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BULLETIN

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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 MR. CRABTREE'S MESSAGE, THE ATLANTIC CITY PROGRAM, 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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PRINCIPALS—CARRY ON!

THE PUBLIC has been aroused during recent years to a higher appreciation of education, higher standards of work have been developed, and the pay of teachers has been placed on higher levels. But now there is the same danger of a breakdown in education that has occurred in industry and finance.

It is your responsibility and mine to inspire the public to hold as much as possible of what we now have, to get back at the earliest moment what has been lost, but more important still, to lay right now the foundations for greater things in education for the future.

Our mission is to seize upon this as an opportunity to touch men's hearts in behalf of their children. While parents may not be able to leave as much financial support to their children as they had counted on, they can at least provide them with a good education. That is the greatest inheritance. It is the debt that parents owe to their children.

Let every elementary principal become a member of his own department. This is the time to make the profession strong as a whole and in its departments. It is not enough to be a member yourself. Be an agent for building up the most powerful force for civilization in the world.—J. W. CRABTREE, Secretary, National Education Association.

BREAK, BREAK AWAY FOR ATLANTIC CITY

EARL R. LAING

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

THE POET who wrote "Break, break, break on thy *cold* gray stones, O Sea!" was not talking about Atlantic City. Miss Ann Troy has written enthusiastically about the hospitality of the folks of Atlantic City and New Jersey, to say nothing of the summer attractions. So break away for Atlantic City! Our program and speakers will be as follows:

First Session

Monday, June 27, 2:00 p.m.

Presiding: Earl R. Laing, district principal, Detroit; president of the Department.

GREETINGS

Ann Troy, principal, Park School, Nutley, New Jersey; president, Department of Elementary School Principals of the New Jersey State Teachers' Association.

WHY DO WE CHASE PANACEAS IN EDUCATION?

Frank W. Hubbard, associate director of research, National Education Association, Washington, D. C.

GEOGRAPHY WITH MEANING

L. D. Ohdner, secretary, Chamber of Commerce, Camden, New Jersey.

LOOKING AHEAD WITH AN ENRICHED CURRICULUM

Lois Coffey Mossman, professor of education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.

Second Session

Wednesday, June 29, 2:00 p.m.

Presiding: Earl R. Laing, district principal, Detroit; president of the Department.

GREETINGS

Florence Hale, state agent for rural education, Augusta, Maine; president, National Education Association.

INTERESTING THE COMMUNITY IN CHARACTER BUILDING

Mrs. Hugh Bradford, president, National Congress of Parents and Teachers, 1014 Forum Building, Sacramento, California.

MAKING A METROPOLIS HEALTH CONSCIOUS

Dorothy Bildersee, principal, Public School Number 80, New York, N. Y.

MENTAL HYGIENE; CHALLENGE TO OUR SCHOOLS

Harvey Zorbauch, professor of education, New York University, New York.

Our speaker at the annual banquet is to be Harry Clark, superintendent of schools at Knoxville, Tennessee. This colorful event will take place in the Dutch Room of the Hotel Madison, 5:30 p.m., Tuesday evening, June 28th, price \$1.75 per person.

The breakfasts which are our real family affairs will be at the Hotel Jefferson, Monday and Tuesday mornings, 75c per person.

Tickets will be on sale at the registration desk and at the Crane Building where the Department headquarters will be. Mr. Mason Stratton and Mr. F. A. Potter are serving as local chairmen, and Mrs. A. Virginia Adams is in charge of hospitality.

A SYMPOSIUM: TRENDS IN ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

A RECENT TENDENCY IN INDUSTRIAL ARTS

LOIS COFFEY MOSSMAN

Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.

INDUSTRIAL ARTS has long been regarded as a special subject, taught by a special teacher, and largely dissociated from the "regular" school work. Recent years have been bringing a changing point of view and method in the work of the elementary school and this new emphasis is developing a different attitude toward industrial arts and stressing a different set of educational values in this work.

This changing emphasis in the work of the elementary school is to be recognized in the efforts of the teachers to include a richness and concreteness in the work which formerly was often absent. More use is being made of genuinely first-hand experiences. More use is being made of vicarious experiences that will extend those which are first hand. Teachers are recognizing the values that come through rich and varied detail.

This new trend recognizes the growth that comes if such experiencing begins with the obvious, the commonplace, and, through the development of these concepts, extends the child's world of meanings. The truths we so want children to apprehend are bedded in these commonplaces of life and are best grasped through widening and deepening these experiences.

The teacher who is thus striving to enrich her work considers the ordinary things in the child's environment that give promise of educative returns if study is made of them in such a way as to enrich their meanings. What are the things of everyday life which can be made more meaningful and thus promote genuine learning?

Children's experiences include those with the varied aspects of the physical world, those that have to do with people, and those that have to do with the products of the work-a-day world. Consideration of these soon reveals the fact that a significant number of them have to do with industrial products—things of common usage that are accepted as a matter of course—such as bread, newspapers, clothing, furniture, books, dishes, and foods. In fact it appears that a large number of the so-called "units" now being proposed for school work are studies of industrial products in daily use.

These industrial products lend themselves to valuable study because there are so many things that children can do that will give vital experiences in the study. Such doing includes actually going to see the process for one's self, collecting samples and illustrations, experimenting, investigating, including inquiry of those who are workers in the industry, and actually trying the constructive process for one's self. Such methods of work give vividness to the experience which adds much to the meanings which come through further reading and massing of data.

It thus follows that a different interpretation is being placed upon industrial arts in the elementary school. Perhaps it ought to be called industrial study. Certainly it is a social study. It is coming to be seen not as a period

devoted to making things—mere construction, but a social study which gives meanings to the things which are an important phase of living—the industrial products that supply the necessities of life. It is a study of human achievement, of man's progress in taking the raw earthen materials, animal products, and vegetable products, to be found in this world, doing work upon them, and thus making them more useful in satisfying man's needs for food, clothing, shelter, records, utensils and tools, and machines. This attempt to make more vital the meaning of man's progress in using these materials should include the development of better understanding of the meanings of bread, dishes, books, butter, boats, dresses, wagons, houses, paper, and other commonplaces supplied by man's industrial achievement.

Such study of any of these may include: (1) getting an understanding of the fundamental processes involved; (2) the story of man's development of these processes from the most primitive form; (3) the materials used—their limitations, possibilities, sources, and value; (4) the science involved in the production and use of the product; (5) the hygienic values involved in their production and use; and likewise, (6) the economic, (7) the esthetic, and (8) the social values.

In method of work such studies may include: observation, excursions, collection, demonstration, experimentation, investigations, inquiry, reading, illustration, and construction. Of these the last is the most expensive in time and materials; hence it should not be used except when the values desired cannot be so well secured by one of the other methods.

The new emphasis upon learning through more vital activity, the new attention to developing richer meanings of the commonplace things of life, and the new interest in "units" of work are together bringing an understanding of industrial arts as a social study of processes and products of the industrial world. These studies give a way of interpreting man's achievements. The study is becoming regarded less as a special subject taught by a special teacher but, instead, as a phase of social study closely related to the total work of the children, a study carried on by the children and classroom teacher. The emphasis is not upon making things but upon gaining new meanings, enlarging concepts. This seems to be a recent trend in industrial study in the elementary school.

TRENDS IN SOCIAL SCIENCE

JOHN A. HOCKETT

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THERE IS UNDOUBTEDLY no field of instruction in the elementary school characterized by more diversity in practice and by greater difference, not to say conflict, in point of view than the social studies. There are, nevertheless, certain significant trends or ground swells clearly discernible through these cross-currents on the surface. Three fundamental trends will be mentioned, each of which comprises a larger number of related tendencies.

1. *A clearer recognition of the basic objectives of social studies instruction*—This is surely the most important although not the most obvious current tendency. In any rational educational program, curriculum organization, teaching procedures, schoolroom equipment, and administrative and supervisory relationships must all be determined by the educational objectives accepted as valid. The great challenge confronting social studies teachers is being more and more clearly recognized. No longer are teachers content to evaluate their work in terms of the reproduction of inert facts by uninterested and unenlightened pupils. It is becoming axiomatic that facts must function in the social and civic lives of pupils, or nothing is accomplished. We are convinced that it is *understanding* of the conditions, the problems, and the principles of group life, and not mere knowledge, that we must strive for and achieve.

Paralleling this changed conception of intellectual aims, is a new recognition of the primary importance of attitudes and interests. Understanding is better than knowledge, but understanding is inadequate except as it is coupled with a keen sensitiveness to social conditions and a dynamic urge to participate in constructive civic movements, even to the point of personal sacrifice. When, if ever, teachers learn to utilize wisely and effectively the latent powers of human emotion (coupled with intelligent insight) in the development of an improved social life, we shall witness a transformation comparable in scope to that produced in the industrial world by the harnessing of steam and electricity. Principals and other supervisors can help teachers greatly by recognizing their efforts to build enduring social interests and attitudes. Only as those responsible for leadership in education stress the importance of these objectives, will teachers learn how to achieve them and dare to work for their attainment in the lives of young people.

With all its unfortunate effects the present depression has happily emphasized the importance of critically evaluating the aims of social studies instruction. Our collective helplessness in the face of economic and political maladjustment forces a wholesome appraisal of our efforts to develop "good citizens." Unless those of us in the profession critically evaluate our work, such evaluation must come from without. Indeed, it is already coming. An interesting recent illustration is the Westchester County grand jury indictment of the schools for failure to make pupils "conscious of their relation to society, the rights of others, respect for law or order, or obedience to properly constituted authorities."

Our obligation in regard to objectives seems clear. We must in some way help young people to understand the living present even if knowledge of the dead past is to some extent sacrificed. We must enlist their enthusiasm and devotion to the cause of rational, cooperative control of the complicated civilization which we have inherited. We must organize and carry on our work in a way that promises most effectively to achieve these objectives.

There is space only to mention a significant tendency toward the psychological analysis of the objectives of social studies teaching. Through the pa-

tient investigations of a number of students there are slowly emerging tentative formulations of the basic themes, movements, problems, relationships, and conceptions, the understanding of which is necessary for intelligent citizenship. Significant progress will be made as these outcomes are recognized as vastly more significant than mere isolated factual knowledge.

2. *Organization of the curriculum into units of work*—There is a marked trend toward the organization of the materials and experiences of social studies into "units." In many courses of study these units are such that the traditional lines between the academic subjects of history, geography, and civics break down. Quite a new organization of activities and subject-matter is required by such units as transportation, shelter, community life, or electricity. This unit idea is also being increasingly stressed in the teaching of history and in the teaching of geography. Whichever type of unit is advocated, there is a tendency toward enrichment of the materials utilized. A wealth of supplementary books is considered necessary in addition to, or in place of, the basic textbooks. Pictures, slides, exhibits, models, and other types of materials are rapidly being recognized as necessities rather than luxuries.

In addition to increased unification or integration within the social studies field, the unit-of-work conception generally results in considerable correlation of social studies and literature, industrial arts, music, fine art, and elementary science. The social studies unit also provides many occasions for the use of the fundamental skills of reading, writing, speaking, dramatizing, and even counting, measuring, and computing. Because of the inclusive character of such units and their many important educational outcomes, there is a tendency to set aside more time and longer continuous periods in the school program for their development.

Principals can help teachers by guiding them in their selection of units and by aiding their preparation for and approach to the unit selected. They can render great service in providing materials and in suggesting pupil activities and experiences of most educative value. Their greatest contribution will sometimes consist in helping the teacher conclude the unit in such a way that its best values are capitalized and the outcomes intellectually and emotionally organized in the lives of the pupils.

3. *More widespread pupil activity and participation*—The development of a unit of work involves many types of pupil experience. There needs to be much reading in many sources of various kinds of material. There is constant searching for more facts, new evidence, fuller understanding. There is first-hand exploration in the community. There is discussion, exchange of opinion, conflict of different points of view. There is continual interplay between impression and expression. New conceptions gained are given expression vocally, in written form, in diagram, in construction, in artistic endeavor, in dramatization. The habit of questioning stimulates thoughtfulness which leads to new and better questions, and to enduring interests. The schoolroom becomes a workroom, a laboratory, a place conducive to mental

activity, a place for gaining knowledge and insight. Providing thus for pupil initiative and activity necessarily involves provision for individuality, for pupil responsibility, and for cooperation.

Citizenship is taught, then, through the content of the social studies—through the ideals, the attitudes, and the understandings derived from books and other sources. Citizenship is better taught through the method of the social studies. That the life of the school and the classroom is the most significant training in citizenship the school can give is becoming more generally recognized. Unless the school is so organized that pupils can and must practise good citizenship every day, in every school relationship, how dare we hope that they will be prepared for the larger duties of the world beyond? The ideal enunciated by Dewey thirty-three years ago is still to a considerable extent unachieved: "Make each one of our schools an embryonic community life, active with types of occupations that reflect the life of the larger society and permeated throughout with the spirit of art, history, and science. When the school introduces and trains each child of society into membership within such a little community, saturating him with the spirit of service, and providing him with the instruments of effective self-direction, we shall have the deepest and best guaranty of a larger society which is worthy, lovely, and harmonious."

Suggestions for further reading—Such a brief article must treat important movements very superficially. For the guidance of those who wish to pursue some of the lines of thought suggested, or to find concrete illustrations of the trends indicated, the following reading suggestions are given:

- ANN ARBOR BOARD OF EDUCATION. *Social Studies for Grades 3 to 6*. Ann Arbor, Michigan: the Board, 1929. A suggestive, excellent course of study.
- BILLINGS, NEAL. *Generalizations Basic to the Social Studies Curriculum*. Warwick and York, 1929. Contains helpful statement of themes, generalizations, and concepts.
- BOBBITT, F. *How to Make a Curriculum*. Houghton Mifflin, 1924. Chap. 7. Stimulating list of objectives and guiding principles.
- CALIFORNIA CURRICULUM COMMISSION. *Teachers Guide to Child Development*. California State Department of Education, 1930. Chap. 3. Description of many social studies units carried on in primary grades in California schools.
- HOSIC, J. F., HOPKINS, L. T., ET AL. *The Cooperative Group Plan for the Organization of the Elementary School*. Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1931. Chap. 5. Suggests pupil activities, materials and equipment, and bibliography for social studies in grades 4, 5, and 6.
- MOSSMAN, L. C. *Teaching and Learning in the Elementary School*. Houghton Mifflin, 1929. Chaps. 6 and 7. Suggests content and organization of social studies, emphasizing industrial arts approach.
- REED, MARY, and WRIGHT, LULA. *The Beginners of the Social Sciences*. Scribners, 1932. Social studies in primary grades.
- RUGG, HAROLD, and MENDENHALL, JAMES. *Teachers Guide for an Introduction to American Civilization*, or *Teachers Guide* for any other of the Rugg Junior High School series. Ginn, 1929. Valuable suggestions of methods, applicable also in the elementary school.
- SISSON, E. O. *Educating for Freedom*. Macmillan, 1925. Stimulating discussion of aims in social studies.
- STAFF OF ELEMENTARY DIVISION OF LINCOLN SCHOOL. *Curriculum Making in an Elementary School*. Ginn, 1927. Describes social studies units for each grade of the elementary school.

- STONE, C. R. *Supervision of the Elementary School*. Houghton Mifflin, 1929. Chap. 12. Helpful excerpts from several sources, and list of twenty-three instructional standards in social studies.
- STORM, GRACE E. *The Social Studies in the Primary Grades*. Lyons and Carnahan, 1931. Concrete, specific helps for teachers on some dozen units, such as: The Farm, Milk, Indian Life, Transportation.

SIGNIFICANT TRENDS IN MODERN GEOGRAPHY TEACHING

EDWIN H. REEDER

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GEOGRAPHY entered the elementary school curriculum about the beginning of the nineteenth century. During the next hundred years, but little attention was paid to theoretical considerations regarding classroom method. The geography curriculum consisted of an immense number of largely unrelated facts, most of them locational. The writer has in his possession a geography textbook dated 1814, the second part of which is called, "A Grammar of Geography." This part consists of a description of the world as a whole, of North America, of the states of the United States, and of the countries of the globe. The descriptions are extremely brief and deal almost entirely with locational and physiographic features. For example, only about three-quarters of a page is devoted to France. At the end of the description the author gives some nine hundred map questions, of which he says in his heading, "It will not be sufficient that the pupil for once is able to answer these questions; they ought to be put to him by his instructor, repeatedly from time to time, till the answers shall become as familiar to him as the numbers of his multiplication table."

It is easy to conjecture the type of classroom method which such a textbook would naturally produce. Here were the facts to be learned; here were the children's heads. The teacher's job was to drum the former into the latter; no considerations of interest or of ease of learning were taken into account. Geography study was a dreary, monotonous, and largely meaningless round of repetition, drill, and punishment.

Both teachers and pupils should be grateful that the day of this kind of geography teaching is gone. With the turn of the twentieth century, geography underwent a new birth of interpretation which has resulted in a vastly different type of classroom method. This new birth was due in part to a series of new concepts of general classroom method. The movement toward these newer concepts was begun by Rousseau, and carried on by Pestalozzi, Froebel, and Herbart. It was brought to America by that group of earnest young American students who went to Germany during the 80's and 90's. In America the movement received new interpretation and meaning through the McMurry's, Dewey, and Kilpatrick. The central themes of this movement were respect for childhood and a reliance on thinking as the method of intelligent learning. Acceptance of these ideas made the older type of geography an impossibility. At the same time that general method

was being reinterpreted, the conception of geography itself was being revised. In all the early textbooks on the subject, it is defined as "a description of the earth's surface." After the beginning of the twentieth century, a new point of view began to be accepted by geographers. This newer point of view places its emphasis on human geography. As a result, geography is no longer defined as a description of the earth's surface; today it is defined as a study of the interrelationships of human beings with their natural environment.

It is difficult to overemphasize the importance of this new definition. A description does not easily lend itself to dynamic study. It states what is, and no reason is given. The study of a description does not naturally lead to thinking. When, however, one studies relationships, he is immediately introduced to considerations of cause and effect. The *why* of human activity becomes prominent. When cause and effect and the *why* of things become a central consideration of learning, thinking is inevitable.

The most important single tendency, then, in modern geography teaching is its emphasis on thinking rather than on mere memorizing. The characteristic activity in the modern geography classroom is the study of problems centering around human activity, and attempts to solve them in terms of man's relationship to his natural environment. For example, the child in the modern classroom does not merely memorize the fact that our central states raise corn and hogs; on the contrary, he learns how the peculiar climate and surface features of these states are related to the corn and hog industries. He does not merely memorize the fact that steel is manufactured in Pittsburgh. Instead, he learns how the vast deposits of coal in the vicinity of Pittsburgh have made it a natural center for the smelting of iron ore. His whole study of geography consists in tracing cause and effect relationships between what people do and their environment.

This modern emphasis on thinking in geography has led to serious misinterpretation of the place of memorization. It has sometimes been said that memorization is entirely neglected nowadays. Nothing could be farther from the truth. In the first place, psychologists are agreed that the hardest thing to learn is a disconnected and unrelated fact. Through arranging facts in cause and effect sequence, modern geography makes memorization easy. In the second place, the truth or falsity of a single fact, if it is not related to other facts, is comparatively unimportant. If, however, this fact forms part of a chain of reasoning, its accuracy becomes fundamentally important, so that the knowing of exact facts has a far more prominent place in modern geography than ever before. Children do memorize facts today, but they memorize them more easily, and they know why they are learning them.

Perhaps the most important concomitant of this newer interpretation of geography is its necessary emphasis on the richness of reading material which it requires. No one book can possibly contain all of the facts which will be required when boys and girls attempt to trace man's relationships with his

environment. No modern classroom is equipped for good geography teaching unless it contains a wealth of reference books, of maps, pictures and visual aids of all sorts. Thus, the geography classroom becomes a place where the elements of research are taught, since boys and girls learn how to locate pertinent facts from varied sources, to compare authorities, and to arrange their materials in a meaningful way.

If one had visited a classroom thirty or more years ago, and were then to visit one today, a very obvious contrast between the two would reveal another conspicuous trend in modern geography. The children of a former generation sat still in their seats until galvanized into activity by a question from the teacher. Answering questions was the only activity required by the older method, with the exception of some map drawing and possibly at long intervals the drawing of a few pictures. The walls of the classroom of long ago were bare and uninteresting. They contained, perhaps, a few printed wall maps, one or two particularly well drawn children's maps, copied from a book, and perhaps a few stereotyped questions, in the teacher's handwriting, for class study.

The modern geography classroom presents a striking contrast to this picture. The writer has no particular classroom in mind, but will simply attempt to give a sort of generalized picture of a modern classroom.

As one enters the room, his eye is perhaps first attracted to the bulletin board. Let us say that the children are studying the tropical Andean countries. On the bulletin board are pictures of the snowy peaks of the Andes, of the harbor at Callao, of a banana plantation, of the cacao industry, and of the Inca ruins at Cuzco. Under each of these pictures is a little statement, written by an individual child or a group of children, explaining it and its significance in the study of the Andean region. There may also be charts and graphs made by the children, illustrating the growth of the industries of this section, and a comparison between its products and those of other parts of the world.

The visitor next passes to the sand table. Here is reproduced a physiographic map of the region, showing the high ridge of mountains which runs close to the coast and divides the countries into two mutually isolated sections. Red ribbons show the few railroads. Small cards indicate the products typical of each part of the region. On a card in a corner of the sand table is printed the heading "Some Questions Which This Map Will Help Us To Answer," and underneath is a list of pertinent problems.

In another corner of the room is an exhibit loaned by one of the chocolate companies showing the production of chocolate from the cacao pod to the finished product. Nearby, is a model made in clay showing some of the Inca ruins. Underneath is written the title of the model, and the pertinent question, "How could the Incas, who had no knowledge of steel, quarry these stones? They fit together so closely that a knife blade cannot be thrust between two of them."

The visitor may encounter many different types of recitation in this modern room. A stereopticon lesson may be going on; perhaps the sand table

group may be reporting on the difficulties and meaning of their work, or perhaps the teacher and the children may be engaged in a general discussion, centering around the text which is in the hands of each child.

The trend in geography teaching of which the above is illustrative, is that toward a far greater measure of activity in modern learning. The whole notion of activity is neither a passing whim of the educator, nor a fad to sugar-coat unpleasant school tasks. On the contrary, it is based on sound psychology of learning. Throughout his preschool life, the child learns through contact with real things; that is, through experience. When he comes to school, his learning tends to become more and more verbal. However, it is necessary that this transition be made slowly. The little child learns, so to speak, through his finger tips. The modern school, therefore, wisely places a heavy emphasis on the continuance of active, manipulative learning. No amount of repetition of words concerning the physiographic features of the Andean region can be half so effective with children as the actual making of a correctly proportioned physical map. One must think then of activities as the finest type of learning for children.

In conclusion, it may be well to call attention to one serious danger in modern geography teaching which springs from a misinterpretation of the term "human geography." Too frequently teachers have accepted, at least tacitly, the definition of "human geography" as being a study of human activity. They have then conducted the study with little or no attention to the human element. The writer, for example, has heard recitations dealing with the steel industry, in which the mining, transportation, and smelting of the ore were all discussed without a single reference to the human side of the industry. No mention was made of the living conditions of the miners; of the skill required in managing one of the steam shovels used in open pit mining; of the hazards of work in the smelting plants; or of the daily wages and hours of work of the various types of laborers who handle the ore. There is nothing inherently more interesting in the non-human details of a great industry than there was in the old physiographic or locational geography. Just because human beings carry on activity, does not mean that the activity itself will be interesting. Throughout the study of human geography, there must be a constant emphasis on the details of human life. It is these vivid, human interest details which make geography not only the most fascinating subject for the elementary school, but also a worthwhile hobby for adult years.

TRENDS IN THE TEACHING OF HANDWRITING

FRANK N. FREEMAN

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THE FIRST TREND which may be observed in the current teaching of handwriting is one which is to be deplored. If general observation is to be trusted, the emphasis on handwriting as an element in instruction in the elementary school and on quality of writing as an outcome of such in-

struction appears to be diminishing. This decline is probably due to the following facts: first, the misconception of the need for handwriting in the modern world, and the use of handwriting in business and in private life; second, the increase in the modern school in the reliance on incidental learning and the misapprehension of modern principles of teaching handwriting; third, the use of manuscript writing and the general unsettling of ideas concerning handwriting which is produced by the discussions of manuscript writing; and finally, the decline in the supervision of handwriting without a corresponding improvement in the preparation of teachers of the subject.

Surveys of the demand for handwriting in modern life and statistics regarding the sale of materials used exclusively in handwriting indicate that the need for handwriting is at least as great as it ever was. The typewriter, for example, has not displaced the pen and the pencil. It has only added another means of communication and of record making. If there is a decline in the emphasis on handwriting, therefore, it is not justified by the facts.

Trends in content and method in the teaching of handwriting—Certain progressive trends in the teaching of handwriting, which have characterized the subject during the past dozen years, continue to dominate the subject. The teaching of writing is carried on more and more in close correlation with the teaching of other subjects. The pupils are given practise in writing the materials which are drawn from other subjects, and in dealing with the problems of writing which are presented by them. The subjectmatter and the method of writing, particularly in the early grades, are fitted to the child's conceptions and interests and to the development of his manual dexterity. Teachers and supervisors of handwriting show less and less disposition to impose upon primary children the methods of writing which are suitable to older children and to adults.

The adoption and recognition of a more flexible type of movement than the rigid "muscular" movement acknowledge the artificial character of the exclusive arm movement and its difficulty, particularly for young children. It is not the fault of the newer principles that the abandonment of the extreme emphasis on arm movement has too often led to the omission of any attempt to develop a fluent and easy type of movement. The reaction has sometimes led to the abandonment of all practise or instruction which is designed to guide the development of a suitable movement.

Another progressive trend is the increased emphasis on practise in real writing as contrasted with mere formal drill. This trend again sometimes goes to the extreme of the omission of all specific practise. This is a mistake and represents a misapplication of the principle.

Another important trend is the adoption of adequate provision for individual differences, including left-handedness. One of the most useful types of adaptation to individual differences is the analysis of the particular merits and faults of the writing of individual pupils as a basis for the guidance of their practise. Such analysis has been shown by a number of experiments to bring about marked and rapid acceleration in progress of pupils.

Manuscript writing—The question which arouses the greatest debate relates to the advantages or disadvantages of manuscript writing. Some advocate manuscript writing throughout the grades and some for only the first two or three grades. Some utilize the broad edge pen and teach the old manuscript style of letters, whereas others use the pencil or ordinary pen and teach print letters of a modernized form. Some give detailed instruction, and some only set the copy and allow the child to pick up the writing without much detailed instruction in method. An exhaustive discussion would need to take account of these differences, but the present brief statement will have to treat manuscript writing as though it were all alike.

Studies of the comparative performance of children who use manuscript and cursive writing may be summed up in the statement that manuscript writing is more legible and probably more rapid in the early grades, but that legibility becomes opposed to rapidity as the child grows older. The advantages of cursive writing in fluency and rapidity appear at about the fifth grade and become greater from that time forward. If the adult attains superior legibility by using print writing he does so at the expense of rapidity. Other studies have shown that the change from manuscript to cursive writing, or from cursive to manuscript writing, can be made readily in the lower grades, but that such change entails some loss if it is made above the primary grades. This indicates that if a shift is to be made, it should be made in the second or third grade.

If manuscript writing is not to be retained throughout the school, are there any facts which indicate that it should be used in the lower grades? The evidence on this point is not as objective as on some of the others. It appears probable, however, that manuscript writing in the first grade is favorable to reading and is more easily learned than is cursive writing. This is due, apparently, to the greater similarity to print of the form of the letters in manuscript writing than in cursive writing, and to the fact that the disconnected letters are more clearly perceived than the connected letters. Manuscript writing is more legible in part because the disconnected letters are made with a slow drawing movement in contrast to the free swinging movement which is used in cursive writing. In the first grade or two legibility is of prime importance and slowness of movement is not a serious fault. In the upper grades a free swinging movement which favors ease and rapidity is of more importance.

These facts suggest the desirability of a program in which the manuscript writing is taught in the first grade and a transition is made to the cursive writing in the second or third grade. Experiments on this program are being made and the outcome of these experiments will indicate the correctness of the inferences which have been drawn from the above-mentioned facts.

TRENDS IN ARITHMETIC

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THE RIGID SPACE LIMITATION of this report forces extremely terse statements. If such appear arbitrary, apology is sincerely offered. Only a few trends can be listed, and if the selection seems indefensible, the reader must make allowances. If the explanations and comments on the trends mentioned seem distorted, their lack of judicial competence may serve as a stimulus to the reader to work out for himself a better appraisal—which can surely be done with ease.

Trend in underlying point of view—Until recently the trend was to assign less and less value to arithmetic, to be quite disturbed about the utter futility of large blocks of it, to abandon a quest for power over computation, ("I don't care whether or not he gets the correct answer as long as he has the right idea") to make radical changes in the methods used in the direction of activities—arithmetic learned incidentally and at the behest of needs felt at the moment. Great things were being promised and debenture bonds were being sold in education quite as freely as in finance. The schools of tomorrow were as rose-hued as were the dividends soon to be declared in a score of holding companies.

It's different now. Many are beginning to suspect that the whole trend toward "activity," incidental teaching, and what not, contains the seeds of its own destruction. Many school systems which bought and bought liberally are beginning to call for results and the results in terms of demonstrable facts are a bit hazy. The implications of the general Kilpatrick-Rugg point of view for arithmetic found a much more appreciative audience with Electric Bond and Share at 180 than can now be drummed up with Electric Bond and Share at 25, and with thousands of "No Help Wanted" signs hanging in conspicuous places near employment offices.

The new day in education came in with commercial inflation and is in real danger of going out with it unless something is summoned to its aid. The weaknesses which must be studied are: (1) Teachers are quite willing to tramp the streets building up a project on parcel post, registered mail, and money orders when salaries are booming and tramping is done in a taxi, but with larger classes, smaller and slower pay, and a good deal of tramping to be done on foot for the Social Service League they are tending to ask for a definite curriculum and definite materials. (2) Pupils and their parents are beginning to realize that they are not going to retire on their incomes, that to hold a job as jobs *are*, must come first and cultural adventures second. (3) Creditable research has yet to demonstrate the superiority of the activity idea in the field of skill although brave attempts to do so now number more than a few. (4) The assertion of the virtues of the felt-need idea as a sole technic of learning is being exchanged for the question, "How do children really learn?"

In times of trouble it is only human to regress to more primitive technics of living. It is rumored that there is a significant amount of legal tender held in the pot back of the clock (primitive) instead of on deposit in the bank (modern). Under stress, and a bit disillusioned we must be prepared for regression in educational methods "back to the good old days." Of course trends are mixed. The writer ventures to assert that all of us must consciously try to conserve, consolidate, and forward the important gains made in the teaching of arithmetic; that regressions to the brute mass drill pedagogy of the '90s must not be allowed to progress so far as to thwart effective learning, that no expansions in futile arithmetic be permitted, that a high order of research attempting to discover improvements be given preference over mere talk, however plausible, that "new day" pedagogy be salvaged, and that excited nonsense be allowed to slough off.

Trends in the curriculum—(1) There is a definite slowing down in the elimination of subjects from the course of study. This is due both to the fact that most, if not all of the futile has already been dropped and also to the fact that there is considerable uncertainty as to which of many substitutes to use.

(2) There is a good deal of interest in the field of grade location of subjectmatter. In the first grade formal work is about gone and in its place is a leisurely introduction to number ideas and the natural use of numbers via reading. The full treatment of percentage is passing out of the sixth grade and greater emphasis on the language and meaning of percentage, with preliminary attention to the first case is judged to be sufficient. Considerable speculation centers around the possibility of putting long division into the fifth grade. Such a shift, however, would involve a long series of adjustments. Hesitation is also occasioned here because of the fact that by reducing the difficulty of examples to a reasonable level, by taking advantage of important and new information about learning difficulties, by expanding the teaching to include some traces of understanding and meaning, the difficulty of long division for fourth grade children is so reduced that the problem is at least no longer pressing.

(3) There is a marked decrease in the publication of new city, county, and state courses of study. Where a genuinely adequate textbook is used the need for a separate document is somewhat reduced. So many good courses are already in print that additional publications would run the risk of paraphrasing unduly those now in existence. A good deal of new study must be patiently prosecuted before appreciably better courses can be made. The practise of frankly using a course of study published by another city is growing and is, all things considered, a wholesome interchange of ideas and information. The teacher and pupil materials in the new Tulsa, Oklahoma, course of study, for example, are in daily use in many cities. The voluminous documents so competently prepared at Denver are no doubt as carefully read in New York as in Colorado.

Trends in methods of learning—(1) The use of an adequate maintenance program is a clearly evidenced trend. The attention given to building a defense against forgetting with its host of overt and hidden evils has raised "how to maintain skills" to a major part of enlightened teaching.

(2) The use of bona fide standards as an integral part of frequent drills and problem units is a growing tendency to be reckoned with. Such a technic makes effective the keeping of a record of one's own growth in power and thus liberates for learning the energy which comes from a certain and frequently observed knowledge or awareness of success. This powerful principle of motivation has supporting it excellent experimental evidence as well as practical experience.

(3) As a to-be-expected reaction from over-selling of "activity" there seems to be a strong demand for more drill and more problem work. Here one extreme is as bad as the other except that the inadequacy of "activity" is fresher in mind. We have forgotten the futility of mass drill formations. A caution to insist upon characteristics of drill other than sheer quantity will be quite sufficient for those who have lived long enough to discover that easy solutions are often disappointing ones.

(4) Analysis of subjectmatter in terms of its psychological or learning nature is yielding insight into and giving valuable aid to better learning and teaching. The most obvious result is the trend toward more expanded explanations and toward the spreading out of the teaching of a new topic in contrast to the older pedagogy of one exposure of short duration.

(5) Experimental evidence is piling up which seriously calls in question the wisdom of classification or grouping by I. Q. or mental age.

(6) Testing as a project unrelated to daily work and for rather vague purposes of general comparison is going out, to the relief of most teachers. National surveys can be good for hardly more than one or two more flourishes. Their place is being taken by new and better uses of the standard test for individual diagnosis; and by frequent testing as an organic part of the work. The perpetual inventory in contrast to the yearly inventory seems to be definitely gaining ground.

(7) Just what to do with the "life-situation" slogan is not clear. What to write and what to say about it is clear enough. Common ideals on the subject can be satisfactorily stated and often are. The aim of teaching children a content that will function in the direct needs of daily life has been a hopeful trend resulting in the elimination of much unworthy material. This trend has, it is hoped, sufficient virility to force some further elimination in the immediate future but this at present is only one and probably not a major problem. We have been relatively successful in that sector already. The confusion at this time results from indecision as to how to present what we do present.

At first thought it would seem as though confusion were unwarranted—what we teach should be presented in situations which are bona fide duplicates or models of life situations and those forms of presentation which can-

not be shown to be genuine photographs of actual life situations should not be used. Thus if the form $3 + 7 + 8 = ?$ cannot be shown to represent a real life situation or if the direction "Copy the numbers in column form and add" does not appear on the street or in the office, then neither has a rightful place in the classroom. This trend does not refer to content but to the form of presenting an agreed-upon content. The trend seems straightforward and satisfactory but there is some confusion because a significantly different trend is also present. This is the trend toward presenting content in strictly life-situation form, to be sure, but also in other forms (within reason) by no means included in any list of life situations yet reported, but which *do facilitate learning*. These two trends join arms against a common enemy which would permit content too far removed from utility. They agree on the utility of life-situation forms for useful content; they disagree on the restriction of form of content to demonstrable life-situation forms only. For a number of reasons it would seem that the more liberal trend (variety of forms within reason) would hold the stronger position in a debate on the question: *Resolved*, Forms of presenting an agreed-upon content in arithmetic should be restricted to demonstrable life-situation forms only.

Problems and problem solving—The trend in the statement of problems seems to be clearly in the direction of a looser, more chatty, and natural type of diction than was until recently the custom. The problem unit is becoming larger. Many of the older quarrels about problem writing and organization are gradually sinking to the level of the personal grudge, and criticisms to use when under pressure. More attention is being paid to finding out how difficult problems are, to organizing problems in problem scales so that the pupil can estimate his ability, and to the withdrawal of problems from any grade in which they are too difficult for the level of children as they are—in contrast to how we think they ought to be or how we were when we were children. Factors other than sheer number of problems are of increasing importance and quite properly so.

Another phase of this trend is an increased interest in the possibilities of improving the pupil's ability to solve problems—improvement in reasoning. Most of the advice given on how to improve reasoning promises far more than it can deliver. Investigation in this field has demonstrated that improvement in computation may be reflected in improvement in scores on problem tests but not necessarily in improvement in reasoning. A very cautious attitude relative to what reasoning is and how it should be improved is the only warranted one at present.

Increase in ability to reappraise—A tendency on the part of teachers and supervisors to depend less on the sufficiency of plausible statements and to ask more frequently and insistently for the facts, is all in all a most hopeful one. The edict from on high that there is no transfer is being met not only by contradictory research, but more important, by the supervisor in his query, "Are you so sure?" The offering of this or that one thing as a cure-all finds a continually less credulous listener sitting at the supervisor's desk. This

shrinkage in credulity is caused by a growing appreciation of how complex learning is and how human children are. Better balance in appraising the relative importance of many issues is appearing. Wars are no longer fought on additive vs. subtractive subtraction and friendships are no longer broken over quarrels about the merits of adding up vs. adding down. Attempts to solve the major problems of good teaching by trivial or easy adjustments are pretty well discredited. In their place a tendency to insist on fact rather than opinion, while not yet overwhelming, is surely increasing. Faith in a well-rounded and competent psychology of learning which deals with all the problems involved is leaving the easier but disappointing methods, however well disguised, more and more in the rear.

Investigation and research—The drifts in research are toward studying pupils at work rather than via test scores after learning is completed and toward a sober and patient inquiry into many problems other than those concerned with testing. There is an almost astounding amount of work going on in arithmetic and a survey of it would lead this paper far beyond its limits.¹

Consciousness of needs and wants—What teachers and supervisors want is becoming clarified as a natural accompaniment to their own crystallizing ideas of what they desire for the pupils. There is a tendency for teachers to suggest, with increasing insistence, the desirability of: (1) Clear, definite, and precise courses of study with goals expressed in standards of accomplishment, (2) teaching tools which do everything that tools can do, leaving to the teacher time and energy for the many more personal services which only a human agent can render, (3) improvement in supervision beyond the scope of encouragement and general oversight until it includes expert consulting service on the specifics of teaching problems. This tendency is given zest somewhat by rumblings here and there that supervision as now operating is hardly a profitable part of the educational personnel. There never was a time when supervision—as an idea—had to demonstrate its own superior technical skill on the problems of teaching as now.

Supervision is demanding with more insistence: (1) improvement in learning and drilling tools so that from the daily performance of the classroom significant facts about arithmetic may be supplied them *during* the year without the undue fuss and flurry of surveys. They are demanding perpetual inventories from their classrooms for data upon which their counsel and advice may securely rest. The tendency for supervision to objectify itself and to operate more and more on the production-manager style is a most creditable one. (2) The attitude of supervision toward research is changing from a naïve acceptance of everything which has a table of data appended to a critical evaluation of experimental work. Few would have blamed supervision for dismissing research as a source of information, for research has shown none too good a balance itself. The fact that supervision has with good nature and some patience borne with research through, shall we

¹For a brief survey of recent research see: F. B. Knight, "Psychology of School Subjects," *Review of Educational Research*, December, 1931. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association.

say, its adolescence, is or ought to be appreciated by research. What supervision wants from research is not extravagant statements based on the performance of a few minutes' work of a few children dealing with trivial or minor problems, but cautious statements about possible improvements based on many hours of work of many children dealing with fundamental problems.

(3) Supervision does not want to regress in the philosophy of education to trite and dismal ideals of the past nor does it want a philosophy which a psychiatrist might very well appraise as a flight from reality. It craves a philosophy which is vibrant, virile, and hungry for a better life and which contains ideals which are almost obtainable, at least when one does the best he can. (4) Supervision is growing restive under influences and pressures motivated by interests other than the good of children. It is increasingly resentful not only of pressures brutally applied, but also of insincerities however suave. (5) Supervision is beginning to review its basic educational psychology. There is at least a suspicion here and there that the psychology of Gestalt possesses fundamental contributions to elementary education. The possibilities here, however, have at the present writing hardly enough force to constitute a trend.

All trends in arithmetic (or any other subject) are meaningless and futile—often damaging except as they are projected against a background of the total nature of the child. Not only must the various parts of arithmetic be fused into an organic whole, but also this whole must become less and less an extraneous tool as is a pupil's pencil, and more and more a part of the child's inner life as is his vocabulary. The learning of arithmetic, as experience, must help to integrate the total personality of the child and must stimulate and give a sense of personal accomplishment.

The next eliminations in arithmetic must be in the light of psychological and emotional factors. Arithmetic must square itself with mental hygiene as surely as it does with social utility. Hard and bitter charges can be sustained against the mutilation of personality caused by learning processes which are mere mazes with extraneous "cues" as sole guides. A quantity of drill-drudgery unrelieved by motivation devices, problems so hard that they are little else but exercises in failure, and projection of the unnecessary emotional tension of the day through home lessons into after-supper hours normally sacred to the interplay of family life, are factors to be eliminated, especially through the pre-adolescent period. Trends already manifest are making it possible for the child—as a person—to have adventures in learning full of understanding and meaning, to take part in work and practise so organized that a growing sense of accomplishment which nourishes and energizes his total personality, is the usual rather than the phenomenal product in the classroom.

UNITING THE HOME AND THE SCHOOL FOR CHARACTER EDUCATION

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THE UNPRECEDENTED DIFFICULTIES arising from the present worldwide economic depression, the apparently rapid increase in juvenile delinquency, and the many distressing examples of dishonesty in public service and commercial business activity within the past few years have all contributed to bringing about a feeling of pessimism regarding our present-day standards of ethical and moral conduct. It is certain that these factors just mentioned do present a very definite challenge not only to the schools of America but to the homes and to all classes of men and women interested in public life and public affairs.

It is to be seriously doubted that the United States is suffering at the present time from any want of highly developed intellectual or brain skills as such. We believe that the schools of our country have and are producing a large company of intellectually trained individuals every year. But can the United States justify its system of education on the basis of a scientific, vocational, mechanical smartness alone? We cannot close our ears to the pleadings of the professional people, of our business and commercial interests, and of our leading citizens. These groups are calling upon the schools not only to continue their program of training the intellect but to combine with this important objective that other equally important objective, the development of those moral and ethical qualities of leadership which are so essential in this complex age in which we are now living.

The supreme challenge and demand of the political, social, economic, and moral realm seem to be that of building a finer type of real American citizenship—a citizenship ready to stand by and remain true to those high ideals of manhood and womanhood which prompt right individual conduct in a highly and complexly organized social realm. Will sufficient moral and ethical poise for this desired citizenry evolve directly out of a purely mental and intellectual procedure of the classroom or must it come about by some other means? If the school can devise some means of accomplishing this training in part at least, can it hope to succeed without the cooperation of the home and the community so that all these environmental factors influencing the life of the child will be working toward and contributing to a common goal?

Dangers surrounding the American youth of today are not ignorance, superstition, lack of opportunity, or lack of education. They are surrounded by dangers far more subtle than these—dangers in the realm of morals and ethics. While our youth may have as much assistance, guidance and counsel through the efforts of the parents and the mature experience of business and professional men and women of the communities in which they reside, we are none the less finding them infinitely more susceptible to the influence of the equally immature associates with whom they are so much in contact. If we were to point to the one special danger to the morals and ethics of youth today we would spot the problem at this point: the youth of today get a

far greater proportion of their ideals and standards of conduct from young, immature individuals like themselves than did the youth of previous generations. That we have ample proof of this statement goes without saying. Studies of a more or less scientific nature definitely point to the importance of the influence of the group upon its members.

The *Ninth Yearbook* of the Department of Elementary School Principals contains many articles telling of how many of the city school systems are attempting to solve the problem through citizenship organizations within the schools. This publication relates also much concerning the services of school nurses, psychologists, psychiatrists, vocational guidance teachers, and visiting teachers who are trying to help with individual problems and bring about a closer cooperation with the homes. The subject of how special teachers in music, art, physical education, manual training, sewing, and cooking can help in giving each child a better chance to develop his individual abilities is treated quite fully in this publication.

While the city systems are approaching the situation in these ways what is being done to help the rural and village school teachers, many of whom are young and inexperienced and who cannot have all the additional assistance offered in the larger systems? Upon the state department of education necessarily falls the responsibility of providing helps to this latter body of teachers. Improved courses of study give them assistance in the teaching of the academic subjects but what specific helps can they be given in the problem of character education? Such was the problem confronting us in Nebraska.

There are plenty of philosophers and psychologists in the field of education who are willing to pick flaws with any proposed plan of character education, and to criticize it negatively because scientifically it cannot be proved to be thus and so. When, however, the Nebraska Legislature passed a law making it the duty of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction to prescribe a course of study for the schools of the state looking toward the development of character, it was manifestly impossible for this individual to officially hide behind any theory of the philosophy or psychology of character education as justifying himself to continue a course of inaction. It, therefore, became necessary to do something constructive, positive, and operative. The state department wanted something that would be specific and that would definitely hold in securing the cooperation of home and community.

As a preliminary step the department set about very early to give encouragement by every means at its disposal, to the many fine character training organizations in the field, most of which did and still have their control outside of and independent of the regular school machinery. We refer to such organizations as Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, Y. M. C. A. and Y. W. C. A., Junior Red Cross, 4-H Clubs, and others of like nature.

Then the state department encouraged the formation of citizenship clubs and other clubs within the schools themselves as a means of beginning, at least, in a small way the socializing process.

Meanwhile a manual for teachers was carefully prepared attempting to cover the whole question of character education. The manual was also used

in the high-school normal training classes of the state (234) where the department has charge of the training of approximately two thousand (2000) teachers a year for service in the rural schools of the state.

Our observation of the Knighthood of Youth in New York City schools led us to a study of its qualities. The Knighthood of Youth is a plan sponsored by the National Child Welfare Association of New York City, a non-commercial organization, devoting its energies to the problems of character education.

While the Knighthood of Youth is primarily a citizenship club it offers to both pupils and teachers much more help in character education than is found in the ordinary citizenship club.

Teachers need specific help in character education as well as in the academic subjects. The National Child Welfare Association publishes three pamphlets which give this specific help, namely: *A Guide for Teachers*, *Knighthood of Youth Club Guide*, and *The Parents' Part in the Knighthood of Youth*. Permission was given to the State Department of Public Instruction to publish and distribute a Nebraska edition of each of these bulletins, edited in our own department, and planned particularly for rural and small village school conditions.

These bulletins arouse the interest of the boys and girls in becoming a part of a great national movement. The term "Knighthood" has an appeal in that it offers an opening to the land of adventure. The various activities assumed by the club and the individual members are to them their "knightly adventures."

A person must be interested to achieve any marked success. The greater the interest and enthusiasm that can be thrown into school work the better pupils will succeed. The idea of "adventure" helps to increase this interest and enthusiasm not only in the character developing activities of the club but in all school work which, of course, is essential to character education.

The term "Knighthood" itself represents an ideal—that of service. Each child considers himself a modern knight, ready to serve at all times wherever he may be, at school, at home, or as a member of his community. He also learns as a part of his clubwork that in order to render the best service he must develop himself to the highest degree of which he is capable.

The program emphasizes the necessity of home and school cooperation if character education is to be successful. The Club sets before the child four possible ways of improving his own personality, which become to him his individual adventures. In three of these it is very essential that the home understand the program being carried on at school and cooperate with the child in his undertaking.

Each child is encouraged to overcome his bad habits, replacing these with good habits. This may include the forming of health habits and the improving of his personality traits, such as trying to be more cheerful, doing that

which is supposed to be done without being told, or avoiding the use of slang or vulgar language.

Ways of encouraging this individual improvement are presented at Club meeting times by the various committees. Thus the chairman of the Health Committee may make general suggestions for improvement in health. A part of the Club philosophy is that no child be reprimanded before the group for failure. Committee chairmen may call out the names of those who succeed in activities but not those who fail. Commendation is given at Club meeting time to individual pupils who form desirable habits. Parents and community members are asked to send to school commendations of desirable home and community habits. Thus the strong incentive to do right is the approval of the social gallery which, through the Club, includes the school, home, and community.

The Club encourages leisure-time interests as an individual adventure. Each child is asked to present before the group any spare-time accomplishment. The city schools supply this incentive for leisure time through their various clubs such as dramatic, kodakry, and nature. The rural schools cannot have these numerous organizations, but a part of each Knighthood meeting is given over to a report of leisure-time accomplishments. This gives the child who may be "school dull but life bright" an opportunity to present to his Club that which he can do efficiently.

Parents and teachers are asked to believe that each child has the ability to do something and to do that something well. The knowledge on the part of the teacher of the child's leisure-time interests is one of the best ways of helping her to understand and guard that child's personality. Parents also learn more about the interests of their children and through the Club are encouraged to help them find something worthwhile to do in their spare time. The Club encourages as leisure-time interests such things as the reading of books, the study of music and art, making nature and other collections, any kind of construction work.

Through this added incentive much greater interest is taken in the regular school subjects and many special reports and exhibits for various classroom subjects are prepared by the pupils as leisure-time adventures. This is particularly valuable to the rural school where keeping pupils occupied is a problem.

The third adventure for the child is the choosing of home responsibilities and carrying these out successfully without having to be reminded of his responsibilities. Some such home adventures for the children are helping with the home chores, such as washing dishes, making the beds, feeding the chickens, milking the cows, putting away their own clothes, keeping their own room clean and orderly, caring for their pets, and such home interests as practising the various health rules, being courteous at home, attending some church service regularly.

Through Club discussions, stories and plays, pupils are led to see that taking their share of the home duties is after all just an "adventure." The

Club encourages parents to commend their children for assuming and successfully carrying out these home responsibilities.

Service to others is encouraged through the Club plans. So that this will not be forgotten, a part of each meeting is given over to commendations; a vote of thanks is extended by the club to any individual who has done something worthy of commendation. Committee work gives opportunity for many of these services which develop power, initiative, social and economic usefulness. Many committees have been found helpful.

A Decoration Committee provides an opportunity for those boys and girls with special art ability to develop that ability and at the same time render service to their group. A Building Committee permits the older boys to make use of their constructive ability. Ways of improving in courtesy are studied by the Courtesy Committee and presented to the group by them instead of by their teacher. Playground Committees have been found most helpful in developing leadership and in organizing the pupils during intermission. Better health is encouraged by the Health Committee. Through the work of Library Committees reading tables, bookcases, and magazine racks have been made from orange crates; the homes have become interested in lending books and magazines to the school library and an increased interest in reading has been brought about. Civic Guard Committees emphasize the importance of protecting public property. A greater interest in birds has been developed through the efforts of a "Kindness to Birds" Committee, and a keener appreciation of nature through a "March of the Flowers" Committee. Thrift Committees have brought about a greater desire to make the best use possible of time and material. Other committees proving useful are Better English, Service, Entertainment, Museum, Safety, Order, Flag, and Scholarship.

Each pupil is permitted to keep on the "stones" of an outline castle a record of his successful adventures, in forming good habits, completing leisure-time activities, carrying out home responsibilities, and rendering service. These are written on the stones by the pupil or a committee and the stone is signed by the teacher, parent, or community worker. Each castle contains 35 stones so that the pupil may have an average of a recording once a week.

A large castle outline is kept on the schoolroom wall so that a record may be made of successful group adventures. In the working out of these group adventures problems arise which the pupils discuss and try to decide what is right and what is wrong. Hypothetical cases are presented also so that the pupils may have an opportunity to form judgments in life situations which do not arise in the classroom.

Better cooperation with the home and community is secured and community interest is aroused by the Knighthood of Youth section in the weekly county newspaper. Each week a newspaper release is supplied by the State Department of Public Instruction. This is sent to the county superintendents who in turn distribute a copy to each of their county newspapers. Some papers devote space to reports from each club in the county. There is no charge for this service and the papers are willing and eager to cooperate with

the schools in this way, as they realize the importance of encouraging that which is socially desirable. A man in one of the Nebraska towns sent word to the school that he would like to award each group a stone in its castle because not one boy or girl had run across his lawn or molested his flowers during the school year, and in appreciation he sent a bouquet of lilacs to the school for each room. Thus, not only the school, but the home and the community become the social group which sanctions that which is desirable.

If desired, each child may have a badge of membership in the Club, beginning as a Page and advancing in rank as he completes each individual castle.

The Knighthood of Youth does not add a burden to the already overcrowded program of the rural and village teacher. Instead, the teacher is saved much time and worry because the Club program correlates with every subject. The Club adventure may be neatness and so neatness is stressed in each piece of written work. Having lessons prepared on time is encouraged by the Club choosing that problem as an adventure. Much special work for various subjects is done as leisure-time adventures. Thus interest in regular subjects is increased. The Club provides an organization for classroom order, discipline, and pupil activities—children assuming many of the responsibilities formerly assumed by the teacher. It is a means of securing the cooperation of the home and the community so essential to the success of the school. It is especially helpful to rural school teachers since the emphasis placed on both individual and group adventures make it applicable in any size group, from 2 pupils to 32 or more.

To help maintain interest from year to year the three Knighthood bulletins are used as a part of the character education course for the normal training high schools. This means that each year new teachers going into the field will have been trained in the methods and procedure of the character education program in use in the rural and village schools of the state.

The schools of Nebraska are trying to face the problem of building character at this time of real stress and strain. They are recognizing the need for more directly emphasizing the building of ethical and moral qualities into our future citizenship. They are trying to do their part to constructively meet the pessimistic critics of our presentday social conditions and help in setting at rest any feeling of doubt as to the effectiveness of our modern educational program.

THE DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE
YEARBOOK issued in February, 1932 is entitled: "Character Education." Copies may be purchased for \$2.00 each. In June 1932 the Department of Classroom Teachers issues a yearbook entitled: "The Classroom Teacher and Character Education" which sells for \$1.50 per copy. These yearbooks do not contain duplicating content and should prove of value to both principals and teachers.

THE NEED FOR COMMUNITY LEADERSHIP¹

JOY ELMER MORGAN

Editor, Journal of the National Education Association, Washington, D. C.

A MOST SUGGESTIVE EDUCATIONAL ENTERPRISE is now going on in Mexico. The significance of Mexico's undertaking lies in the fact that it comes to grips with concrete, specific problems in the lives of the people. Persons wishing to establish a normal school go out into one of these primitive communities to make a study of the things which a school could do in that community and of the methods to be used in accomplishing those objectives. When they have made this study of life as it is and have developed a plan of operation, they then gather the people who propose to be teachers and the work goes forward on the basis of community need. When the teachers have had this training each goes out into his little Mexican community to become a center of new life and enterprise.

This educational process includes not only the child but the entire community. If there are diseases, the simple drugs which are a part of the teacher's equipment are brought into use; consideration is given to the sanitation of the home. Attention is given to gardening and agriculture. The making of brick and tile is developed so that houses may be improved. The simple industries of pottery and basketry are perfected so that the products may be more marketable. Along with these improvements go the teaching of language and number and higher types of recreation based on native customs.

This program in old Mexico has a lesson for the schools of America. We are living in an entirely different stage of culture but the individual in today's civilization in the United States is about as confused and helpless as the individual in old Mexico. He lives in a world over which he has relatively little control and is the victim of uncertainties and of economic forces for which our education does not adequately prepare him. We face therefore the gigantic task not of building up a school system from the soil of primitive life but of rebuilding a system of education that already has a huge organization and a powerful momentum.

American life today is both the beneficiary and the victim of extreme specialization. That specialization has given us the miraculous material equipment which now engulfs us and it has also given us a host of new problems and difficulties which tax our intelligence to the limit. Our medicine is so highly specialized that we require dozens of doctors to keep us well. The building of our homes we have turned over largely to real estate profiteers. In an age when home-building is a major industry, we have not thought enough of home architecture to teach it in our schools. We do not even teach young people how to select the homes they will wish to buy. In our civic enterprises we are inclined to depend upon special groups or special officers and to forget that democratic government depends on watchfulness in the

¹Delivered before the meeting of the Department of Elementary School Principals in Washington, D. C., in February, 1932.

citizen. In the field of vocations specialization has given us the highest skill on the one hand combined with chronic and increasing unemployment on the other. In the field of leisure it has given us a cheap and tawdry commercialism that threatens to destroy what homes and schools and churches have spent centuries seeking to create.

Specialists will not correct these tendencies. It becomes increasingly plain that we need a large number of men and women who are *generalists*; who think of the whole life of the individual and the community; who have perspective; who can think in terms of time as well as space; for whom the human values rather than the dollar values are the supreme measure of life. Such a group must have a high degree of disinterestedness. It must be large enough to reach into every nook and corner of the nation. It must be in a position to observe, to study life, to teach, to establish attitudes. It must have the will to lead and to encourage other people to lead.

The elementary school is the one universal neighborhood center in America. It would seem therefore that if we are to develop a neighborhood life, if we are to set free the latent forces which exist in our neighborhoods for the enrichment and betterment of human life, we should begin with the elementary school and with the principal of that school as the natural and inevitable leader, whose very office gives him both a responsibility and an opportunity to take hold of life and to lead it in the direction of worthy objectives.

It is unnecessary to dwell upon the qualities that make for leadership. They are relatively simple and you will find them scattered through your professional literature. You will find them in another form in the pages of that priceless treasure, *The Autobiography of Benjamin Franklin*.

Let us rather consider some of the problems and needs of today's life to which the individual principal may address himself. The worth of any leader is measured by the difference he makes in human life. What are the points at which you as an individual principal can make a difference? May I suggest that in your imagination you prepare a chart: in the column at the left write down the seven objectives of education—health, home, learning, citizenship, vocation, leisure, and character. Across the top write five headings—my neighborhood, my city, my state, my nation, and my world. You will then have seven subjects at the right and five at the top with 35 spaces to be filled in. For each of the 35 spaces thus to be filled in, let each ask himself what he could do to improve conditions.

What can you do about health or safety in the neighborhood of your school? Perhaps a recent automobile accident has drawn your attention to the problem of safety. More children of elementary-school age are killed today by autos than die from all other causes combined. Have you ever made a survey of all the automobile accidents that occur in the area served by your school to determine the points at which they occur, the apparent causes, and possible steps which might be taken to reduce them?

What can you do in your school neighborhood to improve home life? Have your teachers visited the homes of every child in their charge to establish

mutual understanding and goodwill? Have they been asked to make a list of the things which they can do to make that home life better?

Have you as a principal assumed responsibility for the intellectual leadership of your neighborhood? Who else is in so good a position to assume that responsibility? Have you encouraged study groups, parent-teacher associations, libraries? Do you have teachers on your staff who could lead such groups? Does your school system encourage home reading by adults? Have you considered adding to the faculty of your school one worker who would give fulltime to adult education among the patrons of your school?

Do you as a principal maintain an active interest and participate in civic affairs, helping to create right attitudes, encouraging the study of civic problems? If the political education of our people is left to the ward-healers and the petty grafters, we cannot complain if democratic government breaks down.

Does your school make any difference in the way people spend their leisure? Is the school building open for neighborhood gatherings, for athletic contests, for drama and dancing, for neighborhood clubs? Have you and your teachers discussed with parents and young people the ways they spend their leisure and the effect upon them? Do children under ten go to movies? Do children go to movies on school nights? Are wholesome activities provided? Are there playgrounds? The mere discussion of such matters by the school faculty and between teachers and parents helps to establish attitudes and standards.

What have you done to encourage the character-forming influences among the people in your neighborhood? Have you recognized and encouraged the work of the church whether or not it be your church? Have you fostered Boy Scouts and Girl Scouts? Do you encourage your teachers to take part in these activities? Have you made a survey of juvenile crime and character breakdown in the area served by your school? Do you keep in touch with the juvenile courts? Do you help to remove causes of juvenile delinquency?

May I suggest that in proportion as you and your teachers think of your work in these neighborhood terms it will take on a new interest and a new vitality? There isn't a point raised by these questions that has not been worked out somewhere in the schools, or in the social centers of this country.

Let us turn now to the second column of our chart and think of the city as a whole. Take health. We have made great strides on the preventive side. We have not done so well on the constructive side. Parks and playgrounds are too few and far between. We have not provided for sufficient outdoor activity to offset the sedentary indoor character of modern life. Have you helped to obtain a park, a playground, or a swimming pool?

What can you do to secure better housing for your city? Our cities are still built as though the automobile had never been heard of until they are a cluttered, chaotic mass of confusion, danger, and death. The remedy is relatively simple. It is suggested by a project in town-building which is now going forward at Radburn, New Jersey, some 15 miles from New York. Here is a community built with a large block so the children are able to walk

from their school to their homes without crossing a street. One sidewalk placed between the houses takes the place of two sidewalks on either side of the street. Numerous cross-streets which in the old-fashioned plan are sources of danger and cost become little areaways used only for the delivery of groceries and for entrances to the homes. Here is a unit designed for the automobile age. The space ordinarily wasted in excessive sidewalks becomes available for wider streets. The space ordinarily wasted by excessive streets and cross-streets becomes available for lawns and playgrounds. Street traffic freed from the danger of pedestrians and too-frequent cross-streets moves along in speed and safety. If your city has a planning commission have you and your teachers ever studied the work of that commission? Have you taught it to the children as a means of inspiring them to desire and work for a more beautiful city? If your city has no commission have you and your associates ever considered what you could do to establish such an enterprise? If your commission is over-emphasizing public buildings, have you considered what you could do to emphasize housing and home life as the chief goal of planning?

What can you do to encourage intellectual activities in your city as a whole? Does it spend at least one dollar per capita per year for free public libraries? Is adult education, which is fully as important as child education, receiving its share of attention? Have enough facts been gathered about the vocational life of your community to furnish a reasonable basis for advice to young people? Does anybody know how many teachers are required, how many stenographers, how many mechanics, how many sales persons and so on through the various occupations for which the schools and the young people must plan? There is too much guesswork in the preparation and the advice which we give young people in the choice of their occupation.

Do the schools of your city recognize the fact that the activities of leisure time have a deep educational significance and that preparation for leisure is possibly the greatest single problem which education faces in the machine age? What have you done as a principal to keep the atmosphere of your city wholesome for the formation of character? The forces which degrade life have been peculiarly active in this period since the war. Chronic unemployment adds to the danger at this point. Gambling is increasing. It is encouraged even among the children by punch-boards and slot-machines. It is given social sanction at card parties. What have you and your teachers done to create an informed and active public sentiment dealing with these character-destroying forces? Have you helped to make your influence felt on behalf of the Eighteenth Amendment and law observance? What have you done to help your community make a constructive plan for leisure activities for all the people?

We come now to the question of your leadership in the larger area of the state. Civilization is threatened most today in these larger areas. Has your state had a conference along the lines of the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection? Does it have a health program properly re-

lated to its educational program? Are the teacher-training institutions of your state and your city adapting themselves to new needs and conditions? Have you as principal ever urged one of these schools to offer some special course or to undertake some pioneer experiment?

Does the plan for civic education deal with real problems such as the taxing system and the reorganization of government to meet new needs? Does it include a concrete study of the state budget in terms of costs and services? Have you helped to bring such problems to the attention of women's clubs, parent-teacher associations, and other groups with study programs? Does your state have a state planning commission with an expert staff? Does your state have a radio station owned and operated by an educational institution and fully coordinated with the entire educational system of the state? Education by radio has now established itself. There is no question as to its possibilities. It is used not only for informal educational activities but has also shown large possibilities as a means of direct instruction in the fundamental school subjects. In America we have allowed this new resource to fall almost exclusively into the hands of commercial interests seeking to destroy freedom of speech on the air. We have assigned to the two leading monopoly groups more than ten times as many radio channel units as we have allowed all educational stations taken together. Are you familiar with this problem? This is a matter too vital to leave entirely in the hands of greedy or commercial groups.

We now approach the problem of what you can do in the national field. You have already done much if you have done your part in your neighborhood, your city, and your state. But we cannot evade our responsibility to work directly in these larger areas. There are nationwide movements on behalf of health. Many school people made valuable contributions to the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection.

The Department of Elementary School Principals is testimony of your contribution to national efforts in education. I want to repeat here a suggestion that I have made on other occasions, that the Department take steps to create among elementary-school principals a standard of training and practise similar to that maintained by the College of Surgeons and the American Institute of Architects. There might easily be set up within this department certain standards of training, experience, and practise far above the present level. All who attained those standards could be drawn together in a special registration list. Principals and superintendents and schoolboards would attach great significance to such a list. In any such standards much emphasis should be placed on training for broad community leadership including study in the fields of economics, sociology, politics, and methods of social work.

Our national civic life is peculiarly in need of disinterested leadership. Our major political parties today are financed primarily by men who expect to profit either directly or indirectly from government favors. The selfish lobbies associated with the tariff, the power-radio trust, and the banking

trusts are terrific. Every member of Congress is under constant pressure and subject to the most subtle and persistent influences. Under such conditions it is surprising that legislative reform makes as much progress as it does.

In the field of vocations there is an appalling dearth of real information. We know much about the supply of hogs and cattle and wheat; we know little about the supply of jobs by which people may earn a living. Our Federal Census Bureau which was created to gather human statistics spends most of its energies gathering commercial statistics and is a servant of a gigantic Department of Commerce. Not until we have some way of knowing from month to month the numbers of people engaged in various occupations can we estimate employment needs or advise young people in their choice of vocations and training. We need to attach much greater importance to human and social statistics. It may take two or three crises worse even than the present to make us realize the importance of planning on a national scale for the utilization and conservation of our human resources.

The field of world enterprise is still relatively new to most of us. We have a prophetic organization in our World Federation of Education Associations. Some day it will do for the world what the National Education Association is doing for the United States. Are you helping to hasten that day? Do you know about the work of the Federation? Are you making your small contribution toward its financial support? Are you doing the reading that will prepare you for your participation in the larger world enterprises of tomorrow? Are you familiar with such books as H. G. Wells' *What Are We To Do with Our Lives?* or his larger work entitled *The Work, Wealth and Happiness of Mankind?*

This brief talk has been mostly question marks. This is an age of question marks. It is a great transition, a time of immense risk, and equally immense opportunity. Every institution that is sound will survive the questioning and come out stronger than before. The institutions that are not sound will fall by the way. You as a principal are in a peculiarly favorable position to emphasize the human values, not only in the classrooms of your school but in the communities which surround the school and which determine the future of the young people under your care. The elementary school principal is inescapably by virtue of his position a community leader. Only by developing the leadership which his position demands can he make of the elementary school the dynamic institution which it is destined to be in the life of tomorrow.

At its meeting last summer in Los Angeles the National Education Association created a Committee on Economic and Social Goals for America. Dr. F. J. Kelly of the United States Office of Education has been appointed chairman of this committee, which I believe is to become the most important committee created by the Association since the committee that wrote the cardinal principles of education. The time has come to redefine the rights of the individual American citizen in terms that are specific and unmistakable.

Inspired by the rich associations and memories of this two-hundredth anniversary of the birth of George Washington, let us endeavor to do for the people of our generation what he endeavored to do for his—to give them a leadership in keeping with the needs of the new day. As he endeavored to provide for the security and happiness of all, shall we not establish among ourselves a clear conception of those needs and opportunities which are the rightful heritage of all our people? Shall we not call this new bill of rights in honor of the founder of the Republic the Bicentennial Bill of Rights?

First, the right to security—to a system of life so planned as to offset the uncertainties of ill-health, accident, disability, unemployment, and old age.

Second, the right to a home amid surroundings that are beautiful, clean, quiet, safe, wholesome, and neighborly.

Third, the right to an education thorough and comprehensive, including both children and adults, adapted to the changing needs of the new day.

Fourth, the right to a government that is honest, intelligent, and efficient—the faithful servant of common need and purpose.

Fifth, the right to a job that will afford an opportunity for service by which to earn a minimum income that will provide a reasonable standard of living.

Sixth, the right to community recreation for all supported by community funds, publicly managed, and freed from the degrading influences of excessive commercialism.

Seventh, the right to participate in democratic community activities which will help to magnify the human values and to make life beautiful, happy, and significant.

The Bicentennial Bill of Rights is the simple and natural evolution of the democratic ideals of the founding fathers worked out in the more generous atmosphere of this amazing century. It constitutes a challenge to the best leadership in every phase of American life.

AMERICAN EDUCATION WEEK 1932

November 7-13

GENERAL THEME: *The Schools and the Nation's Founders.*

THE 200TH ANNIVERSARY of George Washington's birth is being celebrated this year. It is an appropriate time to show how our schools have kept alive the aspirations for human liberty, and have made possible through enlightened citizenship a realization of the ideals of our nation's founders.

Monday, November 7—*The Homes of the Pioneers.*

Tuesday, November 8—*The Schools of the Pioneers.*

Wednesday, November 9—*Two Centuries of Progress in New World Schools.*

Thursday, November 10—*The Schools and Equality of Opportunity.*

Friday, November 11—*The Schools and American Ideals.*

Saturday, November 12—*The Schools and Progressive Living.*

Sunday, November 13—*The Schools and the Things of the Spirit.*

THE PRINCIPALSHIP AND SUPERVISION¹

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THE IMPROVED STATUS of the principalship, established most strikingly during the past decade, has brought in its wake signal honors and corresponding responsibilities. Honor and prestige afford pleasure, but reputation, unsupported by performance, will not endure for long. The educational world has focused its attention upon that phase of the principalship commonly denoted as supervision; it has very clearly indicated that within the field of supervision lie great problems and outstanding opportunities for service. The school principals of America are today challenged to show through performance that they are masters of a most difficult art—the art of supervision.

From a reading of current educational literature concerning the principalship, the beginning student in education is apt to gather the impression that the practise of supervision is something of rather recent origin; that within the past decade or so the spirit moved a number of educational investigators and writers who “got supervision” just as some individuals in by-gone times “got religion.” This same beginning student in education will most likely conclude from his readings that the principals of twenty or twenty-five years ago were for the most part clerks, or administrators, and that only in the past few years have these principals been awakened to their real task—the supervision of instruction. Both of these statements are true—in part. The past decade has brought supervision to the forefront and today finds the educational leaders of the country—including principals, supervisors, superintendents, and university professors—laying an emphasis upon supervision which is bound to have far-reaching effect upon both the supervisor and the supervised.

However, it is only fair to the beginning student in education (as well as to principals in general) to emphasize this point: that, while statistics show that the great mass of principals in the nation's schools found little or no time for supervision (for various reasons), there were principals—hundreds of them—who, twenty and twenty-five years ago, supervised and supervised well. These principals, engaged chiefly in the larger and more progressive school systems, were most zealous and conscientious in devoting a large part of their time to the improvement of the teaching and learning situations within the classroom. The principals of the group referred to were just as ambitious, just as keen, and just as professionally minded as the crop of younger principals coming into the field today. What the former lacked was professional leadership. The chief and only difference between the professionally-minded principal of twenty years ago and the professionally-minded principal of today is that the latter brings to his task a modern and more

¹An address given Monday evening, February 22, 1932, before the general session of the Department of Elementary School Principals.

refined technic, a broader viewpoint, perhaps, but certainly no greater zeal or devotion to a cause.

Should the accuracy of this statement be questioned, the speaker would draw attention to the fact that the thousands of superintendents, assistant superintendents, and supervising principals of town and city systems throughout the nation today were, for the greater part, the principals of twenty and twenty-five years ago, selected for advancement because, in one particular, they knew something about supervision. If, during their service as principals, these superintendents learned nothing of the necessity and importance of supervision, not to say the art and technic, then the group responsible today for the full success of our education stand impeached on a most vital shortcoming.

That the principals of America have today evaluated their needs in supervision and initiated a crusade of professional improvement can be traced primarily to one thing—the organization of their membership into the Department of Elementary School Principals. There was no Department of Elementary School Principals to show the way twenty years ago.

CONFUSION OF SUPERVISION AND ADMINISTRATION

In any discussion of supervision the student is confronted with the fact that there is much confusion as to the meaning of the terms supervision and administration. Differentiation between the two is made all the more difficult because of the overlapping of duties which fall in both fields. This confusion is due primarily to a lack of agreement as to the exact nature and scope of supervision. In the *Eighth Yearbook* of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association (5),¹ Strayer and Scott report that "supervision has for its object the development of a group of professional workers who attack their problems scientifically, free from the control of tradition and actuated by the spirit of efficiency." They hold to a broad and liberal interpretation of the term. In the same volume, Burton and Spain present a restricted definition, namely, that supervision means "the supervision of instruction"; and specify the functions of supervision as four-fold: (a) inspection, (b) research, (c) training, and (d) guidance. Gist (2) specifies that effective supervision should accomplish five objects: (a) the improvement of teachers, (b) the improvement in the quality of instruction, (c) the establishment of standardized goals of attainment, (d) the coordination of all work, and (e) the characterization of the pupil from all angles, physical, mental, social, and moral. Hillegas (3) in his most recent book gives this definition: "The function of supervision is participation and guidance in the selection and organization of adequate materials to be taught and the discovery and suggestion of teaching methods that will result in more effective learning on the part of pupils." Hillegas restricts the field of supervision to "what is learned" and "how learning takes place." Reavis, Pierce, and Stullken (7) advance the opinion that supervision is

¹Numbers in parentheses refer to the books listed at the end of this article.

part of administration and state that "the primary object of supervision is the improvement of instruction through the development, on the part of the teacher, of a scientific attitude towards learning and teaching."

In spite of the lack of agreement as to the meaning, scope, and function of supervision, a principal, actuated by motives of professional interest, will have little difficulty in recognizing that field within which he must devote his full measure of time and attention. Supervision to him will mean primarily guidance. This guidance on his part will be directed toward the teacher, to the end that proper, healthy growth may result in the pupil. The ultimate objective of supervision is the development in the teacher of the power of efficient self-direction. As a supervisor, the principal is primarily interested in the problems which face the teacher in the classroom, and his success will be measured to the degree that he is able to assist the teacher in the solution of these problems. The teacher holds the strategic position in the school; the learner can be reached only through her. Whatever form the guidance program may take, the principal will perceive that the entire plan must be coordinated, cooperative, democratic enterprise between teacher and principal. Supervision, to be adjudged worthy of the name, will recognize the personality of the teacher and encourage its development to the fullest. Supervision signifies friendly, sympathetic leadership and guidance toward the achievement of a common ideal.

THE FUNDAMENTALS OF SUPERVISION

What, then, is the basis of effective supervision as a function of the principalship? The answer to this question may be summed up in five fundamental factors:

- (1) Adequate professional preparation
- (2) A sound, progressive philosophy of education
- (3) A definite plan and technic of supervision
- (4) Continuous professional growth as a supervisor
- (5) A personality suited to the complex demands of the task.

While certain of these factors are closely interrelated, the absence of any one would impair or destroy the effectiveness of the supervisor. Manifestly, time will not permit a detailed elaboration of the factors cited. The following contains a discussion of the high spots of each, together with certain considerations growing out of the speaker's experience as a supervisor:

1. *Professional preparation*—It is patent that he who would help teachers must know something about teaching; therefore, the principal should have had successful teaching experience, in preparation for his position as supervisor. Five years of teaching (6) is commonly regarded as the amount of experience necessary to give a supervisor the teacher's point of view. Most states today require a normal school diploma as meeting the minimum professional requirements for a principal's license; however, the presentday trend in cities and progressive suburban school systems is to raise the standard much higher. The city of Newark, N. J., as illustrative of the improved status of the principalship, requires, as a minimum, the bachelor's degree or its equivalent, together with required courses along professional lines. Of seven principals placed on the eligible list for appointment two years ago all held the bachelor's degree and six were possessors of the master's degree, secured in professional training for the principalship. While the great

body of principals throughout the country do not approximate this standard of professional training, the trend, nevertheless, is towards making the requirements more exacting. It is only fair, both to the profession as well as to the teachers supervised, to require that the principal shall come to his job of supervisor with a broad cultural education and a specialized training in a field demanding expertness. In instances where principals have not had the professional training required for supervisory work, the state, county, or local school authorities should establish in-service improvement programs or encourage the principals to do extension work at normal schools or universities.

2. *A sound, progressive philosophy of education*—The second factor in supervision rests on the principal's philosophy of education. If the supervision is to be effective, the principal must possess and practise a philosophy of education which is sound and progressive. Such a philosophy will depend, to a large degree, on the principal's cultural and professional training, his experience and associations, his readings, and, to some extent, his personality. The meaning of education, with all that is implied, must be understood by the principal, if the teacher is to guide the child aright.

In this day of vital and sudden changes, of clashing beliefs and philosophies, and of general unrest, the need for a steady helmsman to guide the school bark is more urgent than ever. Kilpatrick (4), in discussing our changing civilization, indicates most clearly the great problem facing the school. On the one side is viewed tradition, custom, the fixedness of school and society; on the other, the three tendencies of modern life—the changed mental outlook, industrialization, and the recognition of the personality of the individual. With the waning of authoritarianism and the acceptance of the doctrine of change, the school is faced as never before with the need for guiding principles. In a sea of doubt, unrest, and constant change, the school bark plunges to meet the problems growing out of standards, grades, grade placement, promotion, retardation, classification, adjustment, curriculum, measurements, environment, methods, guidance, organization, economics, etc. Who shall say what course is right? This distinguished educator advances one opinion; his colleague in the same university holds to the opposite view. With the breakdown of home and church influence and the mounting record of juvenile delinquency, the zealous principal finds himself questioning his own endeavors and wondering often if he is on the right track. Conflict the principal must face, and with it the responsibility of decision. At every turn he needs a sustaining philosophy to which he can anchor his bark with assured feeling of confidence.

As an instance of the need of a sound philosophy of education in supervision, the rise of the scientific era of modern education may be briefly recalled. The standard testing movement came first, followed in the post-war period by the mental testing movement. Today, the valid and helpful use of both of these instruments of measurement is recognized and approved on all sides; and yet the published records of the past years show that these instruments were wrongfully interpreted and grossly misused in the hands of many supervisors. In like fashion today, because the fundamental philosophy of progressive education is not clearly understood, misinterpretation in the execution of modern educational programs results on all sides. Without a sound philosophy of education, a principal will hardly carry out a sound philosophy of supervision.

3. *A definite plan and technic of supervision*—A third factor in effective supervision requires the principal to formulate carefully in advance the supervisory program to be carried out. The plan, designed to extend over a period of time, should crystallize and carefully define the objectives towards which the school hopes to progress. The best time to prepare a plan is toward the close of a term, or school year, and the plan should grow out of some discovered needs or failures in the instructional program. Since supervision is a cooperative enterprise, the teachers should advise and suggest in the formulation of the plan. The entire teaching force should know the ends sought, the means and procedures to be employed, and the testing program to be utilized in checking success or failure.

Other features of a good supervisory program should include the following:

(a) Concentrated attack should be made upon only one major objective at a time. In some schools this might mean one major objective for the grammar grades and a different objective for the primary grades.

(b) Minor objectives must be noted and not neglected, in order that advance and progress already made shall be sustained.

The technic of supervision presents the phase of greatest weakness, for the reason that scientific education has only begun its investigations in this field. There is today no recognized method of supervision, nor is there any body of proved facts to which one may turn for guidance. Fundamentally, if the efficiency of supervision is ever to be measured accurately, it must be achieved through a measurement of pupil growth, plus a measurement of teacher growth. We have devices today for measuring pupil growth but there exists no technic for determining teacher growth. At present, therefore, the technic employed must be a combination of many devices recognized by leading authorities and successful principals as productive of the best results.

Chief among the approved devices of successful technic may be mentioned the following: (a) classroom visitation, (b) conferences with individual teachers, (c) teachers' meetings, (d) directed visitation by teachers, (e) model or demonstration lessons, (f) supervisory bulletins, and (g) the employment of auxiliary helping agencies within the system.

It is only through classroom visitation that the principal can become fully cognizant of the teacher's problems. Assisting in the solution of these problems constitutes his field of greatest usefulness. Although there is much merit to Buckingham's (1) technic of measurements for the office principal, such a method—if followed exclusively, or for the most of the time allotted by the principal to supervision—would fail to discover and correct many things of vital importance to the well-being of the classroom.

In the employment of a testing program at the start, at the close, or during the course of a supervisory program, the teachers themselves should do the testing. This may mean that the principal will have to instruct his teachers in how to give and score standardized tests or intelligence tests. Such efforts will repay him. A teacher who has given such tests to her pupils and then has objectively scored the tests, will view those pupils in a different light. She will learn many points she did not know before; as a result, she will be more interested, more sympathetic, and more appreciative of the individuals in her charge. Supervision, as between teacher and principal, should mean understanding and cooperation, and it should imply confidence and trust.

The effectiveness of a principal's technic will be determined by the degree to which he can aid the individual teacher. Faced with different problems and personalities in each room of his school, the principal will soon discover that supervision is largely individualistic. He will be called upon to advise and guide in such situations as studying individual differences of pupils, interpreting the course of study, providing accessory materials, diagnosing errors and suggesting remedial measures, suggesting devices, directing investigations, etc. The principal's job of supervisor means that he must carry on a teacher-training program at all times.

No two principals will follow the same plan or technic. The size of the school, the facilities of the plant, the home conditions of the pupils, and the efficiency of the corps will materially influence a principal's point of view. In a large school in which the principal is aided in supervising by one or more assistants, the supervision must necessarily be divided, the fields of each supervisor designated, and all of the supervisory activities closely coordinated.

As the load of administrative duties continues to grow, the principal must realize that only by budgeting his time will he be able to approximate the time he has set aside for supervision. The larger the school, the harder must the fight be maintained against the encroachments of administrative duties. Only through systematizing administration will the principal find time for supervision. Efficient supervision is built upon efficient administration.

4. *Continuous professional growth as a supervisor*—The great weakness in the principalship today throughout the nation is that a large percentage of the profession have not been trained to supervise. Upon such members, it is incumbent that they prepare themselves either through college and professional courses, if available, or through a guided program of reading, study, and investigation in the field of supervision. In this particular it may be mentioned that no more stimu-

lating influence for professional growth can be had than through the publications of the Department of Elementary School Principals.

Because a principal has been graduated from normal school or college and taken a master's degree in education, it does not necessarily follow that he will continue to be progressive. Changes are coming with such rapidity in education that the conclusions of one decade often become the discards of the succeeding decade. The principal who would have his school keep abreast of the times must be a student always. Local principals' organizations can do much to stimulate the development of a corps of principals whose plan and technic of supervision will reflect the best practise of the day.

5. *A personality suited to the complex demands of the task*—The fifth and last requisite of good supervision as related to the principalship is that the principal must possess a personality capable of satisfying the complex demands of the task. The world recognizes the close relationship of personality and success in all walks of life. If the principal requires personality to administer a school, he will have all the greater need for it in the more difficult task of supervising his teachers. The best made plans and the finest technic will fail of execution, if they are not carried out in the right manner. Supervision being a cooperative, democratic enterprise between teacher and principal, the most potent element in the situation is the human equation. The principal as supervisor must be a student of human nature.

The principal, as supervisor, should be one whose dealings with his teachers are marked by breadth of vision, sincerity, impartiality, and sympathy. Being imperfect himself, he should not expect perfection in all respects in others. Cheerfulness, optimism, and enthusiasm should be part of his stock in trade. Loyalty to his teachers, his superiors, and his profession should inspire in his teachers the same degree of loyalty for himself and the school. Reserved in judgment, ever ready to hear the other side of a dispute, the principal will not hesitate to employ firmness when the case requires it. The professional zeal and efforts of the principal should be such as to command the energetic support of his corps because of their faith in the success of the school. Tactful in approach, frank in his opinions, he should have the full confidence of his teachers, because of his sympathetic understanding of their efforts and their problems.

A program of supervision based upon understanding, cooperation, fairness, tolerance, and breadth of vision will establish an atmosphere that will exude health and happiness. It is the play of personality in supervision which makes supervision an art and the supervisor an artist,⁴ as Gist (2) has so aptly phrased it.

A BROAD INTERPRETATION OF SUPERVISION

Supervision, which shall measure up to the ideals of the new principalship, will tolerate neither a narrow definition nor a restricted practise of itself. Supervision to be worthwhile must be balanced and should be characterized by a vision that encompasses the entire community. Broadly interpreted, this signifies that among other things, the principal as supervisor will be as vitally interested in the physical, mental, and social sides of his teachers' lives as he is in the well-being of the pupils. He will not be content alone in seeking for happy children in his school; he will be equally concerned in striving to make his teachers happy in their work, freed from the strain and tension that is sapping the vitality of many classroom workers. Mention has lately been made in the public press of the growing number of teachers who are falling victims to emotional disturbances and nervous disorders. As a supervisor, the principal has a great responsibility in striving earnestly to

help teachers adjust themselves so that the school situation is not a contributing cause to mental instability. The principal is charged with the duty of making happiness a characteristic of his school, in which the pupils and teachers are happy because they find their work interesting and adapted to individual capacities. If kindness, tolerance, joy, and naturalness are not evident in the atmosphere of a school, then something is lacking in the supervision—even though the school excels in academic achievement.

In closing, the speaker would leave an additional thought on the need of interpreting supervision in a broad, rather than a restricted sense. Great stress is laid upon the fact that standardized tests constitute one of the devices through which it is possible to measure the effectiveness or the improvement of instruction. Such tests measure skills and knowledges, and furnish valuable data to the supervisor; but these tests do not measure attitudes, nor do they weigh the great life values by which the world will, in a few years, judge the pupils tested. As supervisors, we critically measure and evaluate our pupils to determine their proficiency in reading, language, spelling, history, geography, hygiene, and other subjects; but the world criticizes our work because we have failed to teach honesty, truthfulness, perseverance, neatness, punctuality, respect for authority, and an appreciation of culture. Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler is concerned because we fail to teach politeness and good manners. The educational theorist will say, "Ah, but these are the great outcomes which should be developed through the curriculum and school experiences!" "Yes," replies the honest supervisor, "these qualities *should be* the outcomes, but are they?" All of which emphasizes the point that supervision must see through and beyond statistics, special technics, and the like. Supervision will use such as means, not as ends.

The principal of a crowded city school will view the school situation and the matter of supervision in a light different from other principals. To him, the life of the child within the school and the life of the child outside the school are vastly different things. As best he can, he tries to reconcile two strange worlds and, in the drama of life about him, to play his role and do his part. As the principal with regularity receives through the mail requests from the probation office for information concerning former pupils arrested for crime; when with a sense of certainty he feels he can almost predict the future delinquents now enrolled in his school, he is startled with the thoughts of his own and the school's apparent failure to teach the vital lessons of life. "What," he asks, "do my methodology and my scientific measurements avail me in the face of this situation?" As years go by and the principal takes his place as a trusted counselor of the community, the firm conviction is driven home to him that the successful boy or girl is the one who knows honesty, rather than mathematics; courtesy rather than grammar; and punctuality, rather than social sciences. Dr. Ettinger, superintendent emeritus of New York City, in discussing our educational shortcomings, recently said, "Too much emphasis has been placed upon curriculum and not

enough upon character-building." If supervision is to be effective, it must not lose sight of those great objectives of education which make for strength of character.

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DATES FOR YOUR NOTEBOOK

June 25—July 1—Annual meeting of the National Education Association at Atlantic City, N. J. Election of Department's officers.

July 1—September 1—Fine vacation, attend summer school, and prepare an article on school libraries for the Editorial Committee.

September 1—October 1—Start school year, pay N. E. A. and Departmental dues. Help to enlist others.

October 15—November 1—Send finished article for 1933 yearbook to Editorial Committee.

November 1—February 15—Help push Department's membership over the 5000 mark.

February 25—March 2—Department of Superintendence Convention at Minneapolis.

April 20—The Twelfth (1933) Yearbook mailed to all members. Includes a list of all active members whose dues are paid by March 15, 1933.

HOW SCHOOL WORK MAY BE VITALIZED BY FIELD EXCURSIONS

E. RUTH PYRTLE

Principal, Bancroft School, Lincoln, Nebraska

WE BELIEVE that nearly every type of worthwhile school work can be vitalized by excursions or trips of concrete, definite activities in which the child is not only greatly interested because he is *doing* something, but interested because he realizes that he is making a contribution to the life of his school and of his community.

More important than the *number* or *percent* of children served by the public schools is the *character* or *quality* of service given. Is this service adapted to the children's needs? Do the children grow as the result of what they do or learn? Do they form right habits and attitudes? Are the skills they acquire of practical value? Do they get a better understanding of the world in which they live? Are they better prepared to play a worthy part in community life and to assist in the solving of community problems? The true measure of a school's service to a community is to be found in answers to such questions as these.

A brief description of the work of the Junior Civic League in the Lincoln schools will reflect our children in action.

The Junior Civic League of Lincoln, Nebraska, had its beginning in a series of conferences held in the summer and fall of 1913 between the superintendent of the Lincoln schools, the secretary of the Chamber of Commerce, and a number of prominent business men of the city. These conferences established the fact that a strong sentiment existed among the business men of the city favorable to the formation of some definite plan whereby the schools and the business men should cooperate in making it more easily possible for the boys and girls to become familiar with the industrial and civic life of the community. In recognition of this sentiment the Chamber of Commerce appointed a committee consisting of the superintendent of schools, the secretary of the Chamber of Commerce, the principal of the high school, and the secretary of the Y. M. C. A. to work out the details of such a plan. The adoption of the report of this committee in January, 1914, was followed at once by the organization of the League.

The plan as adopted provided for an organization of boys in the seventh grade and above, to be sponsored jointly by the schools and Chamber of Commerce, and to be made up of clubs from each school. A condition of membership was that each boy should memorize and recite to his teacher the "ephebic oath," which is as follows:

We will never bring disgrace to this, our city, by any act of dishonesty or cowardice. We will fight for the ideals and sacred things of the city, both alone and with many. We will revere and obey the city's laws and do our best to incite a like respect and reverence in those above us who are prone to annul or set them at naught. We will strive unceasingly to quicken the public's sense of civic duty. In all these ways we will transmit this city not only not less, but greater, better, and more beautiful than it was transmitted to us.

The purposes of the League were declared to be as follows:

1. To study the civic and industrial life of the city by first-hand observation.
2. To learn what opportunities the industrial life of the city offers to young men.
3. To teach its members to think seriously and wisely concerning the various vocations studied.
4. To assist in preparing its members to take an active and efficient place in these vocations.
5. To connect more closely the work of the public schools with the life of the community.
6. To teach its members to aid effectively in meeting the civic needs of the community and to assist every civic institution in promoting the general welfare of our city.

Among the methods of accomplishing these purposes four were made very prominent:

1. Meetings of from 150 to 200 boys were to be held at the Chamber of Commerce once a week where some prominent citizen should speak to them on a civic or vocational subject; the boys were then to be divided into smaller groups to visit factories, stores, and civic institutions.
2. Studies of local industries, vocations and vocational opportunities, civic needs of the community, and the essentials of good citizenship were to be made an integral part of the work of the classrooms.
3. Active participation in civic projects was to be systematically encouraged, each club being expected to plan and carry out at least one such project during the year.
4. "Efficiency Certificates" were to be awarded by the Chamber of Commerce to those members whose character, habits and scholarship entitled them to special recognition.

Soon after the organization of the boys' league an organization of the girls was perfected. It was similar in plan and purpose to that of the boys. The meetings of the girls were to be held at the Y. W. C. A., the classroom instruction was to be organized on the same plan, and girls as well as boys were expected to participate in civic projects. Efficiency Certificates for girls were not provided for in the original plan. This feature was added during the year 1918. The pledge taken by the girls is as follows:

I would be true, for there are those who trust me,
I would be pure, for there are those who care;
I would be brave, for there is much to suffer,
I would be strong, for there is much to dare;
I would be a friend to all—the foe, the friendless,
I would be giving and forget the gift;
I would be humble, for I know my weakness,
I would look up and laugh, and love and lift.

The Junior Civic League provides for lectures and trips, each Thursday morning. For the trips the boys and girls divide into two groups. The boys go to the Chamber of Commerce where they listen to a lecture on a special subject and then divide into groups for visits to stores, factories, or civic institutions. The girls meet at the Y. W. C. A. for their lecture and divide into groups for their trips. Representatives from each grade are placed in each of the six or more groups, and during the first vocational reading period following the trip, reports of the visits are made. In this way each

room receives reports of all six trips and the interest of the pupils is greatly stimulated.

During the present year an attempt has been made to correlate lectures and visits. For example, the lecture on fuel conservation was followed by first-hand study and observation of boilers, furnaces, stoves, smoke consumers and coal yards. The following is a partial list of subjects studied in this manner during the year: The Girl in Business, Fuel Conservation, Food Conservation, Agricultural Machinery, Building Operations, Homes and Home Furnishings, the State Legislature and the State Administration, Stock Raising and Dairying, the Vocational Departments of the University, Personal Health and Public Sanitation, Helping Uncle Sam During Vacation.

The following questions and directions illustrate what pupils are asked to observe and study on their trips:

HOW A UNIVERSITY SERVES SOCIETY

Civic League Visits

(Questions and Directions)

Group I. Engineering Building. Ask for Professor Seaton, office second floor, south.

1. Make a list of industries in which graduates of an engineering college are employed.
2. Name as many things as you can that students do in the engineering laboratories and the kind of equipment they use.
3. What different kinds of engines did you see? Compare the size of different kinds of engines having the same horse-power.
4. How is the engineering department assisting the government at the present time?
5. What are some of the big engineering problems the government has been working out?

Group II. Chemistry Building. Ask for Dr. Dale.

1. What is chemistry?
2. What are the chief industries which require the services of chemists and for what do they need them?
3. What have chemists done to make home life more healthful, safe, and attractive?
4. Describe any chemical experiments that are shown to you.
5. If you are shown one of the chemical laboratories describe what you see the students doing.

Group III. Weather Bureau. Go to the third floor of Physics Building and ask for Mr. Loveland.

1. How are weather maps made?
2. How is the direction and force of the wind recorded?
3. How is rainfall measured?
4. How are the weather forecasts of the weather bureau made?
5. Ask for illustrations of the practical value of the work of the weather bureau to persons in different vocations.
6. What are some of the things the records of the weather bureau show about Lincoln?

Group IV. Botany Building (Bessey Hall). Ask for Professor Poole.

1. How does the botanist assist in the following industries: agriculture, horticulture, stock raising, forestry, and metal industries?
2. How can the botanist help in the school garden movement?
3. Describe what you see in the laboratories.

Group V. University Museum. Ask for Dr. Barbour.

1. What is the purpose of a museum?
2. Make a list of as many different kinds of museums as you can get information about. Use encyclopedias. Good reference in Zueblin, *American Municipal Progress* (latest edition).
3. What subject could be studied to good advantage by using material in this museum?
4. It is suggested that the teacher in charge of this group select some collection, such as the bird collection, and have the pupils make a more careful study of this than of other features of the museum. That is, let them get general impressions of the whole, but make a careful study of some one thing.

One extract from reports is selected to illustrate what pupils see on these occasions:

A VISIT TO A SASH AND DOOR FACTORY

The group to which I was assigned visited the factory of Curtis, Towle & Payne.

On arriving at the factory a man took us to where the lumber is unloaded. The lumber is bought green and when it is unloaded it is put in a shed where the wood is dried and the sap sucked out. This shed is kept at a very high temperature. The lumber received at this factory comes from all parts of the United States. Pine is received from the south and west, very little coming from the north; fir comes from the west, cedar from Tennessee, and mahogany from the south.

Next we visited the building where the lumber is sawed and planed. The lumber is there given a rough planing. It is then stacked up as it is in a lumber yard, only the hard lumber such as oak is kept separate from the soft wood such as pine, cedar, and fir.

In the next building is the molding department. A machine is specially designed to cut one mold. Different machines are used for different molds. Stair moldings are the same as other moldings, only a different machine is used. A straight molding for a staircase is made by one machine and a curved molding by another machine.

Next we went where doors were made. One man shapes the boards for the door, another puts the boards together temporarily, and the last man puts them together permanently.

The next room was the glue room. The men glued columns or pillars. The four sides after being run over with glue were put together in the form of a square, hollow inside. The pillars were then put in a device clamping the columns together, to be held there for twenty-four hours. A porch pillar is made the same way.

The object of veneering is to make the price of wood cheap. Speaking of veneering, last summer the factory had an order for a walnut shelf. Walnut is so very heavy that posts would have been needed to hold up the shelf, so white pine was veneered with walnut. This made it so light that no braces were needed.

For the protection of the workmen in the factory, the safeguards are bars around the belting and the ventilation system. If this factory did not have the ventilation system it would be unspeakably dusty. At each machine a galvanized iron pipe leads to the furnace. This takes away all the dust.

The factory has a lounging room for the workmen when they are off duty or ill.

Among the activities and projects undertaken by the league have been the following:

FOR BENEFIT OF SCHOOL

1. Keeping of school grounds clean and free from paper and rubbish.
2. Campaign against eating of candy and throwing wrappers of same in buildings and on sidewalks.
3. Supervision of games on playground.

4. Petition to city authorities to close street for use as playground.
5. Protection of school property on playground and in building.
6. Leveling playground.
7. Filling up low places on school grounds with ashes which had accumulated.
8. Work on school grounds after the fire had partly destroyed building.
9. Clearing away rubbish and cinders left by builders and putting in and caring for lawn on school grounds.
10. Moving sand pit.
11. Building of cement walk on the school grounds.
12. Planting flowers, trees and shrubs on school grounds.
13. Putting up bird houses on school grounds and in district.
14. Building of skating pond on school grounds and securing the aid of the city authorities and fire department in getting it flooded.
15. Circulation of petitions for additional city lights to be placed near the school grounds.
16. Building extension to boys' workshop.
17. Making home plate and jumping standards.
18. Making furniture for the Board of Education.
19. Taking care of bridges between the McKinley buildings.
20. Protection of small children on the way to and from school and on the playground.
21. Taking charge of groups of younger children whenever they are to go some place away from the building.
22. Control of lines at dismissal.
23. Management of dismissal without the formation of lines.
24. Taking charge of lunch room.
25. Assistance in handling cases of tardiness and misconduct.
26. Looking up truants.
27. Keeping lookout for cases of contagious disease.
28. Collection of general information relative to health or sanitary conditions in the district.
29. Writing cheerful notes to or visiting pupils absent or ill.
30. Working to have members ready for the Efficiency List.
31. Formation of committee to do errands for principals.
32. Supervision of lower grade rooms.
33. Campaign for clean speech.
34. Taking action to get a gambling place where tobacco was sold to the boys closed.
35. Planning and management of programs, entertainments, plays, and athletic rallies.
36. Making costumes for entertainments.
37. Publishing of garden bulletin and Thrift Stamp bulletin.
38. Helping boys to save money or at least spend it for some useful purpose.
39. Keeping record of wheatless, meatless, and wasteless meals.

FOR COMMUNITY

1. Cleaning up of vacant lots and alleys.
2. Keeping crossings clean.
3. Removing unsightly bill boards near railroad tracks.
4. Tearing down old buildings.
5. Removing obscene writing from viaduct and buildings.
6. Getting waste paper cans placed in residence districts.
7. Keeping walks, fences, and buildings free from chalk writing and pictures.
8. Campaign against walking across lawns, pulling flowers, writing on walks.
9. Protection of lawns.
10. Trimming of trees and otherwise beautifying park.
11. Protection of private property against damage by school children.
12. Securing police protection to break up speeding on nearby street.
13. Trying to assist patrons in getting better street car service.
14. Making survey and request for street markers to be provided by the City Council.
15. Putting up warning sign to automobilists.

16. Taking action against riding bicycles on sidewalks.
17. Helping to build school garden market.
18. Assistance in organizing mothers' clubs; writing and distributing invitations; acting as ushers, and assisting in demonstrations.
19. Decoration of halls and community trees at Christmas.
20. Distribution of letters to boys and girls over 16 who were not in school, inviting them to attend evening school.
21. Keeping fresh water in the yards for birds and dogs during the summer.
22. Making game tables for the Y. M. C. A.
23. Acting as guides at conventions.

PATRIOTIC

1. Folding and preparing letters and circulars for the council of defense and state superintendent's office.
2. Giving Hallowe'en social to earn money for school flag.
3. Raising and lowering flag each day on the school grounds.
4. Canvass for names and addresses of boys in military service.
5. Making and paying for service flag and securing names for honor roll of the school.
6. Organizing and training children for the Liberty Loan Parade.
7. Collecting and remaking old clothes for Red Cross.
8. Support of French orphans.
9. Organizing campaigns for Junior Red Cross membership.

CHARITABLE

1. Supplying needy family with milk during the school year.
2. Supplying breakfast for family of four children during the semester.
3. Providing wood for needy family.
4. Dressing dolls for poor children in the city.
5. Sending food, clothing, and flowers to crippled orphans or poor families at Thanksgiving and Christmas.
6. Entertaining the children at the orthopedic hospital.
7. Visiting and caring for children in other hospitals.

A citywide survey of fire hazards, recreation spaces, dangerous intersections and garden plots made in the spring of 1924 is selected as representative of large scale projects undertaken by the pupils from time to time. From the survey standpoint the purposes of this project were to assemble more complete information regarding recreational possibilities, to discover fire hazards with a view to their elimination, to help point out places which should receive special consideration in the formulation of a safety program and to locate garden spaces which might be available for pupils who do not have gardens at home.

The survey was preceded by a classroom study of recreation, fire prevention and safety. The visits of the Junior Civic and Industrial League members to study business and civic institutions were organized to contribute to this project as far as possible. Among places visited were the College of Agriculture, a large nursery, the State Department of Insurance, a fire insurance company, the municipal health and fire departments, the city parks and the city planning and recreation subdivisions of the Chamber of Commerce. Questions regarding safety and fire prevention were raised at stores and factories as well. On all of these trips some well-informed person, notified in advance regarding the questions that would probably be raised, was prepared to make explanations, offer suggestions, and answer questions. The information gathered on these visits was carried back to the classrooms and

discussed. By the time the actual survey was undertaken the pupils were well-informed regarding the problems and interested in actually putting this information to practical use.

The organization of the survey presented problems of the division of labor and the fixing of responsibility, problems common to all cooperative enterprises. As finally organized each pupil by himself or with someone else became responsible for the survey in one or more blocks with definite instructions to follow and definite facts to report. A citywide summary was made of vacant lots or spaces, trash piles, trashy fences, tumbledown buildings and dangerous intersections. The various schools summarized other items or not, as they desired.

The summary of vacant spaces was turned over to the recreation division of the Chamber of Commerce, to the Council of Social Agencies and was used in each school to help find garden plots for pupils who did not have garden space at home. A large map, about five feet square, was made showing the exact location of fire hazards and dangerous crossings and turned over to the fire prevention committee of the Chamber of Commerce and the city fire department. A plan was formulated for condemning certain tumble-down buildings which were fire hazards and placing them in the hands of the social welfare society to be salvaged through the labor of persons seeking aid from the society. Certain legal obstacles stood in the way of putting this plan into operation. The information regarding dangerous crossings was used by the principals and teachers in instructing pupils regarding traffic hazards.

The annual clean-up week in which pupils participate each year followed this survey. The trash piles and trashy fences which had been located were centers of attention during this week. Attention was also given to inside fire hazards. A statistical summary of work done throughout the whole city during this week was not compiled. However, a summary was made for fourteen rooms with a membership of approximately 500 pupils which gives an indication of the amount of work done. The summary of this group is as follows:

Number of pupils cleaning up alleys.....	117
Number of pupils cleaning up lawns.....	342
Number of pupils cleaning up trash piles.....	306
Number of pupils cleaning up interior of homes.....	242
Total number of fire hazards removed.....	1,248

About one-tenth of the pupils participating in this project is represented in this tabulation. If this report is fairly representative, as it is believed to be, a total of 3000 trash piles were cleaned up by pupils during this week and 12,000 fire hazards of some kind removed.

In the fall of 1924 during fire prevention week, 944 attics and basements were cleaned and 2320 stovepipes and chimneys inspected by pupils.

Each year some such project as this is undertaken on a citywide scale. The project for the present year is an investigation of the educational and occupational history of approximately 3000 pupils who were in grades VII to

XII in 1918. It is believed that the information gathered will be of some value in connection with a study of what the high-school curriculum should contain, and of some value for vocational guidance purposes.

Considerable progress has been made in Lincoln during the past few years in the matter of providing better recreational facilities and removing traffic hazards. Within the past two years several areas have been added to the park system, enlarged playgrounds have been provided at six schools, a recreation board representing the entire city has been organized and a comprehensive recreation program initiated. In the safety field the lights at intersections where traffic is heaviest, the boulevard stops, the school stops and the parking restrictions along curbs adjacent to school buildings have come into being during the same period. The opinion is here advanced that the participation of pupils in civic projects and in the study of civic problems during the past eight years has been a real factor in creating a public opinion which demanded and endorsed these forward looking civic measures.

It used to be said that the purpose of the schools is to prepare boys and girls to become "future citizens." Today pupils are not regarded merely as future citizens. They are citizens here and now, with civic interests and civic problems and civic responsibilities. Many of these civic interests and problems and responsibilities are a part of the life of the school; likewise in many ways their participation in the larger life of the community is just as real and has for them an interest just as vital as in the case of the adult. Training for future citizenship placed emphasis on qualities of character which it was believed would function later in civic life, but gave little thought to making those qualities function during this training period. Likewise the information content of civic instruction insofar as there was any such instruction was related to what the child might need to know when he became a voter rather than to those problems which were a part of his life as a child. Today civic training is concerned first of all with the civic life of the child, and out of the situations and problems which arise it seeks to develop civic attitudes of mind and civic habits of action. It makes use of an abundance of civic information in order that these attitudes and habits may have a rational basis but not primarily in order that such information may be stored away for future use. To what extent these habits and attitudes will be carried over into adult life it is impossible to say. There is, however, reason to believe that this type of civic training is more likely to function in adult life than any other type of civic training.

YOUR HELP is needed with the 1933 yearbook. Consult page 681 and then write immediately to the Editorial Committee.

NEWS FROM LOCAL GROUPS

Our profession at work on its problems

BIRMINGHAM ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS CLUB

THE ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS CLUB of Birmingham boasts ninety-nine percent membership of principals in Birmingham and one Jefferson County principal. Meetings are held each third Tuesday night in the calendar month. Programs tend to be professional. Outside speakers are used for inspirational addresses. The officers include: president, G. B. Brown; vicepresident, J. T. Vaughan; secretary-treasurer, H. B. Johnson; and executive committee, E. V. Chapman and Mark P. Manley.

CHATTANOOGA SCHOOLMASTERS CLUB

The Lookout Schoolmasters' Club is composed of all men engaged in educational work in and about Chattanooga, Tennessee. The group includes college presidents, city and county superintendents, principals and headmasters of the private prep schools and public senior high, junior high, and elementary schools, and all male members of the faculties of all such institutions. The Club is characterized by a remarkable spirit of goodwill, co-operation, and unanimity of objectives. The president is C. G. Bates.

RALEIGH ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS

The study program of the Raleigh, North Carolina, Elementary School Principals' Association, with Miss Emma D. Conn as president, includes the following topics for the year 1931-32: Grade Placement, The Testing Program, Checking Results of Activity Work, Establishing Achievement Standards, and Ways of Recording Pupil Growth. A number of the suggested references for each meeting were taken from the yearbooks of the national department. That's an idea—use the yearbooks in your local principals meetings!

NEW ORLEANS PRINCIPALS AT WORK

The New Orleans Principals' Association does its work chiefly through committees. For example, the Traveling Exhibit Committee is working out plans for a complete traveling museum. Each school is contributing one or more exhibits.

The Legislative Committee, in conjunction with the committee from the Vocational Guidance Association, is initiating changes in the compulsory school attendance law and the child labor law and is introducing a bill for a continuous school. Josephine Thomas is president.

CHARLESTON PRINCIPALS CLUB

The phases of the work of the Elementary Principals' Club of Charleston, South Carolina, include among other things: (1) revision of course of study, (2) handling of all inter-school athletics, (3) sponsorship of many educational gatherings, with speakers of national prominence, and (4) sponsorship of professional improvement. All of our elementary principals hold

A. M. degrees. Each member of the Club is a member of the local teachers' association, the state association, and the N. E. A.

LOUISVILLE PRINCIPALS CLUB

The Louisville, Kentucky, Principals' Club has the following objectives: (a) the betterment of the principal professionally, economically, socially; (b) the betterment of the school; and (c) the betterment of the community.

Meetings are scheduled for the afternoon of the last Tuesday in the month. During the spring of 1932 a series of monthly dinners has been instituted where there are no set speeches but just a question box is used.

KENTUCKY STATE ASSOCIATION

The elementary school principals of Kentucky have a Department of Elementary School Principals in the State Teachers' Association working on school problems with E. E. Gotherman, principal of Jefferson Davis School, Lexington, as president.

GEORGIA STATE ORGANIZATION

Fifty elementary school principals at a luncheon at the Dempsey Hotel, Macon, Georgia, on April 17, 1932, organized the Georgia Principals' Association with the following officers: president, Rusha Wesley, Atlanta, Georgia; vicepresident, Rosa Taylor, Macon, Georgia; secretary, Jessie Beard, Columbus, Georgia; and treasurer, Romona Riley, Savannah, Georgia.

FRESNO CONFERENCE

The central section of the California Elementary School Principals' Association cooperated in a conference on April 2 with a number of district superintendents. The state superintendent, Dr. Vierling Kersey, spoke on the place of the principal in the state's educational program. His address was followed by talks by principals on the responsibility of the principal for pupil welfare, teacher improvement, community leadership, administration and supervision, and professional association. Robert Abbott of Fresno, Arthur Pursell of Tulare, J. H. Ensz of Visalia, John L. Compton of Bakersfield, and Irwin O. Addicott of Fresno were among the principals who spoke on the program. Several members of the state department of education and district superintendents presided at meetings or led discussions following the speeches. Dr. Frank W. Thomas, president of the Fresno State Teachers College, was the luncheon speaker on the topic "The Principalship as a Career in Education."

CHICAGO PRINCIPALS' CLUB

The Committee on Supervision is preparing a report on teacher training in the classroom. They expect to complete a two-hundred page typed report in June of this year. The Committee made a list of the prominent characteristics of successful teachers, including only those traits thought to be improvable by direct classroom supervision. An attempt was made then to discover the supervisory devices and technics which could be used to develop the desired teacher traits. The data and experimental work is being sum-

marized around such units as the following: directing study, remedial instruction, socialized exercises, project teaching, classroom management, supervision of practise teachers, and similar topics. In 1931-32 the Committee included: A. T. Bell, Margaret Feeney, Daniel Hannon, Marx Holt, C. A. Lentz, W. H. Spurgin, G. E. Rickard, R. H. Weatherbee, C. L. Williams, and Mr. Wise, Chicago Normal College.

DETROIT EDUCATIONAL CONFERENCE

Under the direction of the Department of Research the Detroit schools held their annual conference on professional studies. These reports are based upon the research studies made by members of the teaching, supervisory, and administrative staffs. Among some of the principals and assistant principals who spoke were the following: Edna B. Livie, "Effects of Changing Handedness"; Carl G. Beck, "Relation of Class Size to Pupil Efficiency"; and Burton A. Barns, "Suitability of Certain Reading Materials for Pupils of the Intermediate School." Two splendid ideas in the administration of the conference are that: (1) papers are limited to twenty minutes, and (2) a ten-minute recess is allowed each hour.

CALIFORNIA SUMMER CONFERENCE

The California State Elementary School Principals Association is sponsoring a summer conference in cooperation with the University of California, Berkeley. During a period of three days a series of six conferences are planned. General sessions are to be held from 10 a.m. to 11 a.m. and 1:30 p.m. to 2:30 p.m. Each general session is to be followed by an hour of round-table discussion. Principals who are enroled in the regular university summer session may attend the conferences without charge. Others are required to pay a registration fee of \$3.00 which also permits them to visit regular summer session classes during the three-day conference. Dr. George C. Kyte, formerly at the University of Michigan, is in general charge of the conference.

PRINCIPALS CLUB OF DILLON COUNTY, SOUTH CAROLINA

The Dillon County Elementary Principals' Club is composed of all principals in the county, both rural and urban. Since interest throughout the State is at present focused on curriculum revision, we chose as our subject for the year "The Curriculum." This subject was broken up into different topics and programs arranged around them. Leaders were chosen to handle each topic at each meeting after which there was a round-table discussion. Everything has been very informal, so that everyone felt perfectly free to express themselves.

The meetings have been held on Monday night before each regular County Teachers' meeting on the following Saturday, and have been moved from place to place upon invitation. The hostess principals are responsible for short social programs in connection with the meetings. Exhibitions of work, posters, notebooks, outlines, and various projects in the hostess schools have been inspected and discussed. Ellen Thomas of Kemper, South Carolina, is president for 1931-32.

RECORDS OF THE WASHINGTON MEETING

MAUDE A. RHODES

Principal, Atlanta, Georgia and Secretary of the Department

THE DEPARTMENT of Elementary School Principals held two general meetings in the Auditorium of the National Museum—one Monday, February 22, at 8 p.m., and the other Wednesday, February 24, at 2 p.m. The program of the sessions was as follows:

FIRST SESSION

Presiding, Earl R. Laing, district principal, Burt School, Detroit, Mich.
MUSIC

Vocal Solo by Eugenia Slattery, accompanied by Margaret Slattery
Bass Solo by Kirk Ritter
Soprano Solo by Madame Schinskya.

The New Principalship

GREETINGS, Florence Hale, state agent for rural education, Augusta, Maine, and President, National Education Association.

THE ELEVENTH (1932) YEARBOOK, Aaron Kline, principal, Pullman School, Chicago, Ill., and chairman, 1932 Yearbook Committee.

PROGRESSIVE PRINCIPALS AND THE SUPERINTENDENT, Paul C. Stetson, superintendent of schools, Indianapolis, Ind.

THE PRINCIPALSHIP AND EFFECTIVE SUPERVISION, John S. Herron, principal, Lafayette Street School, Newark, N. J.

COMMUNITY LEADERSHIP, Joy Elmer Morgan, editor, *Journal of the National Education Association*, Washington, D. C.

SECOND SESSION

Presiding, Earl R. Laing, district principal, Burt School, Detroit, Mich.

MUSIC—Washington All-City Elementary School Orchestra, Mrs. L. F. Ward, director.

The New Childhood

THE TWELFTH (1933) YEARBOOK, Helen B. Shove, principal, Minnehaha School, Minneapolis, Minn., and chairman, 1933 Yearbook Committee.

EDUCATION FOR CHARACTER, Paul T. Rankin, supervising director of research and adjustment, Public Schools, Detroit, Mich.

CHILDHOOD, THE GOLDEN PERIOD FOR MENTAL HYGIENE, W. A. White, M. D., Saint Elizabeth's Hospital, Washington, D. C.

CHILD HEALTH AND PROTECTION, F. J. Kelly, chief, College and University Division, United States Office of Education, Washington, D. C.

On Monday and Tuesday at 7:30 a.m., there were breakfasts at the Mayflower Hotel. These breakfasts are meeting with ever-increasing popularity as an opportunity for social contacts, reports of achievements, and exchange of ideas.

On Tuesday evening, February 23, the semi-annual dinner was held at the Shoreham Hotel. A fine musical program was presented, followed by a most excellent address by Mr. Joy Elmer Morgan, editor of *The Journal of the National Education Association*.

SUMMARY OF MINUTES OF THE EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE *Washington, D. C., February 20-25, 1932*

THE FIRST MEETING of the Executive Committee of the Department of Elementary School Principals was held on Tuesday morning, February 23, in Room 504, N. E. A. Building. Due to the illness of the president, Earl R. Laing,

the meeting was called to order by Cassie F. Roys, first vicepresident, at 9:30 a.m. The following members were present: A. B. Heacock, representing Harley W. Lyon, second vicepresident; Lillian M. Towne, third vicepresident; Elizabeth McCormick, fifth vicepresident; M. Emma Brookes, John Loftus, and Herbert Hansen, of the Executive Committee; Aaron Kline and Helen Shove, of the Editorial Committee; Eva G. Pinkston, special secretary, and Maude Rhodes, secretary.

The minutes of the Los Angeles meeting were read and approved.

Mr. Kline, chairman of the Editorial Committee, made his final report on the 1932 Yearbook. He stated that all material was ready for the printers and that copies of this yearbook should be in the hands of the readers sometime in April.

It was moved by Mr. Hansen and seconded by Miss Brookes that a vote of appreciation be given Mr. Kline and his committee. Motion carried.

Miss Shove gave advanced plans for the 1933 Yearbook, which has for its subject: "The Principal and the Libraries." She also announced the topics planned for future yearbooks as follows: 1934, "Principals and Supplemental Teaching Aids"; 1935, "School-Life Activity Program"; and 1936, "The Principal as a Professional Leader."

Miss Isabel Tucker, retiring member of the Editorial Committee, expressed appreciation for the opportunity of working with the Executive Committee.

A thorough discussion of certain future policies for the Editorial Committee took place. Members of the Editorial Committee were present and made helpful suggestions for retrenchment. It was moved by Mr. Heacock and seconded by Miss Towne that copies of the various recommendations and policies discussed should be placed in the hands of the Executive Committee for careful consideration between now and the Atlantic City meeting. Motion carried.

It was moved by Mr. Heacock and seconded by Mr. Loftus, that the special secretary be authorized to pay the expense account to the Washington meeting of Mr. John Thomas, new member of the Editorial Committee. Motion carried.

It was moved by Mr. Hansen and seconded by Mr. Heacock that the only expenses for the Editorial Committee authorized by the Executive Committee shall be for the expenses of the two regular fall and spring meetings of the committee. Motion carried.

It was moved by Mr. Hansen and seconded by Miss McCormick that the incoming new member of the Editorial Committee who is appointed in the fall be invited to attend the February meeting of said committee without expense to the Department. Motion carried. Meeting adjourned

MAUDE A. RHODES, *Secretary*.

The second meeting of the Executive Committee was called to order by the first vicepresident, Cassie F. Roys, at 9:30 a.m. Wednesday, February 24, in Room 504, N. E. A. Building. The following members were present: Earl R. Laing, A. B. Heacock, Lillian M. Towne, Elizabeth McCormick, M. Emma Brookes, John Loftus, Herbert C. Hansen, Dr. Frank W. Hubbard, associate director of the Research Division of the National Education Association, Eva G. Pinkston, and Maude A. Rhodes.

The minutes of the first meeting were read and approved.

The first topic for discussion was in connection with the position of special secretary of the Department. On motion of Mr. Loftus seconded by Miss McCormick, the Executive Committee declared the following policies: (1) that appointments shall be made for a term of four years; (2) that the beginning salary shall be \$4000; (3) that there shall be provided four annual salary increments of \$250 each; and (4) that the appointee to the office shall begin service in Washington on September 1, 1932.

It was moved by Mr. Loftus and seconded by Miss McCormick that Miss Eva G. Pinkston, special secretary, should be appointed for a term of four years, beginning September 1, 1932. Motion carried.

It was moved by Miss Brookes and seconded by Mr. Hansen that inasmuch as Miss Eva G. Pinkston had already served one year as special secretary, her salary beginning September 1, 1932, should include the first annual increment. Motion carried.

A very beautiful gavel was presented to President Laing by Miss Pinkston. The gavel was made from lumber removed from the White House after more than a century of use. The gavel was very graciously accepted by the president.

Meeting adjourned.

MAUDE A. RHODES, *Secretary*.

The third meeting of the Executive Committee was held Thursday morning, February 25, at the Mayflower Hotel. Those present were: Earl R. Laing, Cassie F. Roys, A. B. Heacock, Lillian M. Towne, Elizabeth McCormick, M. Emma Brookes, John Loftus, Herbert Hansen, Eva G. Pinkston, and Maude A. Rhodes.

The minutes of the previous meeting were read and approved.

Miss Pinkston, special secretary, gave a financial report at this time. It was moved by Mr. Hansen and seconded by Miss Brookes that this financial report of the special secretary be accepted. Motion carried.

After due consideration to suggestions that a reduction in dues to members be advisable, it was moved by Mr. Loftus and seconded by Mr. Hansen that no such action should be taken at this time.

On motion of Mr. Hansen, seconded by Miss Roys, the committee voted to express appreciation to Mr. Joy Elmer Morgan for the offer of certain radio material for use by the elementary principals and to advise him that financial conditions of the Department prohibit such an expenditure at present.

On motion of Mr. Heacock and seconded by Miss Towne, it was voted that adjustments should be recommended to the Executive Committee of the National Education Association regarding the research director's salary and also in regard to the annual appropriation from the National Education Association. The secretary was directed to communicate the details to Mr. Crabtree.

It was moved by Mr. Loftus and seconded by Miss Roys that the three honorary memberships granted in the past shall continue to be so honored, and that these shall continue to receive the yearbook free of charge.

On motion of Miss McCormick, seconded by Miss Brookes, it was voted that all future inquirers be informed that our Constitution makes no provision for honorary membership.

It was moved by Miss Roys and seconded unanimously that the members of the official family express for the Department of Elementary School Principals their sincere appreciation of the very fine spirit of cooperation given by the principals of Washington during the convention and to this end the secretary was instructed to send letters to Miss A. Grace Lind, president of the Washington Elementary Principals Association, Mrs. L. Duganne, chairman, Hospitality Committee, and Mrs. Julia Ward, director of music.

It was moved by Mr. Hansen and seconded by Mr. Loftus that the secretary send letters of appreciation to the speakers on the programs. Motion carried.

On motion of Mr. Loftus, seconded by Miss Brookes, it was voted to extend to Dr. Frank W. Hubbard, of the Research Division of the National Education Association, recognition of his invaluable services to the Department.

It was moved by Mr. Hansen and seconded unanimously that the Executive Committee express to Miss Pinkston, the special secretary, their deep appreciation of the efficient way in which she is handling the affairs of the Department.

It was moved by Miss McCormick and seconded by Miss Brookes that a vote of thanks be given Miss Roys for presiding over the meetings during the enforced absence of President Laing.

The Executive Committee extended congratulations to Mr. John Loftus because of his advance in rank in the New York school system.

Meeting adjourned.

MAUDE A. RHODES, *Secretary*.

OUR LIBRARY YEARBOOK

Could we give one gift to every child, we should choose the love of books.—William Frederick Bigelow.

IN THE DICTIONARY a library is usually described as "a collection of books systematically arranged for leisure reading or reference purposes." Could anything be more dull? Surely in our elementary schools of today we want something more than a "collection of books"! Our libraries should be places for vivid and satisfying experiences. A place where children learn to love books, where brightness abounds, where minds are constantly quickened by impacts with new ideas. Please save us from a dusty pile of books!

The Editorial Committee has chosen the library topic for the 1933 yearbook. Already several hundred principals have sent us statistics as to the number of books in their school libraries, the size of the library room, and other facts which will be interesting for us to know. But the Committee wants more than figures! We want a number of principals to tell us how they came to organize a school library service, where they obtain the money to support the library, how they interest children in books, how the books are used in connection with teaching, how the library can be used to improve the instruction, and how one measures the effectiveness of library services. Doesn't one of these problems give you an "inner urge" to write something for us?

The members of the Editorial Committee for the 1933 yearbook are: Helen B. Shove, *Chairman*, Minnehaha School, Minneapolis; Aaron Kline, Pullman Public School, Chicago; and John S. Thomas, Clippert School, Detroit.

Each year the Editorial Committee receives about 150 articles for the yearbook. It is customary to select about 50 of these contributions and to shape them into a handbook on the year's topic. Since only one-third of the contributions can be used it is perfectly clear that competition is keen. Articles chosen are those that are written in excellent English, contain well-organized ideas, adhere closely to a specific topic, and develop the outline prepared by the Editorial Committee. Articles from principals in small rural schools are given the same careful consideration as those from large city schools. *It is not necessary to have a national reputation to receive fair consideration.*

Manuscripts should be sent to the Committee not later than November 1, 1932. Please notify members of the Committee at once if you are interested. Principals planning to attend summer school in 1932 may prepare theses on the elementary school library and submit the same document for their classes and the Editorial Committee. Urge librarians and teachers to write for the descriptive leaflet and to submit manuscripts for publication.—F. W. H.

A MESSAGE FROM THE SPECIAL SECRETARY

IN THIS LAST *BULLETIN* for the year 1931-32 your special secretary wants to say:

To the Enrolment Chairmen

We have every right to be proud of our record for the year. Everyone knows the unusual burden which has been placed upon the school and only by your splendid cooperation has our membership roll been kept intact. I realize how much of your time you have given this work, how many letters you have written and how many principals you have interviewed. Let me urge you to continue your correspondence with me during the summer so that we shall be ready for our fall campaign.

To the Executive Committee

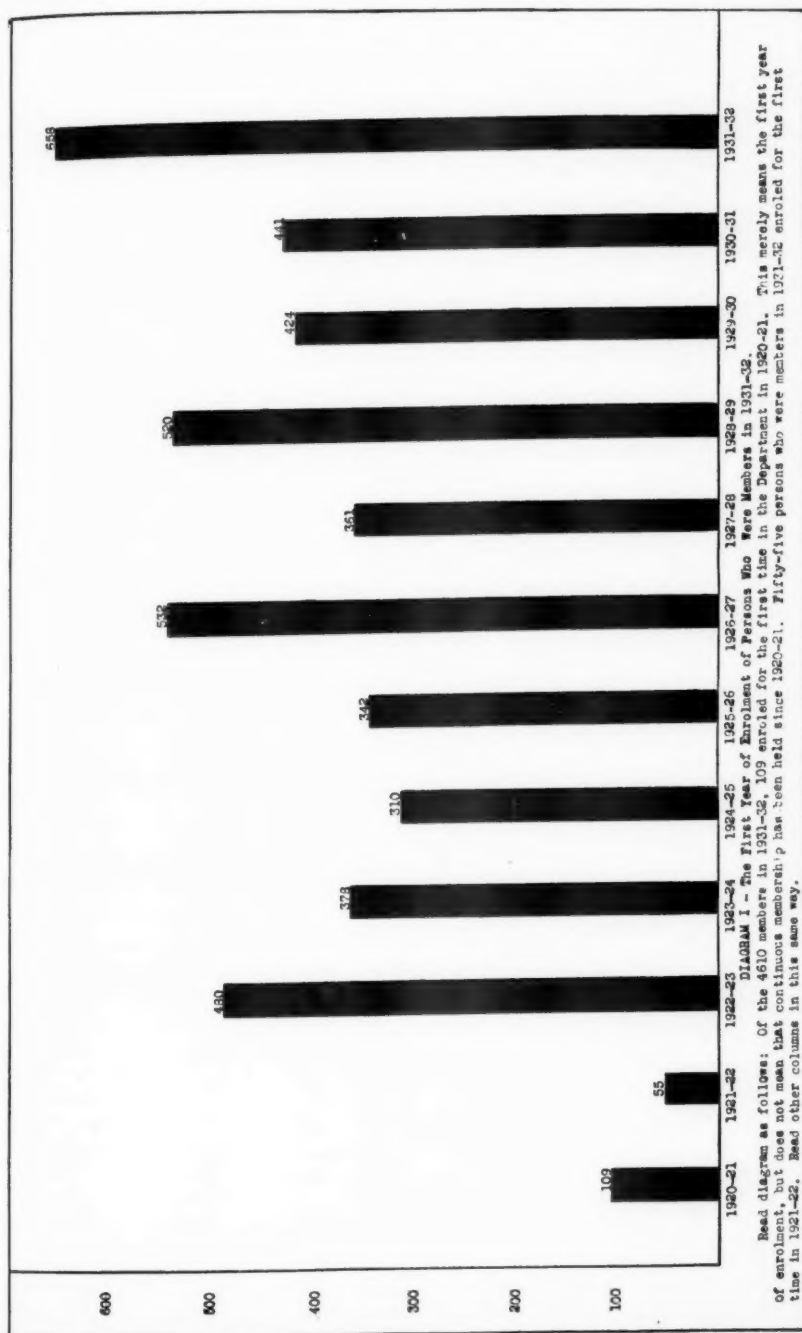
It is indeed a pleasure to work with an Official Family which understands so thoroughly the problems of the Department and which is so vitally interested in all phases of the work. You have understood the handicaps for growth this year. You have redoubled your efforts with the results that the plans and policies of the Department have brought new vision to our membership. We at headquarters thank you for your words and letters of encouragement.

To the Department

To have the pleasure of writing to each of you and to get your replies has been a joy. The friendly notes which you have added, the suggestions which you have offered, and the criticisms which have come have been most helpful. This interest on your part, relayed to all parts of the United States, has centered the attention of the public on the importance of the principalship. Many citizens today appreciate the fact that the principal is not only an administrator but the social engineer of his community. Let us continue to work and think together, for only through the leadership of the elementary principal can the problems of elementary education be solved.

Please look at Diagram I. Your special secretary took the 4610 members (enrolment up to May 15, 1932) and traced back to the first year that each joined the Department. Note that 109 of the 1931-32 members enroled for the first time in 1920-21. Not all of the persons have held memberships every year since 1920-21. Some enroled then and have been with us at irregular intervals, but 1931-32 found them safely in the fold. As near as I can tell only about 50 persons have held memberships *every year* from 1920-21 to 1931-32. Apparently the motto of these faithful participants is: *once a member always a member.*

Diagram I shows that 658 persons joined the Department for the first time in 1931-32. From facts not shown in the diagram we know that 3650 persons have held memberships *continuously* for six years or more and that 302 others have held memberships from time to time since 1920-21.—E. G. P.



AN ANALYSIS OF THE 1931-32 ENROLMENT

THE ELEVENTH YEARBOOK in April of this year contained the names of 4553 members of the national Department.¹ Of this number 176 were libraries and memberships held in Canada, Porto Rico, Philippine Islands, Hawaii, and other places outside of continental United States. Therefore, the number of active members in the 48 states and the District of Columbia was 4377 as shown in Table I.

It is interesting to note in Table I that over 50 percent of the members are to be found in cities over 100,000 in population. Only 346 persons report that they live in cities under 2500 in population. If all of the potential members in cities over 100,000 population were enlisted in the Department there would be about 5500. In the cities and rural areas under 2500 in population there are close to 8000 potential members.

Column 10 of Table I shows the percent of gain or loss over the 1930-31 membership. For example, Alabama with 134 percent in Column 10 means that the state has gained 34 percent over its 1930-31 enrolment. The greatest percent of gains for the 48 states and the District of Columbia are:

STATE	PERCENT OF GAIN
Wyoming	46
Maine	44
Maryland	42
Alabama	34
Arkansas	25
North Dakota	18
Wisconsin	18
Virginia	14
New York	12
District of Columbia	11
Indiana	10

Chart I shows the states ranked according to the percent of potential membership enlisted in the Department. It will be noted that the District of Columbia leads with approximately 68 percent of the potential membership in our national organization. Michigan, Oregon, New Jersey, Missouri, California, Maryland, Minnesota, and Washington have enlisted about one-third of their potential members.

Chart II shows the rank of the states in the order of their total number of members. New York leads with 437 enrolments. The other leaders include California, Michigan, Ohio, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Massachusetts, and Missouri.

Much credit for the showing set forth in Table I and the charts belongs to the special secretary, Miss Eva G. Pinkston, and her enrolment committee. It has not been easy to keep the membership intact during the recent period when both morale and finances have been depressed.—F. W. H.

¹The total membership through May 15, 1932 was 4610.

TABLE I.—DISTRIBUTION OF THE STATE MEMBERSHIPS BY CITY SIZE—1931-32

State (1)	CITY SIZE						Total for 1931-32 (8)	Total for 1930-31 (9)	Percent Col. 8 is of Col. 9 (10)
	Over 100,000 (2)	30,000 to 100,000 (3)	10,000 to 30,000 (4)	5,000 to 10,000 (5)	2,500 to 5,000 (6)	Less than 2,500 (7)			
Alabama	32	11	4	0	1	3	51	38	134.2
Arizona	0	6	0	2	2	6	16	15	106.7
Arkansas	0	10	2	1	2	0	15	12	125.0
California	160	73	57	22	12	42	366	374	97.9
Colorado	39	13	4	5	4	3	68	81	84.0
Connecticut	28	18	24	1	0	27	98	100	98.0
Delaware	4	0	0	0	1	2	7	10	70.0
District of Columbia	72	0	0	0	0	0	72	65	110.8
Florida	36	3	7	6	0	4	56	54	103.7
Georgia	23	12	5	4	0	2	46	46	100.0
Idaho	0	0	6	2	0	0	8	14	57.1
Illinois	73	61	20	13	5	8	180	312	57.7
Indiana	103	17	17	3	2	4	146	133	109.8
Iowa	13	27	17	1	4	3	65	74	87.8
Kansas	57	4	14	4	5	4	88	96	91.7
Kentucky	17	8	10	3	0	1	39	46	84.8
Louisiana	14	5	4	0	2	1	26	29	89.7
Maine	0	3	5	1	0	4	13	9	144.4
Maryland	53	3	4	3	4	11	78	55	141.8
Massachusetts	78	55	40	12	0	35	220	249	88.4
Michigan	224	45	30	5	2	10	316	371	85.2
Minnesota	97	0	2	5	3	2	109	114	95.6
Mississippi	0	3	5	0	1	3	12	19	63.2
Missouri	130	36	19	4	3	2	194	185	104.9
Montana	0	2	6	3	0	2	13	22	59.1
Nebraska	41	7	3	2	2	0	55	72	76.4
Nevada	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	3	33.3
New Hampshire	0	3	4	0	0	2	9	12	75.0
New Jersey	80	54	59	29	13	32	267	291	91.8
New Mexico	0	0	7	4	0	1	12	15	80.0
New York	197	85	69	18	10	58	437	391	111.8
North Carolina	0	28	5	1	2	4	40	61	65.6
North Dakota	0	0	13	3	0	4	20	17	117.6
Ohio	223	31	16	4	5	10	289	300	96.3
Oklahoma	36	1	7	3	2	2	51	55	92.7
Oregon	61	0	4	3	4	4	76	91	83.5
Pennsylvania	137	38	39	19	6	15	254	251	101.2
Rhode Island	8	0	1	0	0	1	10	11	90.9
South Carolina	0	6	1	2	0	3	12	15	80.0
South Dakota	0	13	11	1	0	1	26	28	92.9
Tennessee	27	0	3	2	1	4	37	35	105.7
Texas	100	26	10	5	4	1	146	150	97.3
Utah	27	5	0	1	0	1	34	39	87.2
Vermont	0	0	4	1	0	0	5	5	100.0
Virginia	23	5	10	3	1	8	50	44	113.6
Washington	83	7	12	2	2	4	110	132	83.3
West Virginia	0	11	5	4	2	5	27	29	93.1
Wisconsin	41	33	13	1	0	3	91	77	118.2
Wyoming	0	0	10	1	1	4	16	11	145.5
Total	2337	768	608	210	108	346	4377	4658	94.0

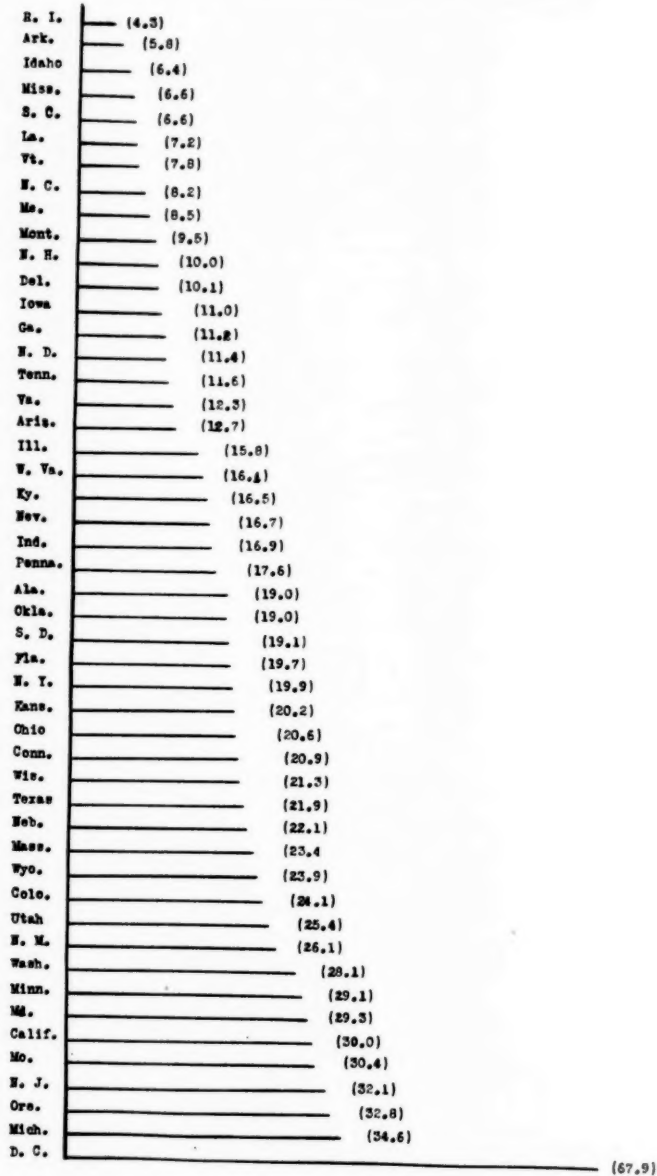


CHART I. - Percent of Potential Membership Enrolled by States in 1931-32.

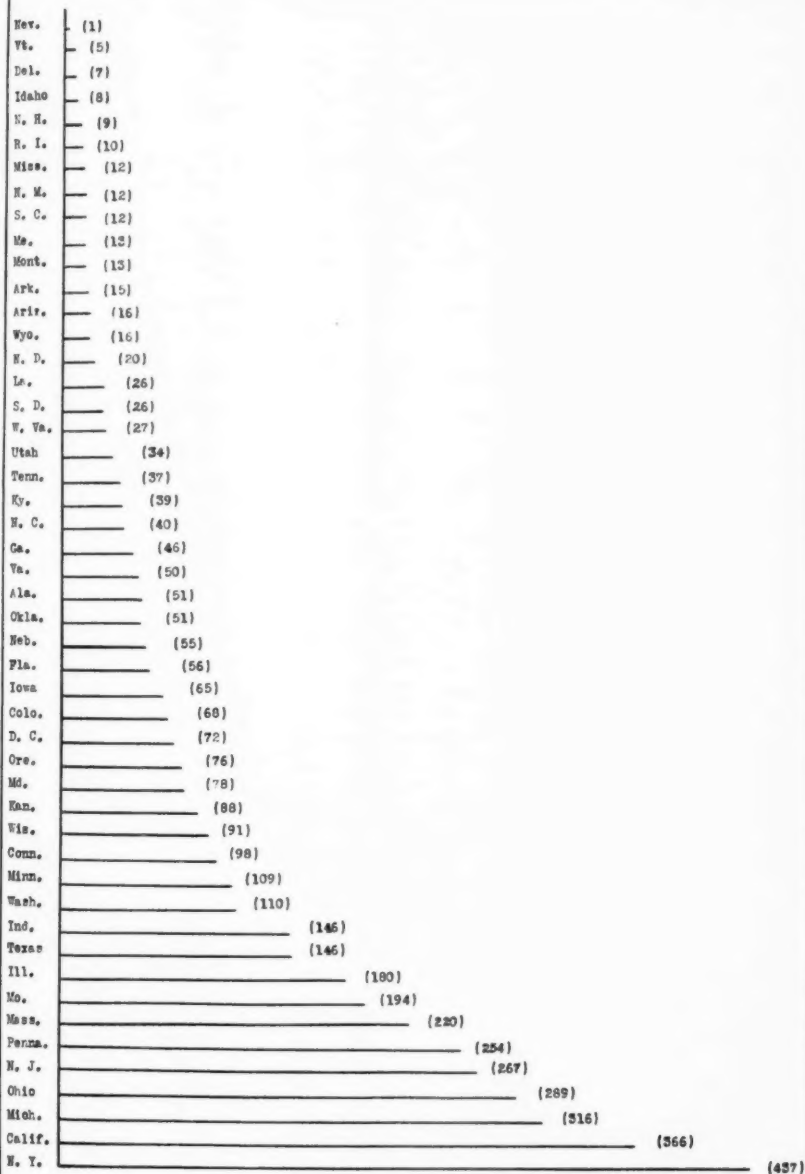


CHART II. - Actual Number of Members by States in 1931-32.