught the essentials of the three "R's" and turned out youth who were able to live successfully in a relatively simple life. The teacher was seldom bothered unless some problem of discipline made an interview necessary.

Today civilization is constantly changing. Our social needs are different and the school is trying to adjust its program to meet the needs of this changing civilization. For this reason the program of modern education is often misunderstood and unjustly criticized.

One of the greatest problems that confronts our American school system is, How can the school educate the public mind and establish a sympathetic understanding of the changing educational program? This can best be done by a proper school publicity program. This is not only true of the college, high school, and junior high school, but it is equally true of the elementary school.

Phases of a school publicity program—School publicity may include any or all of the following: educational study clubs for parents; parent-teacher meetings for the purpose of discussing common educational problems; lectures given by educational leaders; educational bulletins, or letters sent into the homes of the district by the principal; public exhibit of the pupils' work; special visiting days for the parents; a demonstration night school; a school publicity committee appointed to get the school news in the daily papers; and a school paper published and placed into every home in the district.

With such a school publicity program it is possible to establish a more intelligent and sympathetic understanding of the work of the school and thus obtain a better cooperation between the home and the school in realizing the aims of education.

All of these phases of school publicity mentioned are of great value, but in this article it is my purpose to stress only the importance of a publicity committee and the school paper.

The school publicity committee—A committee should be responsible for the publication of the educational activities of both school and community. The committee may consist of a member of the school faculty and some interested, capable patron of the school. The work of the committee may be divided into community publicity for which the patron is responsible, and school publicity for which the teacher is responsible. Figure 1 includes some clippings which illustrate the importance of press publicity.

FIGURE 1—SAMPLES OF PUBLICITY FROM NEWSPAPERS



The community publicity committee should publish interesting announcements of all educational activities of the district in the daily papers. The press should be furnished with reports of all lectures, parent-teacher association meetings, parent study clubs, and educational activities of the district. The school publicity committee should be held responsible for the publication of the school news and school activities in the daily papers.

In Terre Haute, Indiana, we are fortunate to have a school page in one of our daily papers which publishes weekly the school news sent in from the different schools of the city. Most of the articles on this page are written by the pupils about some experience or school activity in which they are especially interested.

Everybody likes to tell his own experience, to give welcome information, and to merit approval. Because of these human characteristics the publicity committee will find the pupils of the fourth, fifth, and sixth grades in the elementary schools willing and capable of furnishing interesting school news for the weekly press. This contribution by the pupils is of double value to the school. It creates a greater interest among the public and promotes a better understanding of the educational program of the school.

It is of great value to the pupil. It trains him to express himself clearly and correctly and it establishes correct habits in oral and written English. It is a means of motivating all of the work of the school.

In this way the publicity committee can help improve instruction and at the same time educate the public in regard to the program of modern education. It has been said that "Constant dripping wears away stone." This maxim is not only true in the physical world, but it is equally true in the educational world. The publicity committee is of unlimited value to the school if it constantly keeps before the public mind the good work that the school is doing.

The school paper—The school publicity committee should create a feeling of need for a school paper. It should stimulate an interest in a school paper and do everything possible to help the school publish a paper for the district.

The school paper has proven itself to be a great asset. In Terre Haute several elementary schools as well as junior and senior high schools publish a school paper and in every case the project has been the means of promoting a better understanding and cooperation between the home and the school.

If placed in every home in the district, the paper is one of the greatest educational factors of the school. It informs every patron of the educational program. It acquaints every patron with the aims of education, and shows how these aims are realized. The school paper should be broad enough in its scope to include every interest and activity of school life. If this be true it will stimulate the pupil's best interest. The pupil will write because his parents, classmates, and teachers have become an audience that expects something of him. He is responsible to them and wants to play his part. There is no greater opportunity for school publicity than through the school paper.

Conclusion—School publicity is one of the most efficient means of informing the public about the new educational program of the modern school. It helps to break down misunderstanding and unjust criticism of the school. It establishes a better cooperation between the home and the school in realizing the aims of education. School publicity is one of the most important factors in educating the public mind into a sympathetic understanding of the modern program of education so necessary to meet the needs of a changing civilization.

THE questionnaire on page 135 offers you an opportunity to send suggestions to the Editorial Committee

ORGANIZING PUBLICITY PRACTICES

H. H. GRAGG

Principal, Hubert School, Detroit, Michigan

MOST SCHOOL administrators will agree that favorable school publicity is desirable. This article is written from that premise. Favorable publicity is defined as "any facts about school which are interesting and informative to parents, and which are presented for the purpose of furthering pleasant relations between home and school."

While all schools use publicity, some have not consciously organized and developed a procedure or machinery with definite specifications and standards for furnishing regularly the kind of publicity desired. The way in which this procedure is developed at our school may be of interest to others.

Types of publicity—Our school uses these measures to insure favorable publicity: (1) occasional news on the school page in the city daily papers; (2) news on the school page of a neighborhood weekly paper; (3) mimeographed letter to parents; (4) a school magazine each semester; (5) posters in neighborhood stores to advertise special events; (6) talks and demonstrations by teachers on the work in the school at parent-teachers meetings; (7) weekly exhibits on a bulletin board in the hall, and (8) special exhibits for parent-teacher meetings.

Publicity in the metropolitan newspapers—One of our city papers devotes a special page of its Saturday issues to the Detroit schools. Pictures and articles on interesting school events are featured. We use this channel of publicity only when some school event of special interest warrants it.

Publicity in the community weekly paper—The most profitable feature and the one to which is given the most ambitious effort in our publicity program is the neighborhood weekly paper. The community in which our school is located grew up outside the city limits and was taken into Detroit about four years ago. It consists of approximately 3000 families and includes several elementary schools. There still exists a community consciousness, comparable to that in a large town or small city, which is rather unusual in a large city. Most of the parents read the local paper and many have expressed themselves as being especially interested in the school news. There is rivalry between the schools in the community to see which can maintain the highest standard in news items. Small, cash, monthly prizes are contributed by the editor of the paper for the schools making the best

contributions. There is no doubt that the schools and the newspaper profit mutually.

Our school contributes from one to two columns of items to this paper each week. This task requires careful organization and supervision. The literature teacher, who has direct charge, appoints certain children to remind teachers periodically during the week that news items are desired and to collect the items when they are ready. Each of the 20 teachers is expected to average one or two items per week. Pupils are also encouraged to contribute articles. Provision is made for printing regularly the list of honor pupils, the names of new children entering the school, the names of pupils having commendable work exhibited on the weekly bulletin board, and reports of the extra-curriculum activities of several pupils' clubs sponsored by the school. All items submitted are edited by the literature teacher and again by the principal before being typed for the printer. One of the specifications observed in these news items is that the names of pupils be used as much as possible. Parents enjoy reading the names of their children in connection with school activities and, of course, the children are favorably stimulated by seeing their names in the newspaper. Although no objective measurement of the effects of this kind of publicity seems possible our school staff feels that the work involved earns good dividends in terms of parents' attitude toward the school.

Mimeographed letter to parents—A letter is sent out early, in the first semester as a greeting to parents from the teachers and principal. It usually consists of an expression of appreciation for the cooperation given by parents in the past and a wish for the continuance of this attitude. A directory of the teachers is appended as a signature, enabling parents to know "who's who" on the school staff. Appended to this letter is a list of statements giving interesting information about the school and some rules which children are expected to observe.

The object of this letter is two-fold: first, to create a pleasant impression of the school and the school staff in the minds of parents; second, to give to parents information which will obviate many misunderstandings that past experiences have proven to be common.

School magazine—Our school magazine is essentially the same as many others printed by Detroit schools and, no doubt, by schools in other towns and cities. At the end of each term we publish an issue dedicated to the graduating class. All rooms and departments in the school contribute; hence, the magazine is really a school project with activities spreading over a period of two or three months. The literature teacher supervises the project, dividing the work among several teachers who have been appointed by the teachers' council to help her.

The cost of publication is met largely by advertising space sold to local merchants. The magazine is bought by school children for 10 cents per copy. This price is much lower than that of similar publications in other schools because many of our pupils cannot afford to pay more. The size of our magazine depends upon the amount of money received from advertisers. As the cost of printing is paid by the advertisements the venture pays a small cash dividend to the school fund. More important, however, it provides an appreciated souvenir of school days, especially to the graduates; it provides a worthwhile educational activity; and it gives valuable publicity to the school.

Advertising posters—These posters are made in the art room by pupils, usually for the purpose of advertising some school entertainment. The value of this type of publicity is from the needed advertising and in the stimulation provided art classes. The making of posters is a whole class activity, but only the posters achieving a certain standard of excellence are used. Most pupils are willing to work hard in order that their work may be chosen.

Talks and demonstrations by teachers for parents—Our parent-teacher association was organized last year. During the latter part of the year one of our teachers was asked to take part in the program of an evening meeting by explaining and demonstrating with a small group of pupils how a phase of arithmetic was taught. The parents present enjoyed this part of the program and asked that other such programs be given. These demonstrations have been repeated with such approval that teacher talks and demonstrations have been adopted as a regular part of the parent-teacher program. We believe this to be a very desirable type of publicity which will help to strengthen the bonds between home and school.

Weekly bulletin board exhibits—Bulletin board publicity is under the direct charge of the art teacher. Each room or department is scheduled in advance to provide for exhibit on the hall bulletin board samples of outstanding work done by pupils. The art teacher mounts and labels the material submitted so that it will be as attractive as possible. Pupils whose work is exhibited feel rewarded for their effort; other pupils are stimulated to get this reward at some future date; and visitors are informed as to the kind of work being done.

Exhibits for parent-teacher meetings—Parents are interested in the work done by their children and in the educational materials with which their children work, so we have attempted to meet this interest by displaying exhibits on tables and on the walls along the school corridors for evening meetings of the parent-teacher association. This

exhibit is another opportunity to reward the efforts of pupils and to inform parents of school activities.

Conclusion—Perhaps some readers will consider the work and time required in such a publicity program to be excessive. However, the amount of effort required is not so great if the program is well organized and the burden well distributed over the school staff. The teachers at our school feel that the reward, in terms of parent interest and cooperation, is worth the effort expended.

INDIVIDUALIZATION is no simple, transient matter to be comprehended in a glance and judged in a jiffy. Its roots run deep into the past, its needs and its efficacy may be proved by mountains of evidence, psychological, sociological, philosophical. Its vigor is witnessed by the many progressive changes constantly being adopted even by those who are blind to the import of their own acts.—S. A. Courtis, see Chapter VII.

SOME MEDIUMS FOR SCHOOL PUBLICITY

WILLIAM BRADY

Principal, Washington School, East Orange, New Jersey

WISE ADMINISTRATION of an elementary school recognizes the great importance of the right sort of publicity. The taxpayer is as much interested in the kind of school he is paying for as the principal who is anxious for the people to put the seal of public approval upon his work. The public expects the principal to frequently use all the available channels of information, so that cooperation in every project or campaign will be forthcoming. In fact, it is part of the principal's job to keep his people informed of the work done in his school, to explain the methods used to accomplish that work, and to outline the plans made for the future.

The parents should know just what their school is attempting to do in the teaching of citizenship, health, thrift, safety, and other subjects in the curriculum. They should also know something concerning the type of teacher employed for their school and for their children. The physical equipment of classroom, toilet rooms, drinking fountains, playgrounds, and gymnasiums, all should be known to the people who have children in school. To parents, it is of vital concern to know the kind of place their children will live in during the most important years of their lives.

Of late, there has been a great deal of criticism concerning the increasing amount of money spent for public education. In most communities, the amount of money spent for public schools depends mainly upon how well the cause of the schools is presented to the public. And the principal is the *key-man* to keep the public informed. There are a number of mediums of publicity, but the best medium is a *good school*. An attractive school building in a good setting is worth more than columns of type in the newspaper.

Then, of equal importance, is a capable and conscientious faculty which will give to a school the finest kind of publicity. It is also true that incapable teachers and an incapable principal are often most unfavorable publicity. The teachers and principal, then, must be conscientious, capable, and professionally minded, if the school is to have a good name in the community. Washington School faculty has had a 100 percent record in membership during the past five years in the city association, the State association, and the National Education Association. We believe that one of the best ways to let the public know we respect our profession is to unanimously join the great organizations that are making the teaching profession as well

and as favorably known as the medical and the legal professions. And we are proud to inform the public through the local press and otherwise that our school is professionally minded to the extent of 100 percent.

Newspaper articles—The newspaper is probably the best medium of publicity, yet an article in the newspaper sometimes will not make or break a school. The impression which a school makes upon a community is the result of a long, continuous effort on the part of a capable and conscientious faculty. This effort may take up a period of at least 10 years, but when a good name for a school is once established, it is not easy to destroy it. Care should be taken, however, to treat newspaper men courteously, and to give them interesting and truthful accounts of school activities. Cheap notoriety and an excessive amount of newspaper publicity injure a school more than they help it. The school principal who wants personal publicity for himself is generally a victim of his own selfish efforts. He not only injures his school; he injures his own standing in the estimation of high-minded people. We should give full credit to every teacher down to the youngest school clerk for the success of our school.

Some time ago, the *East Orange Record*, a local weekly newspaper, featured each school in this city during certain weeks of the school year. An extra number of copies were printed so that each family represented in the school would be given a copy of the paper without charge. The children carried their copies home to the family who read the interesting things about the educational program. There were pictures of the building, the principal, school activities in safety education, good citizenship, health, and nature study. In brief, it was a general résumé of the work of the whole school. Two large pages of printed matter and pictures concerning the school were put in the regular make-up of the paper, and sent free to all the homes in East Orange where there were children in our public schools. The newspaper got a great deal of advertising and a better circulation as a result, and the schools received the finest type of publicity.

Parents' night at school—Another good medium to use each year is what is known as "Open Night" or "Parents' Night." Washington School started having visiting nights for parents some 13 years ago, and each year the plan has been successful in "selling" the school to the people. The school is dismissed for the afternoon and then called at night from 7:30 till 9 o'clock. Most of the fathers and mothers come to meet the teachers, see the classrooms, and note just how actual school work is carried on today as contrasted to a former day in their own school lives. The parents are very

appreciative of the work being done, and go away feeling that their child has advantages and opportunities they never had in their own school days. It is also a good opportunity for the principal, teachers and parents to make personal contacts.

The report card—A third publicity device used in East Orange is the quarterly report card envelop. This envelop contains the regular quarterly report card which the pupil takes home for the parent to see and sign. There is ample room in this same envelop for a nicely printed card of the same size containing a special message to the parents from the principal or superintendent. This message must be brief, carefully, and attractively worded, and should emphasize but *one* thing. It may stress the introduction of a new course in citizenship. It may be a plea for cooperation from a new superintendent. It may be a special message informing our people of a new course in health, or some of the particular phases of health work we desire to emphasize for the year. Possibly it may take the form of an appeal for parental cooperation in the teaching of safety, and of thrift. Or, it may announce a new junior high-school policy for a certain section of the city. In brief, it is a splendid method to use in conveying a special message to the people, especially if you want to be certain that your message reaches the homes.

Exhibits—School exhibits make up an attractive medium of publicity, especially if they are placed where the public can conveniently see them. It is a good plan to try to obtain a store on the busiest street corner in town for your exhibit. In this city, we obtained the best store with a splendid location for a general school exhibit. The manager allowed us to use all his window space for three days and nights without any cost. We placed in that general exhibit examples of the work carried on in all our schools and in all school departments. We included interesting data on charts attractively displayed in the windows. These charts gave the number of schools, number of teachers, number of principals and supervisors, number of children in grade schools and the high school, valuation of each school property, and the attendance records of pupils.

Each school was made in miniature with lawn, side-walk, flag-pole, shrubbery, and trees. Samples of handiwork on the part of pupils were displayed to represent every school division. The exhibit was very well commented upon by the newspapers, and put our schools in a still more favorable position before the public. If a general exhibit cannot be worked out, something should be done every year or two to show the people in a *graphic* way what your school is doing to keep progressive.

School entertainments—The general entertainment is an old but ever new medium to secure publicity for a school. Yet even the entertainment idea can be overdone. It is safe to say that one night entertainment a year where admission is charged is sufficient for most schools. Are we not open to criticism when we exploit children and turn the schoolhouse into a place of business?

The school entertainment should always have a cultural or artistic background. Various phases of school work can be woven into the scheme to make it educational as well. If the general entertainment is carefully planned and practised beforehand, it will not only reflect great credit upon a school, but also give the public an idea of the work done in the school. As principals we cannot afford to give the public an impression of slipshod execution or poor pupil control during an auditorium program. All public entertainments should be as well organized and perfected as we can make them.

Professional publications—Another avenue of publicity is a publication managed and directed by principals, supervisors, and teachers. Such a publication might be issued quarterly during the school year without cost to all teachers, supervisors, principals, and school officials. The expense of such a publication could come out of the treasury of one of the local teacher organizations. The East Orange Educational Council is such an organization, made up of representatives from all the teaching, supervisory, and administrative groups in our school system. The treasury of the Council is maintained by proceeds from lectures, musicals, and entertainments. Such a publication as just noted would not carry any advertising to lower the dignity or lessen the influence of its message. It would broadcast the high points of interest from all the schools in the city.

Our Council has published *The Bulletin* for three years. This publication has consistently maintained a dignity and a tone that has been highly commended by school officials. Sometimes the local newspapers have copied and printed items of interest from the bulletin. The editorial board is appointed annually by the president of the Council, and is made up of one high-school teacher, one supervisor, one elementary teacher, and one principal. The president is an ex-officio member of the editorial board. The superintendent of schools is an ex-officio member of the Council. Sample copies of *The Bulletin* will be mailed free, upon application, to readers of this article.

Afternoon interviews—The suggestion of a "Conference Afternoon" was carried out in this school last September. A Saturday afternoon was chosen because the fathers as well as the mothers

would be able to come for interviews with the teachers and principal. At any rate, there was a better chance to get at least one parent from a family, if both were home on the same afternoon. We stated in our message to parents beforehand that no children would be invited to come to the school. Our wishes were observed in this matter. Parents had a much better chance to talk with the teachers when the children were not present, as they were on visiting night. All the teachers were in their respective classrooms, which were attractively arranged. On each classroom door was the number of the room and the name of the teacher. Girls from the upper grades acted as ushers and escorted the parents to the particular teacher they wished to interview. Upon leaving, refreshments were served in our large main corridor.

We believe September or October is the logical time for parents and teachers to get acquainted. If a teacher obtains certain information concerning a child in the class at the beginning of the school year, instead of at the end, he will be able to teach this child more intelligently throughout the year. He will also be in possession of facts that will help him to understand and manage the child in a more efficient and sympathetic manner.

Even though we selected a Saturday afternoon from two until four o'clock, the teachers heartily responded, because of their great interest in the successful administration of the school. A test of a teacher's loyalty to the profession and to the school always comes, when she is asked to do something extra or something out of the ordinary routine of work. A principal, however, must not ask for too many extra tasks from his teachers during any one year. Teachers will be fair if the principal will be fair, and especially if the purpose and aim of each new experiment is made clear and kept always in view.

Conclusion—In closing this brief article pointing out seven mediums of school publicity that have been tried in East Orange, it is appropriate to quote from the official publication of the Board of Education of Detroit, Michigan:

Education must continue to progress until it occupies its rightful position as one of the most important social activities of the commonwealth. This may be brought about through (1) organization, (2) a program, and (3) publicity. The most potent factor, after the organization has been perfected and the policies adopted and developed, is the bringing of these facts to the attention of the public in compelling fashion. The success of education in Detroit, Michigan, and in the United States depends upon our ability to reach and convince the people of education's accomplishments and needs.¹

¹ See Rollo G. Reynolds, "Publicity for the Public Schools," *Teachers College Record*. Vol. XXV, No. 2, March, 1924, p. 89-90.

PART THREE
OFFICIAL INFORMATION

LOCAL PRINCIPALS' ORGANIZATIONS

STATE PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATIONS

**MEMBERS OF THE DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY
SCHOOL PRINCIPALS**

INDEX

INTRODUCTION TO PART THREE

IN 1923 the Second Yearbook reported eight local principals' organizations as follows: Chicago, Elgin, Grand Rapids, Duluth, St. Joseph, Cleveland, Spokane, and Superior. The two state associations at that time were Missouri and Texas.

In Part Three of this 1930 Yearbook there are listed over 180 local principals' organizations. The state associations have increased to 25.

In 1923 the membership list of the Department contained about 1200 names. The list in subsequent pages of this volume is four times longer. In spite of this remarkable gain fully seven-eighths of our potential members have not yet assumed their share of the obligations and opportunities of our national Department.—*Editorial Committee.*

LOCAL PRINCIPALS' ORGANIZATIONS

Akron, Ohio—Women Principals' Club

President, Harriet Jones, Crouse School
Secretary, Dorothea Derrig, Portage Path School

Albany, New York—Schoolmen's Club

President, Giles D. Clark, 18 Verplanck St.
Secretary, Frederick Frey, 129 N. Lake Ave.

Baltimore, Maryland—Principals' Association

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Secretary, Mabel A. Otis, 1113 Walker St., Des Moines

Massachusetts—Massachusetts Elementary Principals' Association

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Secretary, A. E. Martin, McCoy School, Kansas City

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Secretary, Annette Abott, c/o Public Schools, Lincoln

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President, James H. Floyd, Jefferson School, Plainfield
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President, Emma Conn, Murphy School, Raleigh
Secretary, Mary Page, Jones St., Raleigh

New Mexico—Principals of New Mexico

Created January 11, 1930. Officers to be appointed

Ohio—Elementary Principals' Section of the Ohio Education Association

President, Mrs. Katharine M. Mansfield, Cedar School, Canton
Secretary, F. H. Duffy, Harding High School, Steubenville

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President, John Walecka, Wauwatosa

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LIST OF MEMBERS THE DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

FOR THE YEAR 1929-30, CORRECTED TO MARCH 25, 1930

ALABAMA

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Dooley, Cora, 247 S. Eighth St., Gadsden, Ala.
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Johnson, W. B., Lane School, Ave. D and 18th St., Birmingham, Ala.
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Moore, A. C., Atmore, Ala.
Norton, H. B., Robinson School, Birmingham, Ala.
Norton, W. K., Inglenook School, Birmingham, Ala.
Orr, J. C., Lakeview School, Birmingham, Ala.
Ozler, W. C., 2129 Pike Ave., Ensley, Birmingham, Ala.
Persons, Annie R., Sixth Ward School, 1906 Noble St., Anniston, Ala.

Pogue, James V., Gibson School, Birmingham, Ala.
Price, N. H., Hemphill School, Birmingham, Ala.
Price, R. H., 1321 Bush Bld., Birmingham, Ala.
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Culbert, Mrs. J. M., Parham School, 301 E. Seventh St., Little Rock, Ark.

Day, J. A., Junior High School, Ft. Smith, Ark.
 Evans, Bessie, 1005 McGowan St., Little Rock, Ark.
 Haraway, Fannie, Jefferson School, Helena, Ark.
 Jones, Ralph B., Peabody School, Ft. Smith, Ark.
 Means, H. W., 520 N. Oak St., Little Rock, Ark.
 Reiman, Emma, Mitchell School, Little Rock, Ark.
 Shannon, Julia, 224½ S. Main St., Stuttgart, Ark.
 Stubbs Charles A., Sudbury School, Blytheville, Ark.
 Thompson, A. G., Supt. of Schools, Carlisle, Ark.
 Washington, Ruby, Duval School, N. 14th St., Ft. Smith, Ark.
 Webb, Victor L., Rightsell School, Little Rock, Ark.
 Williams, Mollie, Belle Point School, Ft. Smith, Ark.
 Wilson, W. A., 806 W. 14th Ave., Pine Bluff, Ark.

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 Anderson, Emma C., 7830 S. Harvard Blvd., Los Angeles, Calif.
 Andreon, Earl P., Chollas School, 1319 Grove St., San Diego, Calif.
 Andres, Mrs. Edna E., Junior High School, West J St., Ontario, Calif.
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 Barnard, Nora Margaret, 716 W. Commonwealth Ave., Alhambra, Calif.
 Barnes, Jessie Baldwin, 419 E. State St., Long Beach, Calif.
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 Biffer, Mary C., 1253 W. Fifth St., Los Angeles, Calif.
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 Bowman, Leonard L., McKinley School, Santa Barbara, Calif.
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- Cornwell, L. May, 135 N. Kenwood St., Glendale, Calif.
- Correll, Vincent L., 1838 McKenzie St., Long Beach, Calif.
- Cotrel, Lucy, 3240 Clay St., San Francisco, Calif.
- Cotter, M. Elsie, Lazear School, Oakland, Calif.
- Couchman, H. H., 717 W. 80th St., Los Angeles, Calif.
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- Cunningham, Charley May, 111 Third St., Brawley, Calif.
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- Fikes, Edith E., 472 Ocean St., Santa Cruz, Calif.
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- Flynn, Mary C., 1511 Micheltorena St., Los Angeles, Calif.
- Ford, Stephen W., P. O. Box 305, Sunnyvale, Calif.
- Francis, Mrs. Rena B., Etiwanda School, Etiwanda, Calif.
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- Gant, Minnie, Willard School, Long Beach, Calif.
- Gardner, Elizabeth M., 945 W. Ninth St., San Pedro, Calif.
- Gibson, Robert E., Walnut Creek Elementary School, Walnut Creek, Calif.
- Gill, Mary, 2424 Chester Lane, Bakersfield, Calif.
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- Glover, Mrs. Percy F., J. C. Fremont School, Fourth and Termino, Long Beach, Calif.
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- Graham, R. J., 818 Spruce St., Berkeley, Calif.
- Greene, Lucy B., 418 Jefferson Ave., Pomona, Calif.
- Grimsley, V. H., 2150 47th Ave., Oakland, Calif.
- Growney, Kathleen L., 530 Sanchez St., San Francisco, Calif.
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- Hamilton, Mrs. Dorothy, 1004 N. Irwin St., Hanford, Calif.
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- Harding, Ruth Clarke, 2018 C St., Bakersfield, Calif.
- Harker, Sara D., Lower Miss Harker's School, Palo Alto, Calif.
- Harris, Mrs. Caroline P., 326 Jefferson, Bakersfield, Calif.
- Harris, Ella M., 242 F St., San Bernardino, Calif.
- Hauselt, Elisabeth E., Lafayette School, 37th Ave. and Anza St., San Francisco, Calif.
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- Krauss, Luise H., 115 Palm Ave., San Francisco, Calif.
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- Pearce, Clarence S., P. O. Box 97, Barstow, Calif.
- Pearce, Mrs. Grace Taylor, Escalon, Calif.
- Peddie, Mrs. Gertrude W., 128 W. 83rd St., Los Angeles, Calif.

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 Perkins, Frankie G., L. Burbank School, Thrd and Magnolia, Burbank, Calif.
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 Poore, Margaret I., McChesney School, Oakland, Calif.
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