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BULLETIN

OF THE

Department of Elementary School Principals

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★THIS SYMBOL DESIGNATES ARTICLES OF SPECIAL IMPORTANCE TO MEMBERS OF THE DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS. MEMBERS WILL BE PARTICULARLY INTERESTED IN THE PRESIDENT'S PROGRAM, THE PLANS OF THE COMMITTEE ON CERTIFICATION, THE NOTES FROM LOCAL CLUBS, THE MESSAGE FROM THE SPECIAL SECRETARY, AND THE PROPOSED YEARBOOK FOR 1933.

BULLETIN

of the

DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

MAUDE A. RHODES, *Editor*, 185 Westminster Dr., N. E. Atlanta, Georgia

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THE WASHINGTON MEETING

EARL R. LAING

President, Department of Elementary School Principals, and Principal, Burt School, Detroit, Michigan

IT THRILLS ME to the very core when I realize the potential strength of our great Department.

Your officers and committees are working untiringly and incessantly to make this the greatest year of our history. We can serve you best only as you continue to give your loyal support and cooperation.

I trust you will be able to go to Washington, February 20-25, to attend the annual winter meeting of our Department in conjunction with the Department of Superintendence. While thinking of our jobs as the key position of any school system our program stresses health and community relationships.

The National Congress of Parents and Teachers recently stated that "Educational leadership can advance only as rapidly as the community can follow." Dr. Judd once said, "Some of the most useful work which a principal can do is community work." I believe we elementary principals realize this better than anyone else.

Please note carefully the caliber of people who have been placed upon our program. You will be willing to travel many miles to hear them.

PROGRAM

Time: Monday, 8 p. m.—February 22, 1932.
Theme: The New Principalship

MUSIC

GREETINGS

Florence Hale, President, National Education Association, and State Director of Rural Education, Augusta, Maine.

THE ELEVENTH (1932) YEARBOOK

Aaron Kline, *Chairman,* 1932 Yearbook Committee; Principal, Pullman Public School, Chicago, Illinois.

PROGRESSIVE PRINCIPALS AND THE SUPERINTENDENT

Paul Stetson, Superintendent of Schools, Indianapolis, Indiana.

EFFECTIVE SUPERVISION

John Herron, Principal, Lafayette Street School, Newark, New Jersey.

COMMUNITY LEADERSHIP

JOY E. MORGAN, Editor, *Journal of the National Education Association.*

Time: Wednesday, 2 p. m.—February 24, 1932.
Theme: The New Childhood.

MUSIC

THE TWELFTH (1933) YEARBOOK

Miss Helen B. Shove, *Chairman,* 1933 Yearbook Committee; Principal, Minnehaha School, Minneapolis, Minnesota.

EDUCATION FOR CHARACTER

Paul T. Rankin, Supervising Director, Research and Adjustment, Detroit, Michigan.

CHILDHOOD, THE GOLDEN PERIOD FOR MENTAL HYGIENE

W. A. White, M. D., Saint Elizabeth's Hospital, Washington, D. C.

CHILD HEALTH AND PROTECTION

Dr. F. J. Kelly, Chief, College and University Division, U. S. Office of Education, Washington, D. C.

On the Monday evening program we shall hear Florence Hale, president of the National Education Association. Miss Hale has been very busy during the present economic depression with challenging messages, so we are thankful to have her with us. Chairman Aaron Kline of Chicago is an active leader in the Chicago Principals' Club as well as in our national Department. Paul Stetson has held many important committee chairmanships and offices in the Department of Superintendence. John Herron has been active in the Newark and the New Jersey associations for principals. Mr. Morgan, editor of the N. E. A. *Journal,* is well-known for his active interest in many major social problems.

The first speaker on the Wednesday afternoon program, Helen B. Shove of Minneapolis, will tell about the 1933 yearbook. Miss Shove has been active in our national work for years. Dr. Paul T. Rankin, as a member of the 1932 yearbook commission of the Department of Superintendence, is imminently qualified to discuss character education. Dr. W. A. White of Saint Elizabeth's Hospital, Washington, D. C., has won international recognition for his work in the field of psychiatry. Dr. F. J. Kelly has been president of the University of Idaho, and chairman of the Committee on Education and Training of the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection.

At the banquet on Tuesday evening we expect to have H. V. Kaltenborn, nationally known political analyst.

It is a tribute to our Department that these leaders are willing to participate in our program. Let us meet them with enthusiasm, and from their wisdom gain new inspiration for our professional problems. We shall see each other in Washington, D. C.

IN HIS JUNE, 1931, NEWS LETTER to members of his staff Superintendent Broome of Philadelphia, President of Department of Superintendence, wrote as follows:

"A few days ago the 1931 Yearbook of the Department of Elementary School Principals came to my desk. From a cursory examination, I became much interested in the contents of this book. The chapters are frank and sensible discussions of some of the most progressive educational ideals."

CHECKING UP

THE FOLLOWING STORY was told at the first organized meeting of the Elementary School Principals section of the Virginia State Teachers' Association, held in Richmond at Thanksgiving.

Mose who was employed in a certain establishment went to a phone in an adjoining building and phoned back to his boss. The conversation was something like this:

"Did you advertise for a man to work?"
"Yes, but that place has been filled."
"Do you like him?"
"Yes."
"Does he satisfy you?"
"Yes."
"Does he do his work?"
"Yes."
"Do you think he will leave?"
"Have not heard him say so."
"Would you fire him?"
"No."
"You sure you like him?"
"Yes."
"Thank you, goodbye."

One of his friends who was standing near and heard the conversation said, "Why Mose, I thought you had a job?"
"I have."
"Thought that was your job?"
"It is."
"Why in the world did you phone then?"
"I'm just checking up on myself."

The check-up at Headquarters is as follows:

THE MEMBERSHIP DRIVE is going at top speed. State chairmen have been appointed in all states. Our goal this year is 5000. Come along—every member bring another!

THERE MAY BE A DEPRESSION somewhere—there are times when we feel blue. But recently a principal sent his dues with this message: "Some items in my budget will not survive the winter, but I'm not taking any chances with my national dues—here they are now." Ditto.

PRESIDENT LAING is preparing a splendid program for the winter meeting. Remember the dates February 20-25.

THE EDITORIAL COMMITTEE met at Headquarters on December 4th and 5th. After two days (and one evening!) of hard work the 1932 yearbook assumed preliminary form. It is going to be a grand book.

URGE YOUR FRIENDS to pay their dues early this year. Promptness saves stamps—for use in other phases of our program.

SEE YOU in Washington, D. C., February 20-25.

Cordially yours,

Eva G. Pinkston
Special Secretary

GREETINGS

EDWIN C. BROOME

Superintendent of Schools, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, and President, Department of Superintendence

THE PRINCIPAL of a school holds a strategic position in the school system. His direct contact with teachers and pupils, on one hand, and with the administrative staff on the other, places him in a position where all matters go through his office, whether from the teachers and pupils upwards or from the administrative officers downwards.

Not only must he be well qualified as an educator, so that he may be able to lead and inspire his teachers to constant improvement, but he must also understand children, so that he can develop them to the highest possibilities of their capacity. He must have executive ability, because the management of a large school is no mean task even for a person of considerable ability. He must be able to comprehend the educational problems of the school, in order to interpret them accurately to the administrative staff. Add to these necessary qualifications high character, an agreeable personality, good judgment, and ability to deal tactfully and effectively with the community, and we have a specification for elementary school principals which it is difficult to fill.

The remarkable thing in public education is that so many principals in the public schools of this country do meet these requirements adequately; are becoming better and better qualified to perform the important duties which are placed upon them. As president of the Department of Superintendence, therefore, it gives me great satisfaction to send a few words of greeting to the principals of the public schools of America, wishing you joy in the service and continued growth in all dimensions.

THERE ARE MANY local and state organizations at work upon the principal's problems. These groups are doing a first-class professional service. If you have no local club, you should consult pages 123-26 of this *Bulletin* for suggestions as to how to organize and what to do. If you already have a group at work please let us know the details of your program.

A SYMPOSIUM: EDUCATION BY RADIO

PRESENT STATUS OF EDUCATION BY RADIO

JOY ELMER MORGAN

Editor, Journal of the National Education Association, and Chairman, National Committee on Education by Radio

TO THE TEACHER IN THE FIFTEENTH CENTURY, using crude methods of oral instruction, the invention of printing from movable type and the coming of the book made little immediate difference. Perhaps a few teachers gifted with imagination dared to hope that some day this new and costly tool might enrich their teaching. Between that day and this, civilization has leapt forward. Processes of printing have been perfected and wealth has increased until a school without books would seem most unusual.

To the teacher of today talkies, radio, and television may seem costly, cumbersome, and strange as instruments of instruction, but tomorrow they will be as common as the book and powerful in their effect on learning and teaching. The human mind will rise to an entirely new level of precision and efficiency and there will be such an enlargement of consciousness that the common man will be familiar with matters which today only a few can understand. Mind is a master factor and every improvement in its cultivation lifts the whole level of human life. By the wise use of his mental and spiritual resources, man may create a civilization of increasing excellence and happiness. Radio, television, and air travel will eventually create a world community of culture. Meantime, we must creep before we can walk.

What about radio in the schools today? It is still embryonic but it is growing. Our best educators no longer call it a fad or brand as mere enthusiasts persons who advocate its use. Experience in other countries, where the educational significance of this new tool is better appreciated than here, is convincing. Master teaching in Cleveland has established results on a scientific basis. The Ohio School of the Air, supported by legislative appropriation, has established itself and has been able to go on in spite of depression and disaster on all sides. Universities which have satisfactory channels of their own are learning how to use this method of teaching with increasing success. The radio has a place in the school. If it can add as much as five percent to the effectiveness of our schools—and that is a most conservative estimate—it is worth $100,000,000 a year to the educational enterprises of our various states and communities.

This article is not an attempt to catalog present projects in school broadcasting. Its purpose is to outline the basic considerations which would seem to underlie the best development of educational broadcasting in the United States. These observations are based on a careful consideration of experience in this and other countries. They have been gathered by the National Committee on Education by Radio, representing the following nine great education associations:

National Association of State Universities
Association of College and University Broadcasting Stations
National University Extension Association
National Catholic Educational Association
American Council on Education
National Council of State Superintendents
The Jesuit Educational Association
Association of Land-Grant Colleges and Universities
National Education Association.

The members of this Committee are in actual contact with many phases of American life and education. The Committee has its own research staff. For months it has had a special representative studying conditions on the ground abroad. For more than a year its personal contacts and its correspondence have touched almost every phase of American life. The members of the Committee are giving their time without remuneration to this arduous and difficult task because of their conviction that radio is of supreme importance to the future of American education and culture.

The position of the National Education Association has been set forth in its resolutions as follows:

> The National Education Association believes that legislation should be enacted which will safeguard for the uses of education and government a reasonable share of the radio broadcasting channels of the United States.—Adopted at Columbus, Ohio, July 3, 1930, and again at Los Angeles, Calif., July 3, 1931.

Similar resolutions have been adopted by other great educational and civic groups as set forth on page 351 of the *Journal of the National Education Association* for December, 1931.

What, then, are the basic considerations which should chart our course for the development of education by radio?

1. No advertising in the schools
2. State and local, rather than national, administration
3. Independent channels for the schools
4. Trained educational staffs to manage the stations.

First, advertising in the form of sales talks or programs sponsored for their goodwill value must not be brought into the school. This problem is parallel to the question of accepting textbooks containing advertising or allowing such material to be presented by commercial interests with an ax to grind. It is parallel to the question of admitting agents into the schools. The schools belong to all the people. They exist to present unbiased truth. Their task is to deal with the whole life—not to sell toothpaste or to indoctrinate children in prevailing commercial practises. This point is developed further in No. 26 of the weekly bulletin, *Education by Radio,* under the head, "Advertising Invades the Schools."

Second, school programs can best be administered on a local, regional, and state basis rather than on a national basis. This statement permits coordination with the plans of the states which are responsible for education under our system and allows for a wide variety of experimental effort. The principle need not mean that certain programs will not be broadcast nationally

or that institutions in the various states and cities may not some day be organized into what will constitute at times a nationwide or even a worldwide hook-up. But the best development will not come down from above. Culture grows up out of the soil and the experience gained in the community and in the state will furnish the foundation upon which large enterprises can have their best growth. In the school of the future every child will probably be taught not only to listen but to take part in the broadcasting.

Third, the schools must have their own fulltime channels, both day and evening. This principle does not mean that commercial channels may not occasionally be used, but it does mean that education by radio in its best sense cannot really begin until the schools have their own facilities. There is an inherent difference in character between educational broadcasting and commercial broadcasting. Commercial broadcasting seeks to reach large numbers. It is constantly searching for the lowest common denominator. It tends to pull down rather than up. Commercial programs in the United States, in spite of occasional bright spots, have grown worse and worse, more and more willing to violate standards of common decency, honesty, and good taste. The air is filled with statements and sales talks which under the pure food laws could not be printed on the labels of packages. Under these conditions scientific material is certain to be shut off the air when in conflict with the interests of advertising clients.

On the other hand the purpose of educational broadcasting is to reach people who want to learn and its best development will come by having specific programs for smaller groups interested in learning specific things. It has possibilities for coordination with other teaching devices such as talkies, textbooks, classroom discussions, and the guidance which teachers in the schools can give.

The whole unique structure of our American commercialized broadcasting is now being challenged in the light of foreign experience and we may find it wiser to pay for our broadcasting directly rather than to pay for it in the much more costly way of commercialization.

Just now this question of free and independent channels for the schools is clouded by a terrific drive on the part of the power-trust-public-utilities interests to control the sources of free speech in America. The efforts of the power-trust group, which includes the radio group, to control thinking is set forth in a book by Jack Levin called *Power Ethics,* recently published by Alfred A. Knopf in New York. In this summary of the eleven thousand page report of the Federal Trade Commission, Levin points out: "But, vastly more significant, it is a record of misleading, biased, pseudo-factual, private-utility information, disguised as impartial facts. It is a record of the concealment of private-utility views in the guise of impartial information. It is a record of attempting to pervert the minds of school children and students. It is a record of an attempt to degrade our institutions of higher learning for private-utility ends. It is a record of the contamination of the news and editorial columns of our public press. It is a record of adroitly conceived, na-

tionally planned, state devised, locally executed deception of the American people on a scale without precedent in the history of this country."

Having secured from the Federal Radio Commission the best radio channels, the great monopoly chains have been using these channels to further entrench their position. The writer has referred to this practise as "the gift and favor form of bribery." The process is most amazing. First we give away without charge to private interests air channels worth untold millions. These commercial interests in turn grant time on the air to members of Congress, to leaders in our various civic and educational associations, to the large political parties, and to other key people. They count upon the contacts thus formed to maintain their position. In the *Washington Star* of November 15, 1931, one publicity representative points out that the politicians won't do anything about the situation because they will wish to use the radio in the coming campaign. Therefore they will not disturb the radio trust.

The railroads in the worst days of free pass corruption were not as brazen as the commercial radio interests have become at this moment. Real education by radio cannot begin until the states, thru the force of public opinion and by appealing to Congress, obtain their rights to channels with which to reach every home and school in the state under the auspices of the regularly constituted educational authorities.

There is another insidious and dangerous aspect to the radio situation from the public point of view. The men who are now suavely seeking to make alliances between the schools and the commercial broadcasting interests are the same men who headed up the nationwide power-trust effort to use the schools and the colleges. Mr. M. H. Aylesworth, president of the National Broadcasting Company, was formerly managing director of the National Electric Light Association, often described as one of the most powerful and corrupt lobbies in the history of American public life. It was he who advised his representatives that members of college faculties received low salaries and that a few hundred dollars would look very good to them. It was he who urged his public relations experts thruout the country "at the next convention have more young ladies here so as to do the job right, and let off more men from the departments, so they may come here. Don't be afraid of expense. The public pays the expense."[1]

Perhaps even more serious from the civic point of view is the situation in the Columbia Broadcasting System, now possessed of air channels worth untold millions of dollars. Two vicepresidents of this company are former members of the Radio Commission. Did they not, as members of this Commission, in the pay of the United States and in their official capacity, help to grant these priceless privileges to the corporations that now pay their salaries?

Such facts may be unpleasant to face, but if we believe in free speech and free government based on truth, we cannot ignore them. These are the leaders who are seeking to make alliances with schools.

---

[1]See *Power Ethics* by Jack Levin, published by Alfred A. Knopf Co., 1931, p. 167.

Fourth, the actual management of educational broadcasting will require special staffs carefully trained for that work. Radio broadcasting cannot be effectively done as a sideline. It is a fulltime, highly technical occupation. It requires sustained struggle for quality. Educational broadcasting is vastly more difficult than commercial broadcasting. It is of course natural that the first training should have been in the field of radio engineering, but far more important from the educational point of view is the management of the program and the broadcasting itself. The people who do this work should be broadly trained in education, sociology, economics, psychology, and the history of civilization.

The steps in the development of education by radio will be as follows: (1) to secure by federal legislation the rights of the states to independent radio channels for education; (2) to secure from state legislatures sufficient appropriations to enable the states to build, equip, and manage the finest type of broadcasting stations; (3) to provide at leading points in the state, broadcasting studios so that the best educational resources can be made available to all the schools and homes; (4) the development of a staff of professional radio announcers, research workers, and master teachers who will be responsible for the quality of broadcasts; (5) the development of a system by which the work of the state's radio station or stations will be closely coordinated with the work of the classroom in all types of schools.

It will be seen that educational broadcasting is fundamentally different from commercial broadcasting in that it is directed to specific groups who already wish to learn specific things, whereas commercial broadcasting attempts to reach a wide general audience by a flashy appeal to superficial interests which the jazz artists like to describe as "showmanship."

While these larger problems of securing federal and state legislation and the development of radio personnel in the states are being slowly worked out, there is much experimentation both in America and abroad which will be helpful later on. The important point in connection with this experimentation is to make sure that it is kept on a high plane. Spurred on by the efforts of the power-trust representatives, eager to curry favor, there is real danger that attempts will be made at school broadcasting in situations where scientific elements can have little place. Such efforts are doomed to failure sooner or later and will probably actually retard developments in this field.

There are bright spots in the outlook. A number of states do have stations of their own. Others are mobilizing their forces to secure their rights on the air and are mapping out programs looking forward to the day when one of the most important educational institutions in the state will be its radio broadcasting station.

Is your state awake to the present radio situation? Do your governor, your school officers, your state education association, your members in Congress understand the situation? You can help. "The safety of the state is watchfulness in the citizen."

STATE DIRECTION OF EDUCATIONAL BROADCASTS

B. H. DARROW

Director, Ohio School of the Air, State Department of Education, Columbus, Ohio

MANY GROUPS OF PEOPLE are interested in the possibilities of education by radio. City superintendents of schools desire to broadcast over local stations, state superintendents of public instruction are anxious to reach all of the schools under their jurisdiction, and recently the United States Office of Education and the National Education Association have looked with increasing favor upon nationwide broadcasts for schools. But the professional educator has, up to the present time, shown no more interest than have the rank and file of individual radio stations and the chains of stations.

The radio stations, since they depend upon advertising for their income, are also the medium of approach for a large group of would-be sponsors of educational programs. For the purpose of our present consideration we will limit the meaning of "educational broadcasts," making it apply only to programs broadcast to classrooms. Strangely enough, the feasibility of broadcasting direct to the classroom was almost overlooked in the desire to provide "after-school continuation and post-graduate courses." College and university stations thought almost entirely in such terms and lost their opportunity to serve the classroom.

In this entire consideration we must never lose sight of the fact that even a small radio station needs to cater to a rather large group of people at all times. Thus the courses which an enthusiast in science sometimes demands, would be intelligible only to post-graduates and specialists in that particular line. To continue the picture—to base educational broadcasts upon the level of understanding of college students severely limits the audience. Even in broadcasting to high-school students it is found that the number of seniors interested in listening to the best broadcasts which can be conceived for them is but a fraction of the number of pupils who can be reached in the sixth or seventh grade. Thus in cooperating with a radio station, promoters of a program should endeavor to reach as sizable an audience as possible. This crowds out the extreme, the technical, and the high brow.

Broadcasts for a city or a small local unit have the advantage of a more loyal and thorough-going participation of the audience than is likely to be possible in state broadcasts. Likewise state broadcasts permit of a more practical, a more definite cooperation of listening schools and the promoter of the broadcast than is possible in a nationwide broadcast. This is not entirely because of the fact that the larger units can not, or do not, increase their secretarial force in proportion to their difference in size, but also due to the fact that there is better machinery for intensive work in the smaller units.

State broadcasts have a chance of superiority over local broadcasts, ordinarily, in a wider choice of broadcasting talent. Likewise, national broadcasts should, and do, admit a still more favored group of broadcasting teachers

and features. The time of great national leaders does not permit their personal appearance on scores of local broadcasts but does permit the rendering of their special contribution on a national program.

Granting that there is a director of radio broadcasting on the staff of any state department, the problem then presents itself—what has he to work with? So far as I know, Ohio is yet the only state to set aside specific funds for the purpose of conducting a school of the air.

In the beginning the Ohio School of the Air was merely an idea without fact or finance. The Ohio Director of Education, J. L. Clifton, in October 1928, admitted that he would give the professional backing of the Ohio Department of Education to a school of the air were there any funds to provide it. The Payne Fund of New York provided the salary for an organizer.

Since it was desirable to reach the entire state rather than the portion which could be reached in the daytime by the Ohio State University broadcasting station, it was necessary to seek a more powerful outlet. After several disappointments this was offered by Crosley's super-station WLW in Cincinnati. Then, since the three most necessary elements had been combined, (1) professional backing, (2) a radio station, and (3) limited administration funds, the following problems arose:

(a) What to broadcast
(b) When to broadcast
(c) And by whom
(d) The length of the periods
(e) Method of presentation
(f) Age groups to be considered
(g) The means of preparing the classrooms for coming broadcasts.

Consideration was given to the number of days on which the broadcasts were to be made and it was decided to broadcast each school day for a period of one hour. This problem and many others were decided on the basis of the results of a questionnaire showing what several hundred superintendents and teachers desired.

Manifestly, with but an hour a day to broadcast, it would be possible to include only a part of a full curriculum. It seemed advisable to offer the features on a once a week basis, three features to be included in each hour. Since it was desired that no class would attempt to listen to more than twenty minutes of broadcast or at the utmost not more than forty minutes, it was advisable for us to choose the first feature for one age group, the second for another, and the third for still another. Subjects were planned to apply distinctly to one or two grades, other grades, just above or below, to listen in if they found the material and presentation suitable.

The final choice of the curriculum necessarily took into account whether the subject was one most wanted by teachers, whether it lent itself to teaching by radio, and lastly, whether a master teacher could be found. This three-headed problem is rather sure to be met by every school of the air which cannot call upon the entire nation for its talent. Since few or none of the

programs to date have been backed up by sufficient funds, the necessity still prevails.

Granting that the subject was a most desired one and that teachers were available, the choice of method was next to be made. Thus it was felt that history not only lends itself especially well to dramatization, but also that in that form a more distinct addition to classroom teaching could be made because classrooms have ordinarily lacked the time to do very much dramatizing.

For the youngest pupils story telling first suggested itself. The need for additional stories by personalities other than their teacher was generally admitted. Experience has proved that this conclusion was quite sound.

Whereas broadcasters had for some time been saying that a good job of teaching could be done for children of high-school or college mentality, they felt that radio had nothing to offer to pupils in the grades. This notion was soon exploded, notably by the Little Red School House broadcasts from WLS in Chicago in 1924 and 1925. Then the wiseacres began saying that broadcasts would be useful to all grades above the fourth but that below that grade "any local teacher could do a better job without being bothered by intruding broadcasts from outside." This likewise was disproved and broadcasts have been found feasible for every grade and even for children of preschool age. In fact, second and third graders are found to be capable of following the broadcasts for twelve to eighteen minutes. Apparently there is very little change in listening ability from grade to grade, although the time span does gradually increase. First graders can listen but a very few minutes to even the best of programs. Thus experience has shown that six or eight minutes appears to be quite enough of story telling.

In seeking subjects for the broadcast curriculum for lower grades some educators were convinced that little or nothing could be done because there was insufficient opportunity for interaction between teacher and pupil, that teaching in these grades was false if it did not call for constant responses on the part of the pupil. Yet there was a conviction that story plays and rhythmics were out of the question as a broadcast feature. Nevertheless, experience has proved that this feature which calls for the utmost of immediate and varied response on the part of the pupil is not only possible but a high delight to the children, that they can follow music and instruction of the teacher at the microphone even without the aid of their own classroom teacher.

CONSULT the membership tabulation on page 127. Are you satisfied with the showing of your state?

TEACHING RADIO LESSONS IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

L. DAISY HAMMOND

Principal, John H. Patterson School, Dayton, Ohio.

MAY THIS ARTICLE DISPEL THE NOTION that education by the radio route is just another fad foisted upon the schools! If we are honest we will admit that this new form of education is making remarkable progress and has come now to the point where we are forced to recognize the value of it in the educational process. It is taking its place in the curriculums of thousands of schools, and universities are adding courses on the subject. Children are learning through the radio whether we wish it or not; therefore, we may as well adjust ourselves to the situation and put this most wonderful invention of modern times to its best possible use by utilizing it in our classrooms.

Radio is rapidly finding its way into the schools and must be reckoned with as a great educational force. However, there are so many factors involved in the methods of using it in the classroom, that it would be folly to make exacting statements about what can and what can not be accomplished—so much depends upon the equipment, the ability of both the classroom and the microphone teacher, and the conditions under which children are listening.

General procedures—To my mind the best that has yet been done to promote radio education in the elementary school are the "Schools of the Air," which are being conducted by the departments of education in some states. Although in their infancy, these schools possess tremendous educational possibilities for they are enlisting the help of the best teachers in the country in their respective fields, thereby making their efforts available to all of us.

We owe a great debt to these pioneer teachers in radio broadcasting for they are responsible for the programs which come to us every afternoon. The booklets, sent to teachers early each month, contain the schedule of the programs for the current month, and also provide for the teachers a very unique and interesting method of presenting the lessons. They give practical, illustrated articles covering project material which is included in the lessons to be broadcast, a list of thought-provoking questions, and a bibliography. We do not use indiscriminately the whole of the program of broadcast lessons; neither are these lessons compulsory. Too frequent use of the radio tends to weaken its influence on the class.

We have a centralized radio equipment in the John H. Patterson School, making possible the operation of any number of loud speakers in different rooms. We prefer this arrangement for the best results seem to be obtained from the lessons when the setting is a real classroom situation. Although our auditorium is equipped the same as the classrooms, very rarely do we use it for a radio lesson. The following paragraphs give the procedure used by most of our teachers when teaching a radio lesson.

Before the broadcast—The teacher is encouraged to select the lesson that will tie up positively and definitely with the course of study. She then arranges her schedule so as to adjust her program to "tune in" at the proper moment. In preparation for the lesson she must study the introductory lesson, for it is very important that children have proper preparation—a background for understanding and appreciating the lesson. She may have to arrange for the mounting of pictures or the placing of maps as indicated in directions. She may also have to make a list of difficult words and familiarize the children with them. Above all, she must have her lessons well planned and use a procedure that provides for actual learning.

During the broadcast—Our school of the air always begins by singing "America the Beautiful" and the leader asks the children to stand and sing. We encourage them to do this because they enjoy singing with the organ and then it makes the lesson seem so real. When the microphone teacher is in charge, the classroom teacher sees that the room is quiet and that the children are giving the proper attention; she may refer to maps, pictures, words, or other things as the broadcast teacher directs, or give any assistance she may think necessary to help make the lesson a success. The older children are encouraged to use pencils and notebooks. The more cooperation between classroom and microphone teachers, the more successful are the lessons.

After the broadcast—Ample opportunity is given for discussing and using the knowledge gained after the radio lesson. Incidents and events are recalled or reviewed with the aid of the questions, pictures, and notes from their notebooks. Stories in lower grades are told, retold, and written.

It would be impractical in this paper to make detailed comments concerning each of the topics that come to us throughout the week. However, several of the teachers were asked to tell some of the values that radio lessons have had for children in their particular lines of work. Following are their contributions:

Stimulates interest in public affairs.

Travel talks provide a vivid background for geography lesson.

Our splendid microphone teacher in geography brings close to us the important facts about the earth and its people. This makes us appreciate the material advantages that we have over the rest of the world.

The children's knowledge and love of rhythmic melody is growing. The radio work in music that artists are doing is a great aid in helping children to interpret and appreciate masterpieces.

The nature stories stimulate the interest of children in the common everyday things they observe in woods and fields. The better knowledge we have of the world about us enables us to live a life worth living—since it is not always possible to bring children in close contact with the great outdoors, the radio has become an important educational factor in my work.

Encourages pupil attentiveness.

Connects the schoolroom with the great world outside.

Children learn to listen and visualize.

Excellent correlation between home and school—the folks at home hear the same lesson.

We are not isolated from the outside world for the radio bridges the gulf between the school and community activities.

Incentive to letter writing—children write to the broadcast teachers, many of whom reply to them.

Reading, in the ungraded class, is usually a difficult thing for the children. The radio stories serve as an incentive to more reading as the children are always anxious to read the stories after hearing them told.

Since the first aim of the sight conservation class is to save sight, the radio is quite helpful by presenting material in history, social science, literature and many other subjects which would otherwise be secured from fine print books.

Conclusion—Teaching radio lessons in the school has great possibilities. However, its usefulness depends largely upon the teacher. We know that technic in teaching varies with the teachers and the best results are from the outstanding teachers. The radio can do much to stimulate the teacher, but it can never take her place for there is no mechanical substitute for the fine teacher. The day seems not far distant when teachers will be trained to follow a scientific procedure in preparation for a radio lesson—for after all, the radio is just a teaching tool, an effective instrument for teaching purposes. Our job is to offer the opportunity and to arouse the desire to use the radio as part of the teaching equipment.

DEVELOPING BROADCAST PROGRAMS IN THE SCHOOL

EDWARD C. BLOM

Director of Research, Public Schools, Louisville, Kentucky

AS CONCEIVED GENERALLY, the pupils' part in connection with radio in the schools is that of listeners. The teachers and producers give much consideration to securing situations which will result in activity on the part of the children because they realize that active participation aids materially in the learning process. On the other hand, when the pupils produce the program their active participation is at the maximum. They are immediately aware of the importance of their activities in the outcome of the undertaking. Their participation in the producing side benefits them not only in making them better performers but also in developing in them critical, sympathetic, and intelligent attitudes as listeners.

The remainder of this article will be devoted to giving a few of the high spots in developing broadcast programs in the school and will be limited to programs produced by pupils. The topics will be discussed in the following order: (1) selecting the theme and preparing the program, (2) some instructions regarding broadcasting technics, and (3) outcomes to be expected.

Selecting the theme and preparing the program—It is desirable to plan the program as a culmination of some project which is a regular part of classroom or club activities, thus providing additional motivation and enrichment for the particular subject selected. It is consoling to know that no program pleases all listeners and that the radio audience is as varied as any audience can be. Although the program is to be entertaining this does not excuse the teacher from including subjectmatter which in itself is educationally worth-

while. The music and the spoken parts should be so related as to maintain unity of the whole production. At this point it might be well to remind the reader that some material (notably certain music) is restricted as to use for broadcasting. Consequently, the entire program should be reviewed by some responsible authority at the studio, preferably the program director, before any part goes on the air. Furthermore, when the program deals with work for which there is a subject supervisor, this supervisor should be consulted.

Many teachers have difficulty in deciding upon the general theme for the program, usually because they believe that their children have nothing outstanding to produce. They want to do something different, but feel that they do not have the originality to think of something suitable. Experience has taught the writer that in every school there are several teachers who, it encouraged, will work up very interesting and novel programs. Of course, they have abundant opportunity to get suggestions from other school programs and from the offerings of the large broadcasting stations. The children are always valuable helpers in this respect and should be encouraged as much as possible.

Probably the hardest task for the teacher lies in choosing the children who are to give the speaking parts. These parts, limited to about six, should be given to those who do them best for broadcast purposes. Frequently those children who can write parts excellently are unable to present them satisfactorily before the microphone. An appeal to sportsmanship usually overcomes this difficulty, especially when proper credit is given. We have found the services of a representative from our studio very helpful in selecting the particular voices which are to be used, for, although an experienced teacher, her present position enables her to assume a purely professional attitude which the children appreciate. She visits the schools as often as necessary to help in getting the program ready before the audition at the studio.

In order to avoid upsetting the program in case of illness or absence of some of the children, several pupils should be prepared to give each important speaking part. The teacher must provide for adding to or omitting parts of the program and each part must be timed accurately so that additions and omissions can be made as the needs demand. Naturally, the program in final form must be timed accurately. It is well to end with music because the operator can cause the music to fade out without spoiling the continuity of the program. Children have a tendency to speak rapidly when they are nervous, hence there is more danger of the program running short than there is of going over time. We have found that time limits can be established very accurately. In fact, many of our half-hour programs have been correctly timed to within a fraction of a second.

While rehearsing the parts in the classroom it is advisable to have an imitation set-up so that the pupils can walk to and from the microphone exactly as they are to do in the studio. The teacher should visit the studio during previous rehearsals and broadcasts to learn how the pupils are handled in the studio. It is sometimes expedient to have some of the children observe

these rehearsals and broadcasts. Very good ideas and practises are likely to result from these visits. The program as a whole should be rehearsed in the classroom several times before the studio audition. A presentation before the assembly may prove worthwhile, particularly for giving the performers confidence and for providing opportunity for timing. Schools having centralized radio equipment have a decided advantage here because the children's voices can be tried out on the local system with the result that many difficulties can be overcome before the studio audition.

When the program is ready as far as classroom rehearsals are concerned, the whole manuscript should be typewritten and each pupil furnished with his part mounted on cardboard. It is not advisable and certainly not necessary to have the pupils memorize their parts. It is at the studio rehearsal that the final changes are made and incorporated. Moreover, the children's curiosities are satisfied as they become accustomed to the studio surroundings. They learn to be guided by the signals used in the studio, and to follow directions promptly and accurately without appreciable effect upon their performances. After the studio audition the program is rehearsed several times before it is broadcast. We have found it inadvisable to have the same person play the accompaniments and direct the program.

It may seem that a procedure as outlined above would take much time away from the regular school work. This is not at all true because the intense work lasts only a week or two and should be a part of the regular school activities. We have had some very good programs for which the entire preparation required only two weeks.

Certain broadcasting technics—In a situation like that in Louisville where different groups of children produce the various programs it is essential for the teacher to know technics particularly applicable to broadcasting since she must train the children who present the entire program, including the announcements. There is considerable difference between the requirements for stage productions and radiocasting.

When selecting voices for the principal parts the teacher should remember that beautiful and gentle tones produce pleasing effects over the microphone. In the ideal situation there is a maximum of quality with a minimum of quantity. Too much input into the microphone produces blasting. A small voice may be a distinct asset. The tones and volume used in telephone conversation are excellent for broadcasting.

Good diction is essential. No agency reveals carelessness in speech as cruelly as does the radio. Exaggerations in expression, pitching the voice, and other similar methods of producing desired effects for a visible audience may prove very unpleasant when used in broadcasting. Moreover, great care must be exercised to maintain careful control of explosives and sibilants. Repression, clarity, and slow tempo are demanded in the use of both. The explosives (p, b, t, d, k, g) will blast in the microphone if uttered with the forcefulness customary on the stage. In order to avoid a lisping sound the sibilants (s, z, sh, zh) must be soft, yet sharp and clear.

When there is an audience in the studio, as is frequently the case with the children's programs, the performers must learn to ignore these visitors and the visitors must repress any inclinations they may have to laugh or applaud. On occasions the plan of the performance may call for applauding as a definite part of the program. It is sometimes necessary to spend considerable time building atmosphere for a program because the background must be developed without the aid of lights, scenery, and motion.

Children must feel at ease in the studio. Although the teacher must have perfect control of the group at all times, she should not allow herself to get into such a nervous state that the children become uncomfortable. The ideal director is both calm and alert. The children must learn to follow the director's suggestions, even to endure a gentle touch on the head or shoulder when such touch is used in better directing the voice into the microphone. It is the director's responsibility to coordinate the various parts of the program. The teacher is referred to here as the director because it is the writer's opinion that a teacher should be the director of the public school programs.

Finally, the director must instruct the children to remain absolutely quiet after their program is completed and until the signal has been given which indicates that their studio is off the air. This precaution is important because the children have a tendency to relieve their nervous tension by a sudden burst of loud conversation.

Outcomes—The following are outcomes which the experiences of the writer indicate are to be expected as the result of broadcasting public school programs.

The teacher gains:

1. Skill in preparing a project having exacting requirements.
2. A stimulus to do her best. She realizes that her efforts will come to the attention of many people outside of her immediate school circle.
3. An opportunity to share the experiences of others doing work similar to her own, thus giving her new ideas and an appreciation of the worthwhileness of her own work.
4. An intimate understanding of the children in her charge.
5. First-hand experience in the use of a medium which is rapidly being introduced into many schools.

The children gain:

1. A real motive for the careful use of spoken and written English.
2. An ideal outlet for their efforts at the culmination of a project. They have a chance to share in a large way the ideas and experiences which they have gained in working on their project.
3. Concrete impressions of what happens in the studios of an industry which exerts an influence in practically every home today.
4. An introduction to a possible future vocation.

The general public gains:

1. An acquaintance with the activities of the school. The schools place their wares before the public in such an extensive way as would hardly be possible through any other medium.

2. An explanation of school procedure, of the goals which pupils attempt to reach, and the means by which they hope to attain these goals.
3. An understanding of the policies which underlie educational practises. This is very desirable because many fathers and mothers now have some misapprehensions about the newer school policies.

In this short article the writer has tried to show how to offer the pupils and the teachers opportunities to acquire through their own expression, intimate knowledge of how broadcasting is carried on and thus to enable them to utilize better the facilities of this valuable medium both from the standpoint of the producer and the listener.

ORGANIZATION FOR RADIO LESSONS IN THE SCHOOL

CHARLES S. WINSLOW

Principal, Wells School, Chicago, Illinois

CHICAGO claims to have been a pioneer in the use of radio in the public schools. Chicago claims leadership in that field today.

The first public school broadcast was on the fourth of October, 1926. Miss Fannie R. Smith, principal of the Goudy School, had been given a present of a small radio set by her parent-teacher association. There was nothing on the air during school hours of any particular interest or value to school children, though WMAQ had been attempting for two years to interest the schools in such a service. Upon receipt of this radio set Miss Smith appealed to Miss Judith Waller, manager of WMAQ, for cooperation, and together they worked out a program.

It was found that the receiving set of the Goudy School was insufficient for assembly purposes, so WMAQ installed several loud speakers in the school auditorium. A plan was worked out to provide a varied program for the week, half an hour on each of three days. The musical program on Mondays was built around the music in the school. The program on Wednesdays consisted of stories told by Georgene Faulkner and the Friday programs were discussions of civic topics. Roy Snell, the traveler and writer for children, gave a number of geography talks. These programs were all arranged by Miss Waller and in several instances the people providing the programs were paid for their services by the station.

In the meantime other school people began to take notice. Experiments were made in the broadcasting of lessons in English by one of the faculty of the normal college. Possibilities became more and more evident, though many of us were hard to convince. It looked like too much of an educational plaything. The receiving sets were often insufficient for the large assemblies in which they were placed. Static at times was terrible. The broadcasts were not always adapted to assembly purposes. Teachers made little or no effort to prepare their pupils for the programs or to follow up the broadcast with classroom work. During these days the board of education showed little interest in the work. Programs were arranged by Miss Waller or one of her assistants, with the cooperation of individual principals and teachers.

In 1928 sufficient schools were interested and supplied with receiving sets to justify a daily program of twenty-five minutes. Monday was devoted to music, Tuesday to geography, Wednesday to art, Thursday to literature, and Friday to miscellaneous subjects. Radios were obtained by the different schools through gifts from parent-teacher organizations, or from neighborhood business men, or from funds raised by hook or crook within the schools. Sometimes an interested teacher or parent brought in a set as a loan. Aerials were placed on school roofs. Classrooms were gradually coming to make use of these special programs and of special events like presidential nominations.

Radio sets were also particularly attractive to some of the boys in certain neighborhoods. Buildings were raided at night. The radios were stolen and occasionally recovered, sometimes with parts missing, sometimes in whole. Some principals persevered in getting new sets, others despaired, fearful that they were placing too great a temptation before their wayward boys.

A superintendent of schools in Michigan was greatly interested in the Chicago public school broadcasts and his enthusiasm affected an old graduate who was kind enough to have a complete radio outfit installed. Later the superintendent, seeing the great future in radio, left the school and joined the radio company that had installed his equipment. He conceived the idea that one of the best ways to promote radio in the schools in Chicago, and also to promote the sales of his own firm, was to equip some one school with a complete outfit.

Mr. G. P. Drueck, Jr., principal of the Marquette School, in the meantime had been chosen as chairman of a group of school men and women to arrange school programs, a forward step that Miss Waller, of WMAQ, had long advocated. So the Marquette School was chosen as the building to receive the model equipment. Assembly and classrooms were wired and loud speakers placed in each room. The office was equipped so that the principal might broadcast to any or all of the rooms from the office or so that he could tune in on any of several stations for one or more rooms. The installation cost about six thousand dollars. The parent-teacher organization of the school paid what it could, a few hundred. A demonstration was staged. Superintendents, principals, and others were present. Many were convinced of the possibilities of such a system and of such an educational broadcast; a few remained skeptical. Vandals tore out part of the equipment and did damage to the extent of several hundred dollars. The damage was repaired and the Marquette remains as an illustration of a school well equipped to receive broadcasts.

A year and a half ago the superintendent definitely assumed responsibility for the school programs. The work was carried on under the supervision of Miss Rose Pesta, assistant superintendent. The board of education has been at no expense. Four committees were selected—one on radio equipment, another on programs over WMAQ, a third on radio reports, and a fourth on radio in other cities. Miss Pesta through a simple questionnaire had previously checked up on the desirability of certain types of programs,

on the advantages and disadvantages of assembly and classroom receptions, and on the successful use of the radio sets then in the schools.

Two periods of each school day were given by WMAQ for these broadcasts, one for pupils of junior high-school age and the other for those of lower grades. Certain educational publishers financed some of the broadcasts and sent to all schools requesting it, printed material pertaining to the material broadcast. This help was practised particularly with reference to science and geography.

The art supervisor, when she gave a series of talks on appreciation of art, provided free to the schools sufficient small colored reproductions of famous paintings so that each pupil listening might study the picture during the talk. Geography talks were often illustrated by lantern slides on the country or topic discussed. Announcements were sent out to the schools in advance indicating what slides of the Keystone 600 Set would be used. Teachers then threw these pictures on the screen as the talk progressed.

The success depended upon many factors. One was the speaker. In some cases he had a radio voice. In other cases he didn't. And so it became customary for a speaker's voice to be "tried out" before he was allowed to broadcast. On one occasion a woman was asked to give one or more talks on geography. She had written one of the acceptable and widely used books for beginning geography. The manager of the station, after a try-out, said her voice was impossible over the radio. Someone else was called in to substitute. Criticisms have also been received that some of the speakers are not thinking in terms of the children, that they talk "over their heads" and frequently speak so rapidly that it is difficult for the children to follow.

Each month WMAQ sends out a comprehensive program in leaflet form for the following month. In September, 1931, 293 individual schools were receiving these programs. During October there were 70 additional requests from schools to be put on the mailing list. Schools as far distant as New Jersey, Oklahoma, and Alabama listen in on these programs. Many schools in the middlewest are making use of them. Since the programs are planned to supplement and illustrate the course of study, teachers are making more and more effort to prepare their pupils in advance for the broadcast and to check up with them in later periods. The opinion so far is that music, history, and geography are more easily and more successfully presented than the other subjects, and yet the future is ahead of us.

THE 1933 YEARBOOK will be devoted to the topic of the principal and the libraries. Consult pages 121-22 of this *Bulletin* for the suggestions of the Editorial Committee.

SUPERINTENDENTS LOOK AT THE PRINCIPALSHIP

WILLIAM BRADY

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THE GREATEST INFLUENCE a principal can have in his school and in his community comes from an active example of a consecrated life—a life devoted to the best ideals. If you will visit a little town in western New York and talk with the villagers, they speak reverently of a man who was principal of their school fifty years ago.[1] He was not only an excellent teacher and principal, but he was a man of strong religious faith. At public meetings in the village where his name is often mentioned, those present never fail to pay tribute to his memory as a teacher and citizen. Religious faith as well as secular opinion should guide and inspire the school principal if he is to be a real servant to his fellowman.

The above paragraph presents the author's viewpoint as to the fundamental qualities which should characterize the elementary school principal. What do superintendents consider to be the important standards when appointing persons to the principalship?

Plan and purpose of the study—A questionnaire, containing fifteen questions, was mailed the middle of January, 1931, to sixty-two school superintendents in cities of about 100,000 population. Forty-two replies were received by February 23, 1931. Replies were received from thirty-one states.

The superintendent of schools is generally the best qualified person connected with the school system. He has had a fine cultural and professional training; he possesses personal qualifications of a high order; he is a man of good judgment and splendid ideals. The principal, therefore, is greatly interested, not only in the views of the superintendent as his superior officer or prospective employer, but he is also interested in his opinions as a man of the highest personal and professional ideals.

The twofold purpose of this investigation is (1) to point out to the young man in college, who is seriously considering entering the elementary school field, the degrees of importance that are attached to the professional and personal aspects of the principalship by superintendents, and (2) to inform the principal in service of the reaction of superintendents to a number of questions that should constantly challenge his interest.

1. *Should a school principal be a college graduate? If so, what degree should he possess?* The replies of the superintendents were as follows:

A.B. or B.S.	21
A.M.	12
Ph.D.	2
Indefinite	5
Degree not necessary	2
	42

[1]Prosper Miller, Principal at Friendship, New York, 1870-1881.

2. *Should a school principal take graduate college courses in order to keep progressive?* Superintendents answering this question in the affirmative were asked to indicate when the college courses should be taken: (a) extension courses on week days throughout the school year; (b) summer school during six weeks of the summer; or (c) a sabbatical year's leave of absence granted by the board of education for study and travel. The replies were as follows:

Extension courses	3
Summer school	26
Sabbatical year	8
All three methods	4
Indefinite	1
	42

A substantial majority of superintendents favored summer courses for principals. A very small number favored extension courses on week days. It is doubtful if a principal can render satisfactory service in his position while giving much of his time and strength to extension courses during the school year. More harm than good comes to a school whose principal is frequently absent because of illness due to over-work and mental strain.

3. *If you think certain factors should be especially considered in determining salary increments and salary limits for school principals, will you kindly list the factors of first, second, and third importance?* The replies were as follows:

	1st	*2nd*	*3rd*
Number of years of service	3	13	18
Size of school	13	11	10
Amount of academic and professional training	18	10	6
Indefinite	8	8	8
	42	42	42

The factor "amount of academic and professional training" received the largest number of votes for first in importance. Second place votes were rather evenly divided between the three factors of experience, size of school, and training. The factor "number of years of experience" was ahead for third place.

It is encouraging to see that superintendents place first emphasis upon professional and academic preparation. This qualification is about the only one over which principals exercise complete control. Every principal should insist on the bachelor's degree as the minimum standard of training for the principalship.

4. *Is a school principal ever justified in holding a remunerative position outside of his regular school duties during the school year?* The superintendents replied as follows:

Yes	1
No	22
Yes (Conditionally)	17
No answer	2
	42

Those superintendents who replied "yes" with a condition were generally agreed that poor salaries justified a principal in seeking extra employment during the school year. In those cities where principals are fairly paid, outside employment during the school year is not desirable. It is perferable for principals to give undivided attention to their schools.

5. *Should the principal belong to the local, the state, and the national professional organizations? Should he urge all teachers to join the local, the state, and the national professional organizations?* The replies of the superintendents to these two questions were as follows:

"Yes" to both questions	40
"No" to both questions	1
Principals—all three; teachers—just two	1
	42

Without doubt the time has come for every public school principal in the United States to join the local, the state, and the national professional organizations. We owe it to ourselves, as well as to our chosen profession, to join and to help the best interests of teaching in every possible way.[1]

6. *What is the approximate number of pupils a principal is able to supervise in a satisfactory manner?* The replies were as follows:

700-999 inclusive	17
1000-1500 inclusive	8
800-1800 inclusive	2
1000-3000 inclusive	1
5000	1
Indefinite	9
No answer	4
	42

It is probably true that a principal can do his best work in supervision in a school with no larger population than 1000 pupils. With such a number, he ought, of course, to have a fulltime office assistant. In larger schools, it is almost impossible for a principal to get into personal contact with individual pupils.

[1]Dr. Willis A. Sutton, Superintendent of Schools, Atlanta, Georgia, has written: "I have often said to my own teachers in my own city that I do not desire to retain within my ranks those who are not actively affiliated with our local teachers' association, with our state education association, and the National Education Association. I believe I am not putting it too strongly when I say that no teacher is really interested in education who is not vitally connected with, deeply appreciative of, and cooperative with his or her professional organizations." *Journal of the National Education Association,* February, 1931, page 73.

7. *At what approximate age do you think the principal can render the best service?* The replies summarized as follows:

25-35	1
35-45	21
45-55	11
55-65	1
Indefinite	5
No answer	3
	42

8. *Do you think it essential for the principal to be a good teacher and to teach a class occasionally or frequently?* The replies were as follows:

Teach occasionally	20
Teach frequently	10
No teaching necessary	1
Indefinite	6
No answer	5
	42

A large majority believed that a principal should teach either occasionally or frequently. There are at least three reasons that should influence a principal to try to become a good teacher: (1) to get acquainted with his pupils, (2) to use the strength of his personality for the development of character in his pupils, and (3) to help a young teacher to get started successfully in her work.

9. *Should a principal budget his time by making a daily program, weekly program, monthly program, or yearly program?* The replies were as follows:

Daily	7
Daily and yearly	1
Weekly	18
Weekly and yearly	1
Weekly, monthly, and yearly	2
Monthly	1
Yearly	4
All four periods	2
No program necessary	2
Indefinite	4
	42

There were thirty-six superintendents out of forty-two who voted for a principal to budget his time by making out a program of work. It has been said that 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.[1] It is an imperative duty now for principals to use a stop-watch on book-agents and janitors and to delegate all unnecessary clerical work to the

[1]Abbott, R. B. "The Principal's Time Budget and Work Habits." *Ninth Yearbook*, Department of Elementary School Principals. April, 1930, page 202.

clerk who is hired for such duties. Well-planned habits of work for each day will soon reduce the time spent upon unimportant matters to a minimum. The principalship will not rise to true leadership until the principal weighs values, rejects matters of no merit, and pushes into the background the unimportant problems. Only by vigilance can he obtain time to concentrate intelligently and scientifically upon items of major significance.[1]

10. *In what two of the following abilities can a principal best serve his school:* (a) executive ability, (b) professional leadership, (c) cooperation with the administration, (d) supervision of instruction, (e) community leadship, (f) ability to get teamwork in his school? All of the forty-two superintendents did not vote, but the six leading items were as follows:

Professional leadership	19
Supervision of instruction	16
Executive ability	14
Ability to get teamwork	11
Community leadership	4
Cooperation with the administration	2

11. *If a principal of a public school should be a good business man check the important abilities:* (a) understands values and knows prices of books, supplies, and equipment; (b) is as careful and sensible making requisitions involving the spending of public money as he is in making up his own budget; (c) makes a yearly report of all receipts and expenditures in his school to the superintendent of schools; (d) formulates a yearly budget to cover all expenses connected with his school. The items in order of frequency of importance, according to the forty-two superintendents, were as follows:

Is careful with requisitions (b)	34
Formulates an annual school budget (d)	25
Understands values (a)	17
Makes a yearly report (c)	11

The order of these items has important implications to principals. It should be noted that the ability "makes a yearly report of all receipts and expenditures in his school to the superintendent of schools," received only eleven votes. Some such procedure as this, however, is needed not only from a financial standpoint but from a personal standpoint. As an illustration, from a financial standpoint, an auditor from the office of the superintendent of schools would check on expenditures for equipment. Each school instead of buying a number of items by itself, would share the savings effected by a central purchasing department buying in quantities on competitive bids. From a personal standpoint, a periodic check in all schools by an auditor employed by the board of education would protect the principal from possible criticisms of carelessness or dishonesty. The benefits derived from such a sound business practise in handling public money would be advantageous to the principal as well as to the superintendent.

[1]Kirby, B. C. "The Principal's Duties." *Journal of Education.* January 5, 1931, page 10.

12. *In your selection of candidates for the school principalship, do you prefer:* (a) the likeable, popular type of man, (b) the scholarly, scientific type of man, or (c) a type which combines both scholarly and popular qualities? The preferences were as follows:

Popular type (a)	1
Scientific type (b)	3
Combination (c)	37
No answer	1
	42

One answer listed under (c) stated that if a (c) type could not be obtained, a (b) type was far preferable to the (a) type. The opinion was also stated that the popular man as such was being replaced by the scholarly type of man in the principalship.

13. *What four traits in a principal's personality are most conducive to success?* The outstanding qualities reported were as follows:

Reliability	27
Love of children	25
Industry	23
Tact	20
Open-mindedness	19
Sense of humor	16
Ability to see what is going on	10
Sociability	7
Optimism	6
Clean-cut appearance	3

14. *Do you believe a principal's personal habits should be in every way such as you would expect from your best teachers? Please check items you consider important:* (a) lives within his income, (b) does not indulge in alcoholic liquor in any form, (c) leads a private life above reproach, (d) has a high moral influence in his school and in his community, (e) stands for the sanctity of marriage and the elevation of family life. The forty-two superintendents voted as follows:

	Voting	*Not Voting*
Lives within income (a)	38	4
Has high moral influence (d)	38	4
Private life above reproach (c)	36	6
Stands for sanctity of marriage (e)	28	14
Uses no liquor (b)	23	19

An elementary principal works directly with boys and girls at an age when example is stronger than precept. A great deal of his success is based upon his personal influence with his pupils. His personal influence is built upon his conduct outside his school building as it is inside of the classroom. Herbert Hoover speaking of the teacher states, "His office, like that of a minister of religion, demands of him an exceptional standard of conduct."[1]

[1]Hoover, Herbert. "Education as a National Asset." *Proceedings*, National Education Association, 1927. p. 729-30.

15. *Should the principal be a member of a church and take an active part in church affairs?* The forty-two replies were distributed as follows:

Yes	28
Yes (not active)	1
No	8
No answer	1
Indefinite	4
	42

Dr. Arnold in a letter of inquiry for a master wrote: "What I want is a man who is a Christian and a gentleman, an active man, and one who has common sense and understands boys."[1] A principal needs all the help that he can get from personal religion.

The great pioneer leaders of our profession were men of faith.[2] Horace Mann, a man of religious convictions, laid the foundation of our public school system in America. It was his faith in God and his belief in splendid ideals that made the public school what it is today—the chief bulwark of the Republic.

L. P. Jacks, Principal of Manchester College, Oxford, recently made an eloquent plea for a return to religion.[3] He holds that all work should be sacred—not secular. Julian S. Huxley has stated that religious feeling is one of the most powerful and important of human attributes.[4] During the past few months such scientists as Eddington, Einstein, Jeans, Millikan, and Whitney have indicated that there is something beyond the realm of science—something that ought to rekindle our religious beliefs and enrich our spiritual lives.

What does this study mean to members of our national Department?—Forty-two superintendents have given their answers in this study to fifteen important questions. What do these answers mean to the legal status of the principalship? What can we do about our professional training? How can we cultivate the desirable personal traits and attitudes? To these and similar questions we should give considerable study.

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[1]Stanley, A. P. *The Life and Correspondence of Thomas Arnold.* New York. Scribner's, 1892. Vol. I, p. 105.

[2]Wright, H. P. *The Young Man and Teaching.* New York: Macmillan Co., 1926. p. 46-47.

[3]Jacks, L. P. "A Plea for Religion in the Workshop." *New York Times Magazine,* January 25, 1931. p. 3.

[4]Huxley, Julian S. "Religion Meets Science." *Atlantic Monthly,* March, 1931. p. 373.

PRELIMINARY REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON CERTIFICATION

CASSIE F. ROYS

Principal, Omaha Public Schools, and Chairman, Committee on Certification

THE DEPARTMENT of Elementary School Principals looks forward to the day when there will be a "superior" principal in each elementary school in the United States. A "superior" principal is one with teaching experience, broad cultural education, thorough professional training, and a keen interest in children—all so coordinated as to indicate an educational leader.

This wish of the Department manifested itself in organized form in 1927 with the appointment of the Committee on Standards and Training. Under W. T. Longshore, the Committee formulated in the 1928 yearbook much of the current best thinking on the new principalship. Since that date teacher-training agencies, local superintendents, and state authorities have cooperated in placing the principalship upon a first-class professional basis.

The present committee on certification—At the Los Angeles meeting of the Executive Committee in the summer of 1931 the decision was made to appoint a committee on certification. Those appointed to the committee include: Frank D. Henderson, Seattle, Washington; Winifred Pittinger, Toledo, Ohio; Hoyt D. Smith, New Rochelle, New York; Ethel Tudbury, Berkeley, California; and Cassie F. Roys, *chairman*. Ex officio members of the Committee are Eva G. Pinkston, special secretary of the Department, and Dr. Frank W. Hubbard, associate director, Research Division of the National Education Association.

Preliminary study—At the request of the Chairman of the Committee the Research Division of the National Education Association prepared a summary of state certification requirements in the 48 states and the District of Columbia. These summaries were sent to the state departments for checking. Up to the time of the preparation of this report in December, 1931, the status of the replies was as follows:

No reply to inquiry	3
No state certificates for principals (Massachusetts and District of Columbia)	2
Require only certificates for teaching	33
Special certificates for supervising principals (Table 1)	11
	49

Massachusetts issues only certain special state certificates, because standards are set up on a town or local basis. The District of Columbia issues no certificates, but has an eligibility list, determined on an examination basis, similar to New York, Philadelphia, and other large cities.

In 33 states the requirements for principals in elementary schools have not taken definite form. Most of the certification requirements in these states do not mention the elementary school principal. A few states require the principal to hold the highest level of certificate for teaching.

According to Table 1 there are 11 states in which the special requirements for the principalship are taking definite form. The requirements for the highest certificates in each state in Table 1 may be summarized approximately as follows:

1. Teaching experience	3 years
2. College training	4 years
3. Courses in administration and supervision	18 semester hours
4. Duration of first issue	3-5 years

Two states—Indiana and Alabama—provide certificates which require graduate study beyond the bachelor's degree. In the bulletin which introduces the new New York standards Dr. J. Cayce Morrison writes: "It seems reasonable to assume that we shall move forward to a five-year curriculum beyond high-school graduation for the preparation of elementary school principals."

City standards often high—The above paragraphs have summarized the basic state requirements for the certification of supervising elementary school principals. The conclusion may be drawn that in two-thirds of the states the principals have little or no training for their special work. Of course, this conclusion is unsafe when applied to the larger city school systems whether the state standards are high or not. The professional zeal of many individual principals, the availability of summer school courses, and the standards prescribed by city superintendents have all operated to raise the preparation of principals far above minimum state standards.

On the other hand, as long as it is possible to employ "anyone with a certificate to teach" as a principal, then many school boards will do so. Such practises make the principalship a position for unskilled and poorly paid workers. Teachers of training may be placed under a leadership that thwarts their potential teaching abilities. Ultimately, children are deprived of the "learning environment" which is their American birthright.

National Standards—Economic and professional factors in every state make it extremely difficult to set up national standards. However, the need for establishing the principalship on a sound professional basis encourages the Committee to put forward several tentative problems for discussion:

1. The levels of the elementary school principalship may be defined as follows:

a. *Assistant principal*—A person who works under the immediate direction of a supervising principal, and devotes a portion of the school day to administrative duties.
b. *Head-teacher*—A person who administers an elementary school unit of three teachers or less (including the head-teacher) and teaches full-time.
c. *Teaching principal*—A person who administers an elementary school of four or more teachers (including the principal) and devotes *less* than 50 percent of his time to supervision of instruction.
d. *Supervising principal*—A person who administers one or more elementary schools and devotes 50 percent or more of his time to the supervision of instruction.

*TABLE 1—SPECIAL CERTIFICATES FOR SUPERVISING ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

State	Name of Certificate	Requirements			Years for which Certificate First Issued	Supplementary
		Years of Teaching Experience	Years of College Training	Semester hours in administration or supervision		
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
Wyoming	Elementary Administration	0	2	3½[1]	Life	Teaching permit only required for those working under a superintendent. This permit good for 3 years and based on 30 semester hours in education.
Connecticut	a. Limited Supervisors	3	2	0	3	a. In addition, at least one year's experience as a principal or supervisor. Permanent after 3 years.
	b. Limited Supervisors	0	4	0	3	b. In addition, at least five years' experience as a principal or supervisor. Permanent after 3 years.
Minnesota	Administration and Supervision	2	2	6	Not specified[2]	Based upon Standard Elementary Teaching Certificate issued on the basis of two years of normal school.
Maryland	El. Sch. Prin.	3	2½	16		Not required in schools of less than 3 teachers.
Delaware	El. Sch. Prin.	1	4	6	3	A total of 30 specified semester hours in elementary education.
North Carolina	El. Sch. Prin.	3	4	1	5	Issued for life after 5 years of experience and 15 semester hours in administration and supervisory courses.
California	Administration	2	4	15	2-5	The administration credential is superimposed upon the teaching credential.
Indiana	a. First Grade	3	5	18	5	(Third grade certificate to be discontinued after November 1, 1932.)
	b. Second Grade	2	4	15	3	
	c. Third Grade	2	3	12	2	
New Jersey	Supervisor's	3	4[3]	32	3	Three years of successful experience as a supervisor may be substituted for 16 semester hours in column 5.
Alabama	a. Class A	3	5	32	6	
	b. Class B	3	4	0	6	
New York	a. Permanent	5	4	30	Life	Certain approved courses as noted in column 5.
	b. Provisional	2	4	Not specified	5	Provisional certificate not subject to renewal.

*See page 98 for footnotes to this table.

2. After considering the state requirements for the certification of principals it appears to be possible to grade the states on A, B, C, levels as follows:

A. States with a special certificate, based upon specific professional requirements, for supervising principals.
B. States with no special certificates for supervising principals, but specifying that such principals must hold the highest certificate for elementary school teaching.
C. States with no special certificates for supervising principals and no requirements as to teaching certificates for principals.

3. The basic requirements for the certification of supervising principals might be established on three levels such as the following:

First Class
a. Graduate of four year college.
b. Undergraduate study of history of education, theory of education, teaching methods, and hygiene and psychology of childhood.
c. One full year or more of graduate study in elementary school administration and supervision.
d. Five years of teaching or supervising experience, at least two years of which shall have been in the elementary field.

Second Class
a. Graduate of four year college or equivalent.
b. Undergraduate study of history of education, theory of education, teaching methods, and hygiene and psychology of childhood.
c. Less than one year of graduate study in elementary school administration and supervision.
d. Four years of teaching or supervisory experience, at least one year of which shall have been in the elementary field.

Third Class
a. Graduate of four year college or equivalent.
b. Undergraduate study of history of education, theory of education, teaching methods, and hygiene and psychology of childhood.
c. No graduate study of elementary school administration and supervision.
d. Three years of teaching or supervisory experience.

The above statements are purely tentative. The Committee does not submit these definitions and standards as representing an official departmental viewpoint. This statement is for discussion purposes only.

Next steps—The Committee looks forward to hearing from members of the Department of Elementary School Principals. What do you think about the standards given above? Is it practical to have national standards? What can our Department do to establish the principalship on a sound legal basis? What further research studies should be made by this committee? Upon these and similar questions the Committee welcomes discussion. Let us know of the standards and practises of your city so that the Committee may have the benefit of your experience for our final report.

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[1]Stated in requirements as 5 quarter hours.

[2]Not specified, means that the certification leaflets available to the committee did not report this item.

[3]Or equivalent.

THE BIENNIAL SALARY SURVEY

FRANK W. HUBBARD
Associate Director, Research Division, National Education Association

EVERY TWO YEARS the Research Division of the National Education Association makes a survey of the salaries of teachers and other employees in city school systems.[1] Through the splendid cooperation of city school officials this survey has assumed increasing completeness and usefulness. The survey for the school year 1930-31 was based on the following returns for the school systems in each city group: Over 100,000, 95 percent; 30,000 to 100,000, 91 percent; 10,000 to 30,000, 68 percent; 5000 to 10,000, 51 percent, and 2500 to 5000, 30 percent.

Supervising principals—The inquiry form described a "supervising" principal as one who gives full time to administrative and supervisory duties. In other words, a school head who has no regular classroom assignment.

Table 1 shows that there were 6698 supervising principals in the 1632 city school systems. This type of officer exists in greatest number in the cities over 100,000 in population. In small school systems the "teaching" principal is more typical.

The median salary for all supervising principals in the 1632 cities is $3099 per year. As might be expected the median for the 88 cities over 100,000 in population is well above the national median.

A total of 561 principals receive a salary of $5000 or more per year. Five hundred and thirty-one of these are in cities over 100,000 in population. Seventy-two percent (382 principals) of the 531 are to be found in New York City. Most of those not reported by New York are in Detroit, Jersey City, Newark, and other financial centers.

Assuming $2000 as the average annual income of all gainfully occupied persons in the United States,[2] then 441 or 7 percent of the supervising principals in Table 1 are below this minimum. Below a salary of $3000 are to be found 2944 or 44 percent of the supervising principals in the 1632 city school systems.

Teaching principals—According to the survey blank a "teaching" principal is one who has regular classroom duties. Table 1 shows that there are 4625 teaching principals in the 1632 city school systems. In cities over 100,000 in population there is only one teaching principal to eight supervising principals. In cities under 10,000 in population the proportion is almost the reverse, that is, one supervising master to seven teaching principals.

According to Table 1 the highest paid teaching principal receives about $4800 per year. The median salary for the entire group in the 1632 cities is $1787 per year.

[1]The study is summarized in "Salaries in City School Systems, 1930-31," *Research Bulletin* 9: 161-228; May, 1931. Detailed compilations for each city group are available at a reasonable cost.

[2]See page 151 of "The Scheduling of Teachers' Salaries," *Research Bulletin,* Vol. V, No. 3, May, 1927, National Education Association.

TABLE 1—DISTRIBUTION OF THE SALARIES OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS IN 1632 CITIES OVER 2500 IN POPULATION IN 1930-31.

Salaries Paid	88 Cities Over 100,000		204 Cities 30,000 to 100,000		449 Cities 10,000 to 30,000		451 Cities 5000 to 10,000		440 Cities 2500 to 5000		1632 Cities	
	T[1]	S[2]	T	S	T	S	T	S	T	S	T	S
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
$5000 and over	---	531	---	28	---	---	---	1	---	1	---	561
4800 to 4999	---	185	2	10	---	---	---	2	---	---	2	197
4600 to 4799	---	46	---	1	---	1	---	---	---	3	---	51
4400 to 4599	---	198	---	13	---	3	---	---	---	---	---	214
4200 to 4399	---	145	1	18	---	4	---	2	---	---	1	169
4000 to 4199	---	279	2	37	1	4	---	4	---	---	3	324
3800 to 3999	---	238	8	30	---	16	---	3	---	1	8	288
3600 to 3799	16	305	1	39	---	15	1	---	---	---	18	359
3400 to 3599	3	358	1	65	---	19	---	2	---	2	4	446
3200 to 3399	6	400	4	95	1	23	1	4	---	1	12	523
3100 to 3199	11	148	4	37	1	21	---	5	---	1	16	212
3000 to 3099	10	242	23	122	6	34	6	9	1	3	46	410
2900 to 2999	17	161	11	64	3	19	1	3	---	---	32	247
2800 to 2899	61	154	9	53	14	31	3	9	---	1	87	248
2700 to 2799	37	192	17	59	12	36	6	4	2	1	74	292
2600 to 2699	60	163	7	70	19	46	9	12	---	3	95	294
2500 to 2599	43	95	24	129	15	63	10	7	1	5	93	299
2400 to 2499	40	83	38	82	35	69	15	19	3	5	131	258
2300 to 2399	25	57	46	94	41	45	12	8	2	3	126	207
2200 to 2299	37	51	79	98	64	70	14	19	4	4	198	242
2100 to 2199	40	46	70	69	112	70	24	13	9	6	255	204
2000 to 2099	67	36	87	70	105	77	70	24	19	5	348	212
1900 to 1999	32	8	86	58	119	34	45	6	11	3	293	109
1800 to 1899	19	9	121	40	174	61	90	25	22	6	426	141
1700 to 1799	6	6	63	8	169	32	83	5	23	2	344	53
1600 to 1699	16	2	67	14	199	27	117	8	41	7	440	58
Below 1600	33	7	77	14	551	34	552	17	360	8	1573	80
Total	579	4145	848	1417	1641	854	1059	211	498	71	4625	6698
Median	$2436	$3519	$2011	$2646	$1742	$2349	$1583	$2239	$1409	$2175	$1787	$3099

[1]Teaching principals.

[2]Supervising principals.

Sixty-seven percent or 3076 teaching principals are paid less than $2000 per year. Ninety-eight percent receive less than $3000 per year. Only 110 teaching principals are reported as receiving an annual salary of $3000 or more.

Assistant principals—Salaries of assistant or vice-principals of elementary schools are given in Table 2. Officers of this type were reported in large numbers only in the cities over 30,000 in population.

In the 292 cities above 30,000 in population there are 1461 assistant elementary school principals. Seven hundred and seventy-nine or 53 percent of these assistant principals are to be found in New York City. This fact accounts for the unusually high median in column 2 of Table 2.

TABLE 2—DISTRIBUTION OF SALARIES OF ASSISTANT PRINCIPALS IN SCHOOL SYSTEMS IN CITIES OVER 30,000 IN POPULATION

Salary	88 Cities Over 100,000	204 Cities 30,000-100,000	292 Cities
1	2	3	4
$4000 and over	782	1	783
3000 to 3999	97	38	135
2000 to 2999	438	41	479
Under 2000	41	23	64
Total	1358	103	1461
Median	$4000+	$2695	$4000+

None of the assistant principals in New York City receive less than $3600 per year. A total of 819 of the assistant principals reported in Table 2 receive this amount or more. Therefore, there are only 40 assistant principals outside of New York City who receive $3600 or more per year.

Four percent or 64 assistant principals in Table 2 receive less than $2000 per year. Thirty-seven percent or 543 are paid less than $3000 a year.

Maximum salaries in the largest cities—Seventy of the eighty-eight cities over 100,000 in population specify maximum salaries for supervising principals. Two cities pay $7000 or more, and six cities have a maximum of $5000 or over. Thirty-one cities or 44 percent of those replying specify a maximum salary not to exceed $3600 per year.

Only thirty of the eighty-eight largest cities reported a maximum salary for teaching principals. All of these maximums were under $4400 per year. One-third of the maximums reported for teaching principals were less than $2600 per year.

Progress—It is difficult to report progress as compared with the salary study in 1928-29. This earlier study was based upon the 1920 census and included data for 1401 cities. The 1930-31 report was based upon 1632 cities, and was interpreted in terms of the 1930 census. We are, therefore, limited in our comparisons.

[1]Teaching principals.

[2]Supervising principals.

The highest salaries for supervising principals are found in the 10 largest cities. In 1928 these cities reported a total of 1837 principals and in 1930 a total of 1825. The proportion receiving certain salaries are shown in Table 3.

TABLE 3—COMFARISON BETWEEN THE 1928 AND 1930 SALARIES OF SUPERVISING PRINCIPALS IN THE TEN LARGEST CITIES

Year	Total Number of Supervising Principals	Percent Receiving		
		Over $5000	$3000 to $4999	Under $3000
1	2	3	4	5
1928	1837	24	63	13
1930	1825	25	68	7

A detailed tabulation of the salaries of supervising principals in these 10 largest cities shows that 111 fewer salaries of $3000 or less were paid in 1930 as compared with 1928. The number of salaries over $5000 is about the same in 1930 as 1928 and most of the recipients are New York City principals.

In 1930 in the 204 cities between 30,000 and 100,000 in population there were 28 supervising principals receiving over $5000 per year. Twenty-seven of these principals were in the state of New Jersey. When compared city by city with the 1928 survey the number of new salaries over $5000 is less than ten.

The conclusion appears to be that statistics gathered on a national basis do not show any marked changes between 1928 and 1930 in the salaries of supervising principals. Detailed tabulations for certain cities show that the status of many individuals has been materially improved.

Comment—The salaries of principals, like those of all teachers, are influenced by forces commonly known as the "law of supply and demand." This socalled law means: that if the type of principal employed by most superintendents has only two years of college training and no special preparation for the principalship then the "quality" demand is low. Since requirements are low the number of persons who can qualify is large. Under such conditions of "oversupply" salaries tend to settle and to remain at a minimum level.

While at first glance a low salary schedule for elementary school principals appears to save the school system money, the apparent economy is not genuine. If the community is a small town the principals with advance training and exceptional ability will gravitate toward the larger cities where salaries are better. If the given city is a large one then the persons of ability clamor for high-school principalships, or for other more lucrative positions. In other words, elementary education loses its leadership, teachers lose a high type of inspiration, and ultimately the welfare of children is affected.

A number of superintendents realize the importance of retaining competent leadership in the elementary school principalship. They are demanding that candidates for the principalship present evidence of intelligence,

emotional stability, professional preparation, and experience. As the "quality" demand rises to high levels fewer persons will be able to qualify, and consequently salaries will tend to improve.

The present economic depression is no time to let down the bars. Children need competent principals and teachers now even more than in periods of prosperity. It behooves principals' associations to insist that the professional standards be maintained on a high level. While during the present economic difficulties it may not be possible for salaries to advance as rapidly as standards, in the long run, leadership will be more adequately remunerated.

In Memoriam

A telegram, received at Headquarters on Saturday, December 5th, reported the death of Mrs. Jessie M. Fink of Grand Rapids, Michigan.

Mrs. Fink was secretary of our Department in 1923-24. In this capacity she edited three issues of the *Bulletin* which contained articles by William S. Gray, James F. Hosic, James E. Russell, and A. E. Winship.

In 1924-25 Mrs. Fink became president of our Department. During her administration she appointed the Committee on Standards and Training which prepared the well-known *Seventh Yearbook*.

While president Mrs. Fink wrote in a preface to one of the yearbooks:

> Every principal of an elementary school is today on his mettle endeavoring to satisfy the demands upon him that the educational pyramid may be sound at the base, since upon it rests the entire structure. The material must be the best, and the workmanship must approach perfection.

Immediately upon receiving word of Mrs. Fink's passing, Eva G. Pinkston, special secretary, sent a message of sympathy from the Department. We shall all miss one who has given so freely to the work of our national organization.

A RECREATIONAL READING PROGRAM

LLOYD D. BERNARD
Principal, Whittier School
and
RICHARD W. KRETSINGER
Principal, Burbank and Sherman Schools, Oakland, California

CAN PUPILS IN GRADES FIVE AND SIX make satisfactory progress in achievement in reading if they are allowed to follow a program of guided recreational reading? This question arose in the minds of the faculties of four public schools of Oakland, California, during the year 1930-31.

The usual procedure in Oakland has been to provide a reading program for grades five and six which includes a certain amount of work type reading, some audience reading, and some recreational reading. By work type reading is meant silent reading assignments which are definitely checked on by recitation or written examination as to fact or relationship. It was felt that perhaps by the time children had reached the fifth grade the work type reading was a repetition of exercises which they had done many times before and, hence, largely a waste of time.

With this thought in mind, 12 teachers decided to try to find out if their classes could make satisfactory progress in speed and comprehension if the work type reading were omitted and the time thus saved used in library reading on a level which would challenge and interest the child. Of course, this meant the supplying of many more books than had been needed before and it also meant the testing of these children on a standard reading test at the beginning and end of the term. The decision having been made, twelve classes were tested on the *New Stanford Reading Test* at the opening of the school term.

Table 1 shows the number of pupils and the median reading ages of each class tested.

TABLE 1—RESULTS OF STANFORD READING TEST IN TWELVE FIFTH AND SIXTH GRADE CLASSES, OAKLAND PUBLIC SCHOOLS, JANUARY, 1931.

Class	Number of Pupils	Median Reading Age
A	40	11 yr. 10 mo.
B	40	12 yr. 4 mo.
C	38	11 yr. 6 mo.
D	30	10 yr. 3 mo.
E	30	9 yr. 6 mo.
F	40	11 yr. 8 mo.
G	40	12 yr. 6 mo.
H	30	10 yr. 9 mo.
I	40	12 yr. 3 mo.
J	40	11 yr. 5 mo.
K	40	11 yr. 10 mo.
L	40	11 yr. 9 mo.

All classes except classes D, E, and H were regular sections composed of about 40 children of normal ability. In most classes there were two half grades.

Classes D, E, and H were slow moving groups, containing about 30 children each, whose intelligence quotients were below ninety. These classes each contained three or four half grades.

Since this study was to determine the effectiveness of a guided recreation type reading program the organization and plan of procedure were of great importance.

The first essential for such a program as this was to secure a plentiful supply of fine books. Teachers obtained books from several sources. About 30 books each month were borrowed from the main public library. They needed only to go to the library and choose the books desired, which were sent by truck to the school. At the end of the month the truck returned the books to the main library. A second source of books was the Oakland branch libraries. Here the teacher could obtain 20 to 30 desirable books by transporting them from the branch library to the school and return. A third rich supply in some of the schools was the school library.

Some of the teachers used a fourth source of supply—the home. This practise led to the problem of children bringing cheap "series" books into the classroom from home. Such types of reading the teachers aimed to eliminate as quickly as possible. When the supply was sufficient from other sources, the teachers encouraged better choices and richer reading experiences by insisting that books read be chosen from the school or public libraries.

The weekly plan of instruction naturally varied slightly in the rooms taking part in this study. In the main the following schedule was followed.

Three days of each week the pupils spent the reading period either in the school library or in reading in their own classrooms. During these periods each pupil was reading a book that he had chosen with the guidance of the teacher.

This phase of the program was of the utmost importance. The teacher was constantly studying the book selections with her pupils. To do this correctly, she had to know her individual pupil's interests and abilities and to know her books. Such a reading program cannot succeed by a teacher merely announcing each day, "Read your library book."

The time the teachers saved from not having to plan work type reading lessons was entirely spent in guiding and stimulating the recreation type reading of their pupils.

One day each week the reading period was devoted to book reports. In general the following plan was used:

1. The name of book was given.
2. The name of the author was reported.
3. Very briefly the pupil told what the story was about.
4. The character most enjoyed was named and a reason given for the choice.
5. A selection from the book was read to the class after careful preparation.
6. At the close the class was given an opportunity to question the reporter.

The children usually enjoyed this period. It served as a great stimulus for the class to read these good books. It gave training in oral English and it helped develop pupils in audience reading.

On the fifth day of each week the reading period was given over to audience reading and dramatization. The class was divided into groups for this work. Each group, in turn, prepared and presented its program. The programs consisted of the dramatization of stories and the oral reading of interesting poems and selections from good books.

Definite standards of attainment for the audience reading presentations were set up by the class. Such items as poise, voice, preparation, enunciation, expression, thoughtful selection and pronunciation of words were kept in the minds of the children. Friendly criticism by teacher and pupils was given at the conclusion of the programs. Frequently during this period a close correlation with written English was obtained through the dramatization of original plays.

A definite time was set aside each week in the different classrooms during which the teacher presented a book of exceptional value to the pupils. She showed the book, read parts of it, commented on the story and then offered it to those who were interested. She would never complete the story but leave the class in suspense and move on to another valuable book for the next time.

Each teacher had some method of checking the reading done by each pupil. The long composition type of book report was entirely eliminated. Originality was stressed in the keeping of reading records. Each pupil kept his own definite record each semester but the emphasis was placed on the choice of books and the reading of them, not the writing of the report and the telling of the story.

Devices for reporting differed somewhat. The following one is typical:

> A cumulative pleasure reading chart is kept by the class group. Each pupil has a large pocket on the chart. Into the pockets are placed colored slips of paper, made into small booklets, giving the title and author of each book read. Various colors indicate different types of stories read, for example: red for school stories, blue for fairy stories, green for nature and animal stories, orange for poetry, yellow for historical stories, purple for airplane stories. Each pupil is guided by the teacher toward a "rainbow bookshelf" that indicates variety in reading experience. In addition to the group chart each child has a manila notebook in which he records book title, author, favorite characters, his opinion of book and reason for this opinion.

In some of the classrooms the teachers organized a small group of pupils whose reading ages were definitely below their mental ages. These pupils spent fifteen minutes out of each of the three periods set aside for library reading in doing definite work type reading. It was the feeling of the teachers that these children lacked the basic reading skills which would make them able to profit from a program of pure recreational reading.

The end test, which was given late in May, 1931, was an alternate form of the *New Stanford Reading Test*. Table 2 shows the results of both tests and the median gains of the various classes.

The number of pupils as shown in Table 2 includes only those children who took both tests. This number is less than the enrolment of the classes because of absence and transfer.

TABLE 2—RESULTS OF STANFORD READING TESTS IN TWELVE FIFTH AND SIXTH GRADE CLASSES, OAKLAND PUBLIC SCHOOLS, JANUARY AND MAY, 1931.

Class	Number of Pupils	Md. R. A. Initial Test	Md. R. A. End Test	Md. Gain
A	36	11 yr. 10 mo.	12 yr. 5 mo.	7 mo.
B	35	12 yr. 4 mo.	13 yr. 1 mo.	9 mo.
C	33	11 yr. 6 mo.	12 yr. 3 mo.	9 mo.
D	20	10 yr. 3 mo.	11 yr. 0 mo.	9 mo.
E	20	9 yr. 6 mo.	9 yr. 11 mo.	5 mo.
F	36	11 yr. 8 mo.	11 yr. 9 mo.	1 mo.
G	35	12 yr. 6 mo.	13 yr. 1 mo.	7 mo.
H	20	10 yr. 9 mo.	11 yr. 2 mo.	5 mo.
I	35	12 yr. 3 mo.	13 yr. 1 mo.	10 mo.
J	35	11 yr. 5 mo.	11 yr. 10 mo.	5 mo.
K	35	11 yr. 10 mo.	12 yr. 4 mo.	6 mo.
L	35	11 yr. 9 mo.	12 yr. 3 mo.	6 mo.

Examination of Table 2 shows that in eleven out of the twelve classes the median gain in reading age was equal to or greater than the five months which might have been expected.

The case of class "F," the only class which did not gain at least five months, is interesting. This regular section over a period of five months, shows a median gain in reading age of only one month. This fact is explained when one realizes that at the time the end test was given the median reading age of the group was eleven years and nine months. Their median mental age at this same time was ten years and eleven months. One would not expect a large median gain in reading age when the standard already attained in reading was so far ahead of the mental age of the group.

The teachers of the classes reported upon in this study are probably in the best position to give a judgment of the value of the program. Expressions of their opinions are quoted below:

A. The recreational reading program, as carried out in the high fifth grade, has been valuable in many ways. The reading period has been one of the times looked forward to each day by all the children; one of great pleasure and enjoyment to them. Interest in good reading, appreciation of beautiful illustrations, and a love for poetry have been stimulated.

The organization plan, which is very necessary in carrying out this program, has brought to each boy and girl a realization of the necessity, value, and responsibilities for organization. It has also taught them self-reliance and that self-control needed in caring for themselves in groups away from the major room which is necessary in preparation for dramatization, audience reading, and silent reading.

B. The recreational work has stimulated reading interest. It has also caused growth. A checkup, when standardized tests have been available, has shown that when once the child has sufficient reading tools to enable him to work independently, the progress made is greater than when he is held to a formal reading program.

C. The results of my experiment in recreational type reading which were the most pleasing to me were:

(a) Joy with which work was attacked.
(b) Development of powers of initiative, discrimination, and dramatization.
(c) Increased fund of knowledge.
(d) Enlarged vocabularies.
(e) Better oral and written delivery of language lessons.

In general, the program in recreational reading in the fifth and sixth grades, slow sections, has been productive of excellent results, far exceeding those obtained by the use of work type readers. It has afforded opportunity to indulge individual tastes and to create new interests.

D. I feel the children enjoyed the work and grew very satisfactorily. Children gained in measurable skills. Their enthusiasm for recreation type reading of the best type was most encouraging.

Children who had never enjoyed reading under the work type plan are now eager to go to the library and choose books that are within their grasp.

E. The tests show that there was a growth of six months in the reading age of all pupils and in many cases from one to three years advancement was shown. We are convinced that children who are up to grade in reading advance more rapidly and establish the love of reading as one of their real leisure interests, by using a recreational reading type program.

F. Several boys who very nearly had to be driven to reading at the beginning of the term became so interested that they were reading most of the time. One boy who had refused to read any but baseball books became interested in other types.

I consider that the experiment was very satisfactory and was successful in accomplishing our purposes.

Summary and conclusions—The procedures and outcomes of the study were as follows:

1. The purpose of this study was to measure the growth of reading achievement of fifth and sixth grade pupils under a guided recreational reading program. The *New Stanford Reading Test* was used to measure growth in achievement in reading.

2. Twelve classes in four schools in Oakland, California, were measured at the beginning and end of the spring semester, 1931.

3. The results of the tests are summarized and presented in Tables 1 and 2 by classes.

4. In eleven out of twelve classes the median gain in reading age equaled or exceeded the expected gain of five months.

5. The teachers of the classes measured felt that the program of work followed was worthwhile, in that it led to the appreciation and enjoyment of good reading; to the development of good library habits; to the widening of interests in reading; to ability in selection of books.

6. The children enjoyed the experience and profited by it.

THE PROGRAM of the February meeting is published on pages 67-68 of this *Bulletin*. President Laing has gotten together a group of educational leaders who will be worth coming many miles to hear.

THE CLASSROOM LIBRARY IN A READING PROGRAM

CLIFFORD M. GOULD
Principal, Washington Elementary School, Kenmore, New York

THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL with a well-selected library in each classroom is in a position to carry on several activities which would be impossible without such equipment. The six-grade Washington Elementary School of Kenmore has been used as the basis for this discussion of the classroom library. At the present time classroom libraries are more common than central room libraries. One of their greatest advantages is their accessibility to the teacher and pupils at all times of the day. Where the teacher has had the privilege and the responsibility of the annual selection of new library books, subject to the approval of the principal, she has been able to build up a useful working library, adapted to her pupils' needs. With such a working library of sixty to one hundred volumes a teacher is able to carry on group activities in geography, history, reading, nature study, and English.

Where the library is located in the individual room, the teacher who knows and loves her books is able to develop strong motives for reading. In our school we have encouraged reading whenever a pupil has finished his required work. He is permitted to go to the bookcase for a library book. This practise gives the pupil of exceptional mental ability the opportunity to read more books and to broaden his interests through reading. It encourages others who might like to waste their time or create a disturbance while the teacher is occupied with helping the slower ones. It eliminates the spirit of indifference on part of many "problem" cases.

Frequently a period is devoted to silent reading of library books while the teacher is giving assistance to some of the pupils selecting books. Several of our teachers decided not to have a library period during the school hours for the return and exchange of library books, but to use the time directly before the afternoon session for this purpose. This frequent opportunity for the exchange of library books helps to maintain the interest of the rapid readers who desire to read more than one book each week.

Our object in whatever freedom we give our pupils has been to create a desire for reading good books. The news stands of today are monuments of how the schools of yesterday failed to develop permanent interests in wholesome reading. Let us take warning, shoulder our responsibilities, and develop strong motives for the type of literature which the younger generation is to read. This objective will not be accomplished through the elaborate book report, but rather through the efforts of a sympathetic teacher who understands the interests and desires of boys and girls as well as books. It is often the teacher's willingness to discuss a series book or an undesirable one with a boy that later leads him to follow her suggestion to read *Adventures of Tom Sawyer* or *Little Lord Fauntleroy*.

Teachers and principals are never going to be able to direct the reading of their boys and girls until more of them know what is within the covers of the books which they distribute. A teacher stands amazed at the idea

of reading seventy-five to one hundred volumes of children's books, although it takes far less time than one would imagine. *The Poppy Seed Cakes*[1] can easily be read in thirty to forty-five minutes. There are very few books for grades one to six which cannot be reviewed by the average teacher in two hours at the very longest. The returns in satisfaction are immeasurable. With such a knowledge of the library books the teacher needs to ask only a few questions, or the child to pass a remark or two about his book, to satisfy all the requirements that a written book report would accomplish.

The classroom library must be kept alive to many of the new books and beautiful editions which are being published. Principal and teacher are equally responsible for replenishing the library with several new books each year and for sending to the bindery those books whose covers have been worn. A few years ago teachers would come to apologize for being obliged to send a large number of books to the bindery for repair. It was not difficult to convince them that books were to be used and worn out by boys and girls, rather than to be preserved. A book is of no value if it is not read. Besides, an average library book can be rebound for sixty-five cents with a binding which is stronger than the original binding.

Every principal is responsible for providing sources where each teacher may find definite advice as to the value of an individual book for her library. It is of great value if a teacher has the opportunity to examine the books of her selection in a large public library, but this privilege cannot be available to all because of location. There are many sourcebooks which are very helpful. *The Graded List of Books for Children*[2] is good. *Realms of Gold*[3] gives complete descriptions which will help a teacher in her selection. Besides these two rather recent sources there is the *Children's Catalogue*[4] with its yearly supplements, which is quite complete. Every elementary school should have these three books available for the teacher's use.

It has become a practise in our school for each teacher, after she has used all the sources available, to prepare and hand in by April first her library list for the following school year. In this way it is possible to have the new library books ready for use by October first. Our budget is on the basis of seventy-five cents per pupil for new library books and the rebinding of the old ones. It is one of the pleasures of being an elementary principal to have the privilege of taking the new books to each room because the boys and girls are always delighted with them. Here is certainly an opportunity for principal and teacher to develop a strong motive for wholesome reading by telling an adventure of Peggy in *Tiny Town*[5] or a snatch from some other

[1]Clark, Margaret. *The Poppy Seed Cakes.* Garden City: Doubleday, Doran & Co.

[2]Beust, Nora. *Graded List of Books for Children.* Chicago: American Library Association, 1930.

[3]Mahoney, Bertha E. and Whitney, Elinor. *Realms of Gold.* Garden City: Doubleday, Doran and Co., 1929.

[4]Sears, M. E. *Children's Catalogue.* New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1926.

[5]Cameron, Margaret and Staton, Vivian. *Tiny Town.* Chicago: Row, Peterson and Co., 1929.

book. A few books can be added from time to time by the principal as he reads them or is informed by a teacher concerning them. *Karoo, the Kangaroo*[1] was such a book added to our fourth-grade libraries. Of course, being new, every child wished to read it with the result that it had a rapid circulation.

Various methods and devices are used to interest the boys and girls in the books of the classroom library. One of the most effective devices has been the library chart. A large sheet of oaktag is used for the chart. Down the left side of the sheet the pupils' names are arranged as indicated in the accompanying diagram. Across the top of the diagram are the names of the

GOOD BOOKS ARE GOOD FRIENDS

	Docas, the Indian Boy	*Donkey John of Toy Valley*	*Toby Tyler*	*Untold History Stories*	*Viking Tales*	*Children of the Cliff*	*Stories of Brave Dog*			
Jane Aungst	*		*	*						
Janet Lewis		*	*			*				
Robert Leeders			*	*		*	*			
Lyster Frost	*	*		*	*		*			
John Busch	*		*		*		*			
Leah Kelly			*	*		*	*			

books with a good library picture drawn or pasted above the names. After a boy or girl has read a book a star is placed opposite his name and under the name of the book. It is impossible to list all of the books available, but thirty or forty of the better books can be selected to be used on the chart. This device helps to create interest and is used in grades three to six.

Several teachers conceived the idea of lending two library books each week, one to be called the home library book; the other, the school library book. One book was taken home while the other was left in the pupil's desk. As soon as the English, history, or arithmetic work was finished a pupil might read his or her school library book. Another custom which grew up without the suggestion of the principal was for each pupil to take a book to read whenever the class went to the nurse for the monthly weighing, or left the room on any occasion when he had to wait for his turn.

Teachers handled the lending of books in one of two ways. Cards size 5x8 were provided if teachers cared to use them. There are two methods

[1]Weise, Kurt. *Karoo, the Kangaroo*. New York: Coward-McCann, Inc., 1930.

of recording which can be used with these cards. One method is to write the reader's name at the top of the card and then list below all books borrowed; the other is to list the title of the book at the top and then record below the names of all pupils who read it. The former cards are filed alphabetically according to the reader's name, the latter are placed in the back of the books while they are not in use and then filed alphabetically when the book is drawn out of the library. Some teachers prefer to use a notebook with a page for each child with the books listed as they are borrowed.

To create interest in reading various books several teachers have used successfully a regular story-telling period at which pupils tell interesting incidents from books, such as an adventure from *Moccasined Feet*.[1] Sometimes a teacher has created a keen interest in a book by reading a portion of the story and then telling the class where the remainder of the story may be found. With such a method the pupil who most needs such encouragement should be given an early opportunity to finish reading the story. There are innumerable methods and devices which any alert teacher and principal will develop if the vision of what may be accomplished is seen.

Our classroom libraries have continued to increase in circulation over a period of five years. A study was made in April 1931 of the reading at our school. The study was made with a typical cross-section of the school from

TABLE 1—BOOKS READ FROM ROOM LIBRARIES BETWEEN SEPTEMBER 9, 1930 AND MARCH 28, 1931

Grade	Groups According to Ability	Number in Group	Number of Books Read	Average Number of Books Read Per Child	Number of Pupils Who Read 1 to 5 Books
Second	A	38	1123	29	0
	B	30	860	28	0
	C	24	270	11	2
Third	A	40	1080	27	0
	B	30	412	13	0
	C	39	735	18	5
	D	31	774	25	2
Fourth	A	39	1315	33	0
	B	36	700	19	2
	C	35	538	15	2
	D	27	604	22	3
	E	18	215	11	2
Fifth	A	37	1067	28	0
	B	29	623	21	0
	C	29	490	16	0
	D	18	236	13	4
Sixth	A	34	396	10	0
	B	35	481	13	3
	C	25	572	22	1
Totals		594	12,491	20	26

[1]Wolfschlager, Irene H. *Moccasined Feet.* Boston: Ginn and Co., 1929.

grades two through six with 594 pupils reporting. In reading Table 1 there are several ability groups in each grade as Group A, Group B, and Group C in second grade. In Group A of this grade there were 38 pupils who read 1123 books with an average of 29 books per child. None of the pupils in Group A read as few as five books. By analyzing the totals it is evident that less than 5 percent showed little or no interest in library reading while the average pupil read 20 books during the period under consideration.

Table 1 seems to indicate that the ability of the pupil has a marked influence upon the amount of reading done, although in the sixth grade, Group C read more than twice as many books per pupil as did Group A. The teacher may have a very marked influence upon the amount of reading done regardless of the ability of the pupils. For each grade Group A maintained a higher standard in that no child read as few as five books during the school year. The figures on the number of books read are undoubtedly less than the actual number read because no attempt was made to even estimate the number of library books read during school hours.

The question may have arisen in the reader's mind as to whether a library book is read when it has been borrowed. To answer such a question this information was collected by means of a report of the last book read by each child. Table 2 represents a summary of the pupils' statements as to whether each individual pupil read all of the book or only part of it. For example, in Group A of the second grade 34 pupils reported on the last

TABLE 2—REPORT OF THE LAST BOOK READ BY EACH PUPIL

Grade	Groups According to Ability	Number in Group Reporting	Amount of Book Read		Where Obtained		
			All	Part	School Library	Public Library	Home
Second	A	34	30	4	27	7	0
	B	29	14	15	25	4	0
	C	24	12	12	22	0	1
Third	A	26	24	2	19	1	5
	B	30	28	2	29	0	1
	C	39	32	7	38	1	0
	D	29	26	3	26	1	1
Fourth	A	36	26	10	32	2	0
	B	39	33	6	31	4	3
	C	32	27	5	20	7	5
	D	22	17	5	15	2	5
	E	18	13	5	13	5	0
Fifth	A	37	37	0	21	9	7
	B	22	20	2	6	5	10
	C	27	21	6	8	13	2
	D	17	15	2	8	7	2
Sixth	A	34	32	2	8	13	11
	B	30	26	4	7	9	12
	C	26	20	6	12	10	2
Totals		551	453	98	367	100	67

book read by each pupil. Thirty said that they had read the whole book while four said they had read only part of the last book they had borrowed.

It is interesting to note where the book had been obtained. Twenty-seven of the 34 pupils borrowed their books from the classroom library while seven had obtained their books from the public library. There were no pupils in this group who had obtained the last book that they had read from home. There were 17 pupils who did not report on where they had obtained the last book read.

Another question which might have been asked each pupil in regard to the amount of the book read was "Did you return the book without reading any of it?" Some of the children who said that they read part of their book might have replied "Yes" to this question had they been given the chance. There were 551 reporting in Table 2 against 594, the total registration found in Table 1. This was due to absences on the day the report was made. The conclusions from Table 2 are:

1. More than 80 percent of the pupils read the last book they borrowed.
2. The home provides very little reading for younger pupils.
3. Lower grade pupils use the classroom libraries to a greater extent than do pupils of grades five and six.
4. There is no evidence to prove that a pupil of the slower groups does not read library books.

Conclusion—The study reported suggests that strong motives for, and permanent interests in, reading may be developed through use of the classroom libraries in the following ways:

(1) Knowledge and interest in good books on the part of the principal is needed; (2) the same is true of the teacher; (3) the library books should be made easily available to pupils; (4) use of good motivation on the part of the teacher is essential in creating a desire to read; (5) book reports should be reduced to a minimum; and (6) a wise selection of interesting and easy books is important.

IT HAS OFTEN BEEN SAID in military affairs that "the best defense is a good offense." That statement is a fine motto for our present economic crisis. Rather than an inglorious retreat, your officers plan to lead our Department forward to new objectives. Let elementary school principals and vice-principals everywhere rally to our support!—EARL R. LAING, *President*, Department of Elementary School Principals.

SOME INTERESTING BOOKS[1]

It is through books that we escape the provincialisms of our place, time, and class.—Henry Suzzallo.

THIS REVIEW makes no attempt to report on all the 1931 books published primarily for elementary school principals. The publications reviewed herein are those of particular interest to the principal who thinks broadly about educational and social problems.[2]

Law enforcement—Several volumes of the report of the National Commission on Law Observance and Enforcement (commonly known as the Wickersham Commission) are now available.[3] These are without any doubt the most exact and comprehensive compilations on many phases of "crime problems" which have been printed to date. These reports do much to refute such assertions as: "schools without spirituality cause crime," "a majority of criminals are feeble-minded," and so forth. At the same time, page after page of these documents reveals that education has a major role to play in the prevention and eradication of many social problems.

Rural education—One of the best recent statements on rural education is a bulletin of the Division of Research of the National Education Association.[4] This study includes such topics as: efficient units of administration, adequate financing, the curriculum, trained teachers, equipment, and supervision. Each topic is treated in brief, clean-cut style, and supplemented by extensive bibliographies. While this bulletin is of particular interest to principals in rural areas, administrators in urban communities will find that it is worth many times its retail price.

Extracurriculum activities—Borgeson has prepared a statement of current practises in regard to "extracurriculum" activities in the elementary school.[5] His inquiry blanks were sent to the members of the national Department of Elementary School Principals. More than 500 principals reported on the activities in their schools. These data have been supplemented by articles found in recent professional literature.

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[1]In January, 1931, the *Bulletin* of the Department printed a review of several interesting books. Believing that the review should be repeated annually the present editor has asked Dr. Frank W. Hubbard to prepare a statement. Dr. Hubbard expresses a personal, rather than an official departmental, viewpoint. *Editor.*

[2]For other suggestions see the current issues of the *Journal of the National Education Association*, e.g., April, 1931, p. 141-43.

[3]To date about a dozen reports have been issued, which may be obtained from the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C. Several 1931 reports of particular interest to principals are: *No. 9, Penal Institutions, Probation and Parole* (344 p., 60c); *No. 10, Crime and the Foreign Born* (416 p., 75c); *No. 13, The Causes of Crime* (Volume I, General, 390 p., 80c) (Volume II, Juvenile Delinquency, 401 p., 85c). Other reports deal with the enforcement of the prohibition amendment.

[4]National Education Association, Research Division. "The Outlook for Rural Education." *Research Bulletin* 9: 229-304; September, 1931. Washington, D. C.: the Association. 25c.

[5]Borgeson, F. C. *Elementary School Life Activities* (Vol. I, "All School Activities," 135 p., and Vol. II, "Group-Interest Activities," 143 p.). New York: A. S. Barnes and Co., 1931.

Elementary school administration—Reavis, Pierce, and Stullken have prepared an unusually comprehensive treatment of the organization and administration problems confronting the elementary school principal.[1] The footnotes show that the authors have drawn considerable material from actual practise. It is interesting in this connection to note that the *Seventh (1928) Yearbook* of the Department has been referred to about fifty times in the footnotes. Approximately 10 percent of the references in the supplementary bibliography are to be found in the *Bulletins* or yearbooks of the Department.

Teaching methods reviewed—Two recent reviews of research in the psychology and the methods of elementary school subjects should be in the professional libraries of all principals.[2] Both of these summaries have been prepared by research experts. The results are comprehensive in scope, exact in detail, and clear in presentation. The extensive bibliographies will be of considerable value to the principal who is a student of his problems.

Two views on Russia—An easy way for one to become informed as to the economic and social plans of the Soviet Russia is by reading the literature prepared for Russian children. An English translation of *New Russia's Primer* is now available.[3] A more technical description of the economic program in Russia is to be found in a publication of the World Peace Foundation.[4]

Reports of child health conference—The White House Conference on Child Health and Protection brought together the authorities in many related fields.[5] The reports and deliberations of the conference are being made available as rapidly as possible. Copies of the Children's Charter and small leaflets on child growth, personality, and habits should be useful in connection with teachers' meetings. The detailed reports call for more deliberate study.

Whom do children look upon as leaders?—Williams asked 2216 junior and senior high-school students to list the persons whom they look upon as leaders in human affairs.[6] The first ten names in order of frequency of mention were: Abraham Lincoln, George Washington, Luther Burbank,

[1]Reavis, William C., Pierce, Paul R., and Stullken, E. H. *The Elementary School; Its Organization and Administration.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1931. 571 p.

[2]National Education Association, Department of Educational Research (American Educational Research Association). *Review of Educational Research* (October issue: "Special Methods in the Elementary School," 80 p. and December issue: "Psychology of the School Subjects," 128 p.). Washington, D. C.: the Association. Single copies, one dollar.

[3]Ilin, M. *New Russia's Primer; The Story of the Five-Year Plan.* (Translated from the Russian by George S. Counts and Nucia P. Lodge). Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1931. 162 p.

[4]Chamberlin, William H. *The Soviet Planned Economic Order.* Boston: World Peace Foundation, 1931. 243 p.

[5]For copies of the leaflets address the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection, Interior Building, Washington, D. C. The comprehensive reports and books (for example: *Nursery Education,* 1931, 187 p.) may be obtained from the Century Co., New York City.

[6]Williams, L. A. *The Person-consciousness of a Selected Group of High School Pupils.* Berkeley: University of California Press, 1931. 138 p.

Thomas A. Edison, Christopher Columbus, Theodore Roosevelt, Woodrow Wilson, Henry Ford, John J. Pershing, and Benjamin Franklin. Five statesmen or presidents, one horticulturist, one inventor, one industrialist, one explorer, and one World War general. What are the implications for the teaching of history in the elementary school?

Scientific supervision—Books on the improvement of instruction always arouse hope among elementary school principals. Barr has summarized the objective studies[1] of the objectives of education, the products of learning, the achievement of pupils, the devices of classroom supervision, the training of teachers, and other topics associated with supervision. Footnotes and references are frequently cited.

Radio education—In 1930 leaders in educational broadcasting met in Columbus, Ohio, to discuss the problems of education by radio. The result of this meeting was published as the *First Yearbook*[2] of the Institute for Education by Radio. The results of the 1931 conference have been published recently as the *Second Yearbook*.[2]

Diagnostic teaching—Principals should know how to study the maladjusted child and to provide the necessary remedial work. Brueckner and Melby have shown the practical applications of measurement to reading, spelling, arithmetic, and the other subjects of the elementary field.[3]

Economic welfare of teachers—A source book on the principles and problems of economic security has been published by the Department of Classroom Teachers with the assistance of the Research Division of the National Education Association. The volume should appeal, not only to individual teachers, but to professional groups where problems often arise in connection with salaries, insurance, loan funds, and similar problems.[4]

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[1]Barr, A. S. *An Introduction to the Scientific Study of Classroom Supervision.* New York: D. Appleton and Co., 1931. 399 p.

[2]Institute for Education by Radio, *First (1930) Yearbook,* 392 p. and *Second (1931) Yearbook,* 301 p. Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University. (Josephine H. MacLatchy, editor.)

[3]Brueckner, L. J., and Melby, Ernest O. *Diagnostic and Remedial Teaching.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1931. 598 p.

[4]National Education Association, Department of Classroom Teachers. The "Economic Welfare of Teachers." *Sixth Yearbook.* Washington, D. C.: the Association, 1931. 244 p.

YOU ARE INVITED to join with the Department in improving the professional and economic status of the elementary school principalship. The "press" in depression means—"Press forward!"—EARL R. LAING, *President,* Department of Elementary School Principals.

THE SCHOOL NEWSPAPER

ANNAMAE LINTER

Principal, Emerson School, Sioux Falls, South Dakota

EVERY CHILD is born with the power and the desire to create which is an integrating force in his life and which he must learn to use before he can attain his full stature as a man. The use of the imagination and putting plans into action are as necessary to the spirit as use of the muscles is to the growth of the body.

The chief value of creative experience for the pupil lies in its power to release his emotions and ideas and give them form through activity which will develop and integrate him as a human being. In creative work his functions come into play—sensing, feeling, thinking, imagining, judging—all of which aid him in becoming more expressive, more integrated, a happier person.

School paper—With the above statement of the underlying philosophy of the activity program in mind the writer will discuss the *why*, the *how*, and the *what* of the school newspaper.

One of the finest and most worthwhile projects in the elementary school is the mimeographed school newspaper. It *provides* a means of selfexpression for pupils in art, literature, English, and journalism. It *creates* an enthusiasm among the students and a loyalty toward the school.

The study of the phases of the newspaper is first taken up in English class. Here pupils study and discuss the brevity and conciseness of news items, the interesting treatment of commonplace topics in editorials, the attractively illustrated and graphically described advertisements, the cartoons which tell much in the way of news, the sport columns, and the jokes, all of which aid in the planning of a paper.

Staff organization—The organization consists of a staff made up of one member chosen from each of the sixth, the seventh, and the several eighth grade groups with the English teachers as advisers. There is a different staff selected for each issue, thus enabling more students to participate. The staff is responsible for planning the content, typing, mimeographing, putting paper together, selling, and checking the results. They are assisted by a group of reporters whose business it is to interview each room teacher for room news and room projects which would interest the school and the community. They also check with the special departments for activities and excursions in their groups. Special reporters are assigned to interview the principal for building news and to cover programs and meetings.

Contents of the paper—The contents of the paper fall under the following heads: (1) School activities—the meetings, hikes, programs and work of the Girl Reserves; basket, foot, volley, and kitten ball contests under athletics; assembly programs; Junior Red Cross with its membership drive, preparation of the portfolio to send to Japan, gathering of tin foil for the Children's Hospital; orchestra; choruses; pep meetings; outside speakers and entertainments. (2) Special projects or excursions made in connection with class work written

up. (3) Building and class news. (4) Best compositions taken from every grade. There is much strife for and great glee in having work appear in "Spilled Ink." (5) Lost and found—real and imaginary. (6) Jokes. (7) Editorials on school problems as "Is Whispering a Disease?", "To Bank or To Spend," "Gum Chewers' Soliloquy," "Saving the Grass," "Why I Am Proud of My School," "Sportsmanship in School and Out." (8) Original poetry which gives the amateur verse maker a chance to compete as well as an opportunity to get in print. (9) "What Would Happen If—" and "Believe It or Not." (10) Cartoons depicting school activities. (11) Original stories. Interspersed throughout the paper are such slogans as "Keep on the sidewalk," "Save your pennies," "Help the team win," "Get father and mother out to Parent-Teacher Meeting."

Outcomes—The results of the newspaper project are: (1) It makes possible group work with a very tangible outcome; (2) it creates an interest not in one grade nor in one department but in the school as a whole; (3) it gives parents an opportunity to know the school rather than the grade or grades where they may have children; (4) it teaches pupils to approach people and ascertain facts in a businesslike way; and (5) it results in a careful, critical study of papers and magazines that they might make their paper better.

Quoting Harold Rugg, "Learning is an active process. The more fully the pupil acts or the more channels through which he reacts the greater the learning." A project involving such a variety of activities, so large a number of pupils, and creating so much enthusiasm must, indeed, be truly worthwhile.

THE 1932 YEARBOOK is now being edited. Printed copies will be available in April, 1932. Contributors to this year book include: U. S. Commissioner William John Cooper, Dr Frank Cody, Dr. F. C. Borgeson, and others well-known in education and the affairs of the National Education Association. The topic "The Principal and His Community" assures us a yearbook of considerable interest to the Department, and of value to professional courses on the principalship.

EDITORIAL COMMITTEE IN WASHINGTON IN DECEMBER

Second from the right is Aaron Kline of Chicago who is chairman for the 1932 yearbook. At his left is Isabel Tucker of Saint Louis who was chairman for 1931. On Mr. Kline's right stands Helen Shove of Minneapolis who will be chairman for the 1933 yearbook. Dr. Frank W. Hubbard, associate director of research, is the other member of the group.

PUSHING BACK THE HORIZONS

When men act on the principle of intelligence they go out to find the facts and to make their wisdom.—Walter Lippman.

THE TWELFTH YEARBOOK of the Department of Elementary School Principals will discuss libraries in the elementary school. The title of the yearbook is *The Principal and the Libraries.* The chairman of the Editorial Committee for 1933 is Helen B. Shove, 3116 Clinton Avenue, Minneapolis, Minnesota.

Mark Sullivan, writing of "The American Mind and Education" in *Our Times,*[1] emphasizes the school reader as the backbone of our common schools in the eighteenth century. It was from "the readers" that the pupils of that period obtained their standards of individual and social conduct. Although meager as compared with reading opportunities today, the readers represented a break with the limited curriculums and textbooks of the schools of the seventeenth century.

Under the stimulus of librarians and other public-spirited persons libraries have increased in number and the scope of their activities. Not the least among the new movements is the growth of libraries in connection with the schools. Through the medium of more and better books, teachers of today are "pushing back the horizons" and introducing children to a greater variety of experiences.

Principals of elementary schools have been active in the library movement. They have enlisted patrons in donating books, cooperated with public libraries, requested equipment from school boards, encouraged teachers to enrich the curriculum, and rejoiced in the expansion of the interests of children.

PRELIMINARY OUTLINE—TWELFTH (1933) YEARBOOK
The Principal and the Libraries

I. Organization and administration of the school library
   A. Types of financial support and control. B. Expenditure of funds. C. Record keeping. D. Rules for use of library room. E. Etc.
II. Planning the school library
   A. Floor plans. B. Equipment. C. Furniture. D. Library standards and checklists. E. Etc.
III. Direction of relationships between schools and public libraries
   A. Coordination of schools and libraries. B. Special library services. C. Evaluating pupil progress. D. Etc.
IV. Integrating the library and the classroom (Teacher's viewpoint)
   A. What the library should supply to pupils. B. How pupils can use the library. C. How teachers can use the library. D. Etc.
V. Supervision of the library-classroom relationship (Supervisor's viewpoint)
   A. Integration of library and teaching. B. Training teachers to use the library. C. Testing for evidences of pupil growth. D. Etc.

[1]Sullivan, Mark. *Our Times; America Finding Herself.* Vol. II. New York: Scribner's Sons, 1929. p. 7.

Louis who was chairman for 1931. On Mr. Kline's right stands Helen Shove of Minneapolis who will be chairman for the 1933 yearbook. Dr. Frank W. Hubbard, associate director of research, is the other member of the group.

VI. Booklists and research.
A. List of necessary books. B. Interests of pupils in books. C. Research on bookmaking. D. The use of published materials. E. Etc.

VII. The school librarian.
A. Training and experience required. B. Various types now employed. C. Duties of librarian. D. Checklists and rating scales. E. Etc.

VIII. Extending the library's influence.
A. Lending books. B. Reaching adults. C. Influencing the home library. D. Raising the level of gift books. E. Etc.

IX. Rural school library practises.
A. Travelling libraries. B. County library programs. C. State library programs. D. Use of library facilities in rural schools. E. Etc.

Believing that principals would like to have and to prepare a library handbook, the Editorial Committee has taken this topic for the 1933 yearbook. A tentative outline is presented as a part of this article. Principals and others, interested in the topic, are invited to contribute to the 1933 volume. Examine the outline and start the preparation of your contribution now. Send your manuscripts to the Committee by November 1, 1932. Address: Editorial Committee, Department of Elementary School Principals, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington, D. C.

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WHEN WRITING FOR THE YEARBOOK

(1) You should select a specific topic; (2) remember you are writing for someone miles away from your school and background; (3) use the minimum of quoted material, write things in your own words; (4) organize your article with space for introduction, presentation, and conclusions; (5) type your article double space; and (6) send your contribution, before November 1, 1932, to the Editorial Committee, Department of Elementary School Principals, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington, D. C.

NEWS FROM THE LOCAL AND STATE ASSOCIATIONS[1]

What are the local and state principals' organizations doing? What problems are they studying? Officers of local groups should send brief reports to the editorial offices of this national bulletin.—Editor.

THE *NEW YORK PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION* has eight meetings planned for 1931-32. Speakers will discuss health education, relief work, and school surveys. Social meetings are scheduled to provide contacts with the superintendent's staff and the board of education. Incidentally, the Association's bulletin entitled *The Principal* is one of the most attractive publications for principals in the United States. Just get a copy! The Association has a paid executive secretary, Mrs. Sarah S. Dennen, 343 Sixtieth Street, Brooklyn, New York.

The *Duluth Principals' Club* has issued a small eight-page booklet giving the 1931-32 program. Some of the topics of the monthly meetings are as follows: vitalizing faculty meetings, visual aids, integration of special subjects with units of work, recent studies of penmanship, a mental hygiene clinic, and obtaining more time for supervision. Each meeting is under the direction of a committee of four or five principals. Six standing committees of the club are for the following purposes: hospitality, publicity, legislation, current events, social, and program. The secretary is Irene Higgins, 422 19th Ave., W., Duluth, Minnesota.

The *Supervisors' Club of Long Beach* meets monthly, usually with the local principals' club. Several evening meetings and informal teas have been planned for the year. Regular committees are the following: program, social, budget, research, and supervisors' interest. The general topic for the year's meeting is curriculum installation. The secretary-treasurer is Maude E. Hayes, 715 Locust Ave., Long Beach, California.

The *New Bedford Primary Principals' Club* plans discussion meetings on the following topics: new reading methods for beginners, new arithmetic texts, penmanship in the second grade, promotional problems, and character education. The club has been organized for ten years. There are thirteen active and four associate members. The president is Emma L. Gartland, Dartmouth Street School, New Bedford, Massachusetts.

The secondary and elementary principals, as well as the helping teachers of Cumberland County, New Jersey, are all active in the *Association of School Principals.* In 1930-31 the organization issued a yearbook of 22 pages. This publication contained committee reports on hot lunches, visual education, creative music, music appreciation. the problem child, libraries for teachers, and children's libraries. The president is A. Virginia Adams, East Avenue School, Vineland, New Jersey.

The *Principals' Association of Portland, Oregon,* has the following regular committees at work: look-out, membership, professional affairs, athletics,

[1]This section is based upon material collected by Eva G. Pinkston, Special Secretary, Department of Elementary School Principals. The national Department appreciates the cooperation of many splendid local and state associations. E. G. P.

salary, research, yearbook, program, publicity, and retirement. There are special committees on cafeterias, traffic, health, visual education, and textbooks. The research committee is considered particularly important with its small groups at work on problems of administration, pupil attitudes, atypical children, supervision, and the integration of reading with the social studies. The president is W. A. Petteys, Peninsula School, Portland, Oregon.

The men principals of Tacoma, Washington meet as the *Fortnightly Club*. The organization places each member upon one of the committees. After a committee gives its report the members select a new topic for study. Committees for 1931-32 include the following: salary, teacher rating, child accounting, stock records, requisitions, and budgeting of supplies. The secretary is John A. Arnold, Fern Hill School, Tacoma, Washington.

The *Elementary Principals' Association of Washington, D. C.*, is planning to assist in the entertainment of the national Department in February. In 1930-31 the local association issued three bulletins. Although the organization consists of 67 principals the group was able to dispose of about 500 copies of each issue of the bulletin. Contributions to the bulletin dealt chiefly with teaching devices and units of work, and in many instances were prepared by classroom teachers. The local association is planning to issue several bulletins during 1931-32. Recently, an invitation was extended to the national Department's special secretary, Miss Pinkston, to address one of the meetings and to write an article for the official publication. The president is A. Grace Lind, 4516 14th St., N. W., Washington, D. C.

The *Columbus Principals' Round Table* has planned nine meetings for the current school year. The speakers include Dr. Laura Zirbes, Mr. Twentyman of London, and local teachers. One meeting has been assigned to a debate on the merits of the Dalton Plan. The secretary is Anne D. Judd, Medary Elementary School, Columbus, Ohio.

The *Department of Elementary School Principals of Missouri* met during November in Saint Louis with the Missouri State Teachers' Association. President Isabel Tucker presided over one of the largest luncheons (175 persons) of the convention on Friday, November 13th. In spite of the day and the date the meeting was a huge success. Among the speakers were: Florence Hale, president of the National Education Association; Lucy Gage of George Peabody College; and Eva G. Pinkston, special secretary of the national Department. Outstanding leaders. including Superintendent Gerling of Saint Louis, were present at the business sessions.

The *Roundtable of Elementary Principals and Supervisors of South Dakota* met November 24th at Mitchell, South Dakota. Adah Minard of Watertown presided at the banquet. Those on programs included Laura A. Laurson, William Stephens, Carol Whitcomb, Frankie Walter, Maude Flanagan, and Lydia Leistikow. Supervision by the principal was the chief topic of discussion. The secretary for 1931 was Ruth Wagner, and for 1932, Lydia Leistikow of Aberdeen.

The *Grand Rapids Schoolmen's Club* has planned a series of ten lectures

for the 1931-32 school year, including the annual picnic and social meeting. The committees of the group include: program, research, and printing. The president is Arthur L. Reagh, 143 Bostwick Ave., Grand Rapids, Michigan.

The *Department of Elementary School Principals of New Jersey* last November reported plans for an extensive program at Atlantic City. Considerable emphasis was placed upon school publicity and progressive education. Incidentally, the Bulletin of this state association is well worth any principal's time. The secretary is Mason A. Stratton, Brighton Avenue School, Atlantic City, New Jersey.

The *St. Paul Principals' and Supervisors' Club* met on November 18th for a combined social and professional meeting. The program, and ways and means committees are considered of primary importance. Address: R. C. Highbee, John Marshall Junior High School, St. Paul, Minnesota.

The *Women Principals' Club* of Akron, Ohio, holds six meetings during the school year. Programs consist chiefly of informal discussion of current professional problems. Address: Elizabeth Mercer, Miller School, Akron, Ohio.

The *Atlanta Principals' Club* meets in the evening at six oclock once a month. After dinner the group listens to a prepared talk and engages in discussion. It has been reported that discussions *always follow* the dinner because "our dispositions are sweeter." The major topic for the year is the relationship between the principal and his community. The chairman is Rusha Wesley, 995 West Peachtree Street, Atlanta, Georgia.

The *Women Principals' Club* of Saint Louis has eight meetings planned for the school year 1931-32. Women members of the board of education addressed the October meeting. Other meetings are to be given to talks on travel in England, an evaluation of the 1931 yearbook of the national Department of Elementary School Principals, an address on child accounting, reports on the winter meeting of the N. E. A., and to social events. The president is Percy A. Lyon, and the secretary is Anna Bick, Lowell School, Saint Louis, Missouri.

The *Canton Principals' Club* has taken "the responsibility of the principal to his community" as the theme for the year's work. Four meetings have been planned for the year on the following specific topics: publicity, remedial teaching, extracurriculum activities, parent-teacher association, vitalized teachers' meetings, and the status and pioneer work of the principal. The president is J. S. Dewell, and the secretary-treasurer is Bessie Trew, 1309 15th St., N. W., Canton, Ohio.

The *Baltimore Principals' Association* plans to discuss several articles from the *Tenth Yearbook* of the Department of Elementary School Principals at each meeting. Some meetings are given to problems of adapting the course of study to the communities of the city. The president is W. Howard Bockmiller, and the secretary is Judson Hunt, 3210 N. Calvert Street, Baltimore, Maryland.

The *Louisville Principals' Club* has planned eight meetings for 1931-32.

The topics to be discussed are: faculty meetings, report cards, unit cost of instruction, teacher rating scales, and guidance in the local schools. The club publishes the program for the year and the constitution in attractive booklets. The secretary is D. V. Noe of the Eastern Junior High School, Louisville, Kentucky.

The *Cincinnati Schoolmasters' Club* plans to consider the following topics during the current school year: the teacher training needed today, the handicapped child, the place of art and beauty in cultural development, education for a changing economic order, educational leadership, and the claims of the junior high school. The club has 342 active members. The secretary is David R. Lyons, Guilford School, Cincinnati, Ohio.

The officers of the *Charleston Elementary Principals' Club* are C. A. Weinheimer, president; and George D. Grice, secretary, Mitchell School, Charleston, South Carolina. This club reports 100 percent membership in the national Department of Elementary School Principals.

The *Cincinnati Elementary School Principals* have planned nine meetings for the current school year. Meetings are under the direction of the various committees including the following: finance, professional studies, personal contacts, curriculum, and physical equipment. Members are notified in advance of the specific topic of each meeting. The corresponding secretary is William A. Quirk, Guilford School, Cincinnati, Ohio.

The *Los Angeles Elementary Principals' Club* holds ten meetings a year on the second Wednesday of each school month at 4 p.m. Besides the executive committee there are the following standing committees: research, school legislation, betterment of school service, visiting, program, entertainment, and salary. The Research Committee is studying three topics: the twelve months school, the teacher load, and character education. The Salary Committee is working on plans to interpret the schools to the public. The president is Arnal B. Heacock, Los Feliz School, Los Angeles, California.

The *Long Beach Principals' Club* is considering school finance as the topic for major emphasis for the year. The club had ten committees at work in 1928-29 upon the following problems: sending delegates to national conventions, radio broadcasting, standardizing marks, dental hygiene work, administration, selection of teachers, exchange of principals, clerical duties of teachers, cafeteria administration, and professional improvement. Standing committees for the current year are as follows: teacher interest, social, publicity, program, parent-teacher associations, visitation schedule, and the George Washington Bicentennial celebration. The president is David Burcham, Polytechnic High School, Long Beach, California.

Communications were also received from the professional groups in Oklahoma City, Newark, Binghamton, Gary, Wichita, Minneapolis, Rochester, Denver, and New Orleans. The national office looks forward to receiving information as to the officers, activities, and programs of local and state principals' associations.

How About Your State?

State	No. of Actual Members in 1930-31[1]	No. of Principals in 1632 Cities Over 2500 Population[2]	Percent Column 2 is of Column 3	State	No. of Actual Members in 1930-31[1]	No. of Principals in 1632 Cities Over 2500 Population[2]	Percent Column 6 is of Column 7
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Ala.	48	74	64.9	Nev.	3	5	60.0
Ariz.	15	67	22.4	N. H.	13	48	27.1
Ark.	12	56	21.4	N. J.	298	559	53.3
Calif.	389	913	42.6	N. M.	16	17	94.1
Colo.	85	130	65.4	N. Y.	404	1942	20.8
Conn.	104	250	41.6	N. C.	62	103	60.2
Del.	10	20	50.0	N. D.	17	41	41.5
D. C.	65	108	60.2	Ohio	308	855	36.0
Fla.	59	112	52.7	Okla.	55	185	29.7
Ga.	48	130	36.9	Ore.	97	124	78.2
Idaho	16	40	40.0	Penna.	267	916	29.1
Ill.	323	765	42.2	R. I.	12	200	6.0
Ind.	137	408	33.6	S. C.	14	33	42.4
Iowa	78	266	29.3	S. D.	28	42	66.7
Kan.	103	242	42.6	Tenn.	41	62	66.1
Ky.	48	114	42.1	Tex.	152	316	48.1
La.	34	68	50.0	Utah	39	50	78.0
Me.	10	95	10.5	Vt.	5	20	25.0
Md.	60	209	28.7	Va.	46	109	42.2
Mass.	254	815	31.2	Wash.	139	217	64.1
Mich.	378	761	49.7	W. Va.	29	105	27.6
Minn.	119	250	47.6	Wis.	85	294	28.9
Miss.	19	33	57.6	Wyo.	11	38	28.9
Mo.	191	358	53.4				
Mont.	22	65	33.8	Total	4842	12,759	38.0
Nebr.	74	129	57.4				

[1]Number of names printed in *Tenth Yearbook* in April, 1931.

[2]Number of teaching and supervising principals reported by 1632 city school systems in the biennial salary study of the Research Division in 1930-31.

Sixteen hundred and thirty-two city school systems reported 12,759 teaching and supervising principals. A 100 percent reply from the 3333 school systems in cities over 2500 population would have shown a total of 15,000 principals. Of the 4842 members in 1930-31 about 4500 were principals in cities over 2500 in population.

Seventy percent of the city elementary school principals have not enroled in the national Department! Yet this includes many of the persons with the most advanced training, the highest salaries, and the greatest potential opportunities for leadership. Two principals out of every three are allowing the other one to carry the responsibility—but they expect to share in the benefits derived from professional organizations.

Let every member in 1931-32 enlist two principals from the unorganized group. Send in the membership immediately so that bulletins and yearbook may be forwarded without loss of time.—E.G.P.