

MAR 12 1921

N.E.A. BULLETIN

Vol. IV, No. 6

May 1916

Whole Number 21

Entered as second-class matter March 22, 1913, at the post-office at Ann Arbor, Michigan, under the Act of August 24, 1912. Published September, December, January, February, April, and June by the National Education Association of the United States. Office of publication, Ann Arbor, Michigan.

70-5
11-8

Proceedings of the

DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION
OF THE UNITED STATES

DETROIT, MICHIGAN

FEBRUARY, 1916

Copies of this advance print of the Proceedings of the Department of Superintendence for 1916 can be obtained of Durand W. Springer, Secretary, N.E.A., Ann Arbor, Michigan, for 25 cents per copy.

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION
OF THE
UNITED STATES

Proceedings
of the
Department of Superintendence

AT THE ANNUAL MEETING

HELD AT

DETROIT, MICHIGAN

FEBRUARY 21-26, 1916

Published by the Association
1916

Proceedings
Department of Government

Composed and Printed By
The University of Chicago Press
Chicago, Illinois, U.S.A.

CONTENTS

DETROIT MEETING, 1916

	PAGE
Secretary's Minutes— <i>Warriner</i>	5
Address of Welcome— <i>Keeler</i>	11
Response to Address of Welcome— <i>Blair</i>	14
What Is Going on in the World— <i>Butler</i>	17
The Ford Idea of Education— <i>Marquis</i>	20
Debate: The Best Organization for American Schools Is a Plan Which Shall Divide These Schools into Six Years of Elementary Training and Six Years of Secondary Training— <i>Judd</i>	27
<i>Pearse</i>	35
Greetings— <i>Johnson</i>	44
The Public School and the New American Spirit— <i>Becht</i>	45
The Superintendent as the Layman Sees Him— <i>Churchill</i>	50
To Whom Is the Board of Education Responsible?— <i>Winship</i>	56
Some Suggestions for Improving the Rural-School Curricula— <i>Creelman</i>	57
Joint Discussion: The Minimum Essentials versus the Differentiated Course of Study in the Seventh and Eighth Grades— <i>Coffman</i>	63
<i>Bagley</i>	68
<i>Snedden</i>	75
Address— <i>Ferris</i>	86
<i>Brumbaugh</i>	89
<i>Willis</i>	91
Booker T. Washington: An Appreciation— <i>Corson</i>	93
High Points in the Los Angeles Plan— <i>Francis</i>	98
Significant Developments in Educational Surveying— <i>Ayres</i>	104
The Thirtieth Man— <i>Finley</i>	111
Definiteness and Compulsion in Education— <i>Yocum</i>	114
Manners and Morals: Our Problem— <i>Carmali</i>	118
Scouting as an Educational Asset— <i>West</i>	122
The National Morality Codes Competition— <i>Fairchild</i>	129

ROUND TABLES

I

ROUND TABLE OF STATE AND COUNTY SUPERINTENDENTS:

How Not to Train Rural Teachers— <i>Hyatt</i>	135
Rural Supervision in the Mountains of the South— <i>Burkes</i>	138
The Status and Need of Rural Supervision— <i>Monahan</i>	141

II

ROUND TABLE OF SUPERINTENDENTS OF CITIES WITH A POPULATION OF OVER 250,000:

A First Step in Establishing the Six-Three-Three Organization— <i>Weet</i>	146
The Determination of Educational Policies— <i>Snyder</i>	152
The Education of Foreigners for American Citizenship— <i>Crist</i>	155

III

ROUND TABLE OF SUPERINTENDENTS OF CITIES WITH A POPULATION BETWEEN 25,000 AND 250,000:

	PAGE
Community Activities as a Means of Motivation— <i>Hunter</i>	159
Teaching Tenure— <i>Keating</i>	165
A Study of Deviate Children: The Problem of Delinquency and Subnormality — <i>Jones</i>	168
Vacation-Club Work— <i>Beveridge</i>	170
Short-Unit Industrial Courses— <i>King</i>	173

IV

ROUND TABLE OF SUPERINTENDENTS OF CITIES WITH A POPULATION UNDER 25,000:

Reliable Measurements of a School System— <i>Wilson</i>	177
The Ethical as the Essential Factor in Training for Efficient Citizenship in a Democracy— <i>Cookson</i>	179

V

ROUND TABLE OF DIRECTORS OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH:

The Two Phases of Educational Research and Efficiency in the Public Schools — <i>Melcher</i>	183
Standardization of Teachers' Examinations— <i>Courtis</i>	188
Improving Instruction thru Educational Measurement— <i>Ballou</i>	196

VI

ROUND TABLE OF COMPULSORY EDUCATION, SCHOOL CENSUS, AND CHILD WELFARE:

Does a Strict Enforcement of the Compulsory-Education Law Assist Teachers and Supervisors in Their Work?— <i>Shallow</i>	204
<i>Hervey</i>	207

SUPPLEMENTARY LIST OF ACTIVE MEMBERS 211

DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE

DETROIT MEETING, FEBRUARY 22-25, 1916

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

FIRST DAY

EVENING SESSION—TUESDAY, FEBRUARY 22, 1916

The Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association met in the Arcadia Auditorium, Detroit, Mich., at 8:00 P.M., with President M. P. Shawkey, state superintendent of schools, Charleston, W.Va., in the chair.

After music by the Central High School Orchestra, Roy Ellis, director, the session opened with an invocation by Rev. Charles Henry Williams, D.D., pastor, Second Congregational Church, Oberlin, Ohio.

Addresses of welcome were given by Charles E. Chadsey, superintendent of schools, Detroit, Mich., and Fred L. Keeler, state superintendent of public instruction, Lansing, Mich., to which response was made by Francis G. Blair, state superintendent of public instruction, Springfield, Ill.

After music by the Eastern High School Quartet, consisting of Howard Parks, Virgil Rochte, George MacLaughlin, and William Joy, Nicholas Murray Butler, president, Columbia University, New York, N.Y., presented an address entitled "What Is Going on in the World."

President Shawkey announced the following committees:

COMMITTEE ON NOMINATIONS

R. B. Teitrick, deputy state superintendent of public instruction, Harrisburg, Pa.
Henry Snyder, superintendent of schools, Jersey City, N.J.
Joseph Rosier, superintendent of schools, Fairmont, W.Va.
Ellis U. Graff, superintendent of schools, Omaha, Nebr.
Henry A. Davee, state superintendent of public instruction, Helena, Mont.

COMMITTEE ON RESOLUTIONS

Calvin N. Kendall, state commissioner of education, Trenton, N.J.
Edward F. Buchner, professor of education and philosophy, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Md.
J. A. C. Chandler, superintendent of schools, Richmond, Va.
Franklin B. Dyer, superintendent of schools, Boston, Mass.
William S. Sutton, dean, Department of Education, University of Texas, Austin, Tex.

SECOND DAY

MORNING SESSION—WEDNESDAY, FEBRUARY 23, 1916

The meeting was called to order by President Shawkey at 9:30 A.M., in Arcadia Auditorium.

The following program was presented:

"The Ford Idea in Education"—Samuel S. Marquis, Sociological Department, Ford Motor Company, Detroit, Mich.

Debate: "The Best Organization for American Schools Is a Plan Which Shall Divide These Schools into Six Years of Elementary Training and Six Years of Secondary Training"—Charles H. Judd, director, School of Education, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill., affirmative; Carroll G. Pearse, president, State Normal School, Milwaukee, Wis., negative.

"Greetings"—David B. Johnson, president, National Education Association, Rock Hill, S.C.

AFTERNOON SESSION—WEDNESDAY, FEBRUARY 23, 1916

The meeting was called to order in Arcadia Auditorium by President Shawkey, at 2:00 P.M., and the following program was presented:

Cantata: "Walrus and the Carpenter"—Chorus of three hundred grade-school children; Thomas Chivers, director; Esther White, accompanist.

"The Public School and the New American Spirit"—J. George Becht, executive secretary, State Board of Education, Harrisburg, Pa.

"Functions of Boards of School Control"—Ellwood P. Cubberley, professor of education, Leland Stanford Junior University, Stanford University, Cal. This paper as read constitutes chap. ix of the author's book on *Public School Administration* (Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston, Mass., 1916). For this reason it will not appear in this volume.

"The Superintendent as the Layman Sees Him"—Thomas W. Churchill, president, Board of Education, New York, N.Y.

"Relation of a Member of a Board of Education to the School System"—O. M. Plummer, director, Board of Education, Portland, Ore.

"To Whom Is the Board of Education Responsible?"—Albert E. Winship, editor, *Journal of Education*, Boston, Mass.

EVENING SESSION—WEDNESDAY, FEBRUARY 23, 1916

Central High School

At this time, the students of the Central High School presented a Shakespearean review entitled "The Passing Show of 1616," in which were introduced various selections from the plays of Shakespeare, as follows:

Hamlet's Address to the Players; Petruchio Is Breaking the Spirit of Katherine; A Scene from *The Tempest*; The Dance of the Fairies in *Midsummer-Night's Dream*; Caesar's Ghost Appears to Brutus, from *Julius Caesar*; Ophelia's Mad Scene, from *Hamlet*; The Choice of the Caskets, *Merchant of Venice*; Touchstone, Celia, and Rosalind in the Forest of Arden, *As You Like It*.

THIRD DAY

MORNING SESSION—THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 24, 1916

The meeting was called to order in Arcadia Auditorium, at 9:30 A.M., with President Shawkey in the chair.

The following program was presented:

"Some Suggestions for Improving the Rural-School Curricula"—G. C. Creelman, president, Ontario Agricultural College, Guelph, Ontario, Canada.

Joint discussion: "The Minimum Essentials versus the Differentiated Course of Study in the Seventh and Eighth Grades"—Lotus D. Coffman, professor of education, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn.; John D. Shoop, superintendent of schools, Chicago, Ill.; William C. Bagley, director, School of Education, University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill.; David Snedden, commissioner of education, Boston, Mass.

The annual business meeting followed the program.

The first order of business was the report of the Committee on Revision and Extension of the Work of the Department of Superintendence. This committee was appointed in accordance with a resolution adopted at the Cincinnati meeting. Charles E. Chadsey, superintendent of schools, Detroit, Mich., chairman of the committee, made the report, which was adopted, as follows:

The committee understands that it was the purpose of the resolution under which it was appointed that it should consider the clarifying of the work of the department and

make such suggestion for an extension of that work thru the year as would gather together and organize professional information of significant value in the work of administrative and supervising officers and would codify the tenets of this department touching the rights and duties of such administrative and supervisory officers in their several relations with their community, institution, and board of trustees, to the end that this selected information and professionally approved doctrine might aid more effectively these officers in meeting and solving their local problems. The committee recommends for your consideration the following:

The Department of Superintendence is one of the several departments of the National Education Association. As a department it is concerned with defining the nature of its activities in a way that will avoid the confusing of its work with that of the other departments of the general Association.

The main constructive lines of the activities of this department are the consideration of:

1. Courses of study that will meet the needs of communities.
2. Enumeration, classification, and promotion of pupils.
3. The certification of the qualifications of teachers and the methods of securing their appointments.
4. Proper school supplies and the mode of securing such supplies, including textbooks and apparatus.
5. Plans for school building.
6. The formation of school districts with regard to population, opportunities, and interrelations.
7. The methods of raising and apportioning school moneys.
8. The relations of superintendents to boards of education.

The committee recommends that there be appointed at each meeting of the department a committee on one, or committees on more than one, of the above, or co-ordinate formative lines, the members of these committees to represent typical parts of the country and to have as their chief object the bringing before the department reports on comparative conditions, industrial, cultural, etc., and information on what is being accomplished in some of the most progressive schools, and that at least one session of a department meeting be devoted to hearing and discussing such reports.

The committee further recommends that the Executive Committee of the National Education Association of the United States be requested to ask the Board of Directors to make an appropriation of \$500.00 to meet the expenses during the current year of such committees as may be appointed under these resolutions.

CHARLES E. CHADSEY, of Michigan
 JAMES M. GREEN, of New Jersey
 NATHAN C. SCHAEFFER, of Pennsylvania
 BEN BLEWETT, of Missouri
 WILLIAM H. MAXWELL, of New York
Committee

The nominating committee reported as follows:

For *President*—John D. Shoop, superintendent of schools, Chicago, Ill.

For *First Vice-President*—Fred L. Keeler, state superintendent of public instruction, Lansing, Mich.

For *Second Vice-President*—John Dietrich, superintendent of schools, Helena, Mont.

For *Secretary*—Margaret T. Maguire, supervising principal of Washington School, Philadelphia, Pa.

The persons named were unanimously elected as officers for the coming year.

The Committee on Resolutions presented the following report, which was adopted:

1. We affirm that every child in the United States of America has definite educational needs for which adequate provision should be made by proper legislative enactment and by ample resources for support. In so far as the public, the superintendents, and the teachers are now meeting these needs, the American school system will be able to fulfil the larger educational obligations of an expanding modern democracy.

We believe that American public education now offers substantial hope for the realization of the fundamental principles of liberty and humanity which will alone support a righteous nationalism and internationalism, by which peace, justice, and progress will be guaranteed.

We believe that a new international note should be sounded in our educational program, calling upon us to cultivate mutual understandings and interdependence among the peoples of the world, and to this end we recommend that our national government adopt the policy of appointing educational attachés to our embassies and legations in foreign countries.

2. The complete unification and Americanization of all our people is a necessity. In view of the temporary cessation of immigration, the present is a particularly opportune time for the extension of educational agencies that will effectively prepare immigrant children and adults for the rights and duties of American citizenship.

We recommend that the president of the department be authorized to appoint a special committee to co-operate with the United States Bureau of Education and all other agencies in realizing this goal.

3. We rejoice over the progress in state, and especially in national, legislation which promises to guarantee the protection of children from the ill effect incident to undesirable kinds of labor at the time when future public welfare demands that they should be in school.

4. We reaffirm our approval of federal aid to vocational education as proposed in the Smith-Hughes bill now before Congress. We believe that the end to be served is so important and so diversified as to require a federal board, the members of which shall be educational representatives of the interests concerned and shall give their undivided attention to the administration of the act.

5. We commend most heartily the activities of the United States Bureau of Education and its helpful co-operation in the development of education in all parts of the country. We recommend to the Congress of the United States a generous increase in appropriations for the Bureau in order that it may be able to respond to the multiplied demands thruout the nation for its services.

6. We reaffirm our belief that a small board of education is the most efficient instrument for the administration of the affairs of public schools.

7. We reaffirm our belief in the value of a bureau of research in connection with the superintendent's office. We also commend the properly conducted, sympathetic, and constructive school survey as an aid in the solution of school problems. We look forward, however, to the time when every school system will be so equipped in its own regular official and teaching staff as to conduct a continuous survey from within.

8. We affirm that the overcrowding of the elementary schools is a most serious defect, requiring, as it does, the individual teacher to be responsible for the instruction and the discipline of too many pupils. We believe that it is the part of educational economy to provide as speedily as possible for the abolition of this practice.

9. In view of the progress that has been made in raising the standards of preparation for teaching, it is recommended that school boards and superintendents thruout the country adopt, as soon as possible, for their guidance in the selection of elementary and secondary teachers and supervisors, the highest standards now in force in our more progressive states.

10. In order to secure more efficient teaching we reaffirm our belief in the necessity of helpful, sympathetic, and constructive supervision of schools, both city and country.

11. We reaffirm our belief in the importance of encouraging all agencies designed to promote the physical well-being of children. We note with satisfaction the increase in the co-operation between health and school authorities.

We strongly favor physical training that will develop mind and character as well as body, but we are emphatically opposed to the introduction of compulsory military training into the high schools of the country before mature consideration of the educational questions involved therein.

We suggest the appointment by the incoming president of the department of a committee of nine to study and to report upon the proper place for and purpose of military education of American youth, and in case it is appointed we recommend that the Executive Committee request the Board of Directors of the National Education Association to provide for the necessary expenses of this committee.

12. The country child is entitled to as good a school as the city child. He should have a professionally trained teacher, who is paid an adequate salary. The rural schools should have good supervision. We believe the county superintendent of schools, as well as the city superintendent, should be chosen solely on account of academic and professional qualifications, executive ability, and good character. We are convinced that his selection should be determined by some method other than that of popular election, which is usually influenced by considerations other than educational. We further recommend the consolidation of rural schools wherever practicable.

13. We express our appreciation of the action of the various railroad associations which gave to the members of the department the benefit of the open rate.

14. We express our appreciation of the hospitality extended to the department by Superintendent Chadsey, his colleagues, the citizens, and the various organizations of Detroit.

15. We extend the thanks of the department to President Shawkey for the excellent program prepared for this meeting.

16. We express our appreciation for the many courtesies extended by the hotel managements.

17. We thank the representatives of the press for the excellent reports of the meetings of the department.

Invitations for the 1917 meeting were presented by Boston, Mass.; Kansas City, Mo.; Milwaukee, Wis.; Minneapolis, Minn.; and Omaha, Nebr.

Five minutes was allowed for the presentation from each city, and it was voted that on successive ballots the city receiving the fewest votes should be withdrawn. On the first ballot, Boston received 305; Kansas City, 336; Milwaukee, 63; Minneapolis, 47; and Omaha, 163. This dropped Minneapolis automatically and Milwaukee asked to withdraw. A second ballot was ordered, but after the vote for Boston had been taken and before the vote for Kansas City could be counted, Boston withdrew and moved that Kansas City be made the meeting-place for 1917 by acclamation, which motion was carried.

AFTERNOON SESSION—THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 24, 1916

The afternoon was given to round tables, as follows:

(A) ROUND TABLE OF STATE AND COUNTY SUPERINTENDENTS

Chairman—Carl G. Schulz, state superintendent of education, St. Paul, Minn.

"How Much and What Kind of Supervision?"—C. P. Cary, state superintendent of public instruction, Madison, Wis.

"How Not to Train Rural Teachers"—Edward Hyatt, state superintendent of public instruction, Sacramento, Cal.

"Rural Supervision in the Mountains of the South"—Jennie Burkes, county superintendent, Claiborne County, Cumberland Gap, Tenn.

"The Status and Need of Rural Supervision"—A. C. Monahan, specialist, United States Bureau of Education, Washington, D.C.

(B) ROUND TABLE OF SUPERINTENDENTS OF CITIES WITH A POPULATION OF OVER 250,000

Chairman—J. M. Gwinn, superintendent of schools, New Orleans, La.

"A First Step in Establishing the Six-Three-Three Organization"—Herbert S. Weet, superintendent of schools, Rochester, N.Y.

"The Determination of Educational Policies"—Henry Snyder, superintendent of schools, Jersey City, N.J.

"Textbooks—Principles Governing Their Selection"—Randall J. Condon, superintendent of schools, Cincinnati, Ohio.

"The Education of Foreigners for American Citizenship"—Raymond F. Crist, deputy commissioner of naturalization, United States Department of Labor, Washington, D.C.

"Adaptation of Schools to Varying Needs"—Ben Blewett, superintendent of instruction, public schools, St. Louis, Mo.

(C) ROUND TABLE OF SUPERINTENDENTS OF CITIES WITH A POPULATION BETWEEN 25,000 AND 250,000

Chairman—Ira B. Bush, superintendent of schools, Erie, Pa.

"Community Activities as a Means of Motivation"—Fred M. Hunter, superintendent of schools, Lincoln, Nebr.

"Teaching Tenure"—John F. Keating, superintendent of schools, Pueblo, Colo.

"A Study of Deviate Children—The Problem of Delinquency and Subnormality"—C. Edward Jones, superintendent of schools, Albany, N.Y.

"Vacation Club Work"—J. H. Beveridge, superintendent of schools, Council Bluffs, Iowa.

"Short-Unit Industrial Courses"—M. B. King, Department of Public Instruction, Harrisburg, Pa.

(D) ROUND TABLE OF SUPERINTENDENTS OF CITIES WITH A POPULATION UNDER 25,000

Chairman—John Milne, superintendent of schools, Albuquerque, N.M.

"Effective Constructive Economy in Supervision"—W. E. Hoover, superintendent of schools, Fargo, N.D.

"Effective and Economical Supervision in Small Cities"—Walter S. Deffenbaugh, Division of School Administration, United States Bureau of Education, Washington, D.C.
 "Reliable Measurements of a School System"—Otis G. Wilson, superintendent of schools, Fairmont, W.Va.

"The Ethical as the Essential Factor in Training for Efficient Citizenship in a Democracy"—Charles W. Cookson, superintendent of schools, Troy, Ohio.

"The School's Responsibility in the New Nationalism"—W. E. Albig, superintendent of schools, Bellevue, Pa.

(E) ROUND TABLE OF DIRECTORS OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

Chairman—Frank W. Ballou, director, Department of Educational Investigation and Measurement, public schools, Boston, Mass.

"The Two Phases of Educational Research and Efficiency in the Public Schools"—George Melcher, director, Bureau of Research and Efficiency, Kansas City, Mo.

"Standardization of Teachers' Examinations"—Stuart A. Curtis, supervisor of educational research, Detroit, Mich.

"Comments on Ten Intelligence Tests Applied to Ten Thousand Children in Grades V-VIII Inclusive"—Albert Shiels, director, Division of Reference Research, Department of Education, New York, N.Y.

"Improving Instruction thru Educational Measurement"—Frank W. Ballou, director, Department of Educational Investigation and Measurement, public schools, Boston, Mass.

(F) ROUND TABLE OF COMPULSORY EDUCATION, SCHOOL CENSUS, AND CHILD WELFARE

Chairman—John W. Davis, director, Bureau of Attendance, New York, N.Y.

"The Control and Supervision of Field Workers"—Henry J. Gideon, chief, Bureau of Compulsory Education, Philadelphia, Pa. In the absence of Mr. Gideon, this paper was read by Howard W. Nudd, director, New York Public Education Association, New York, N.Y.

Discussion: R. L. Cooley, director of continuation schools, Milwaukee, Wis.; Howard W. Nudd, director, New York Public Education Association, New York, N.Y.

"Does a Strict Enforcement of the Compulsory-Education Law Assist Teachers and Supervising Officials in Their Work? (a) Increased Assistance; (b) Reduction of Retardation; (c) Conservation of the Nervous Energy of the Teacher and Supervising Officials"—Edward B. Shallow, associate city superintendent of schools, New York, N.Y.

Discussion: A. B. Rhett, superintendent of schools, Charleston, S.C.; M. C. Potter, superintendent of schools, Milwaukee, Wis.; Charles E. Chadsey, superintendent of schools, Detroit, Mich.

"The Policy of Free Education in a Democracy Requires a Federal Child-Labor Law, Stringent and Strictly Enforced State Statutes as Regards Compulsory Education, and a Continuing School Census"—James D. Sullivan, chief, Compulsory Attendance Division, New York State Department of Education, Albany, N.Y. In the absence of Mr. Sullivan, this paper was read by Charles F. Wheelock, assistant commissioner of secondary education, New York State Department of Education, Albany, N.Y.

Discussion: Ben Blewett, superintendent of instruction, public schools, St. Louis, Mo.; Herbert S. Weet, superintendent of schools, Rochester, N.Y.; Henry Snyder, superintendent of schools, Jersey City, N.J.; Henry D. Hervey, superintendent of schools, Auburn, N.Y.

EVENING SESSION—THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 24, 1916

SCHOOLMASTER-GOVERNORS' EVENING

The meeting was called to order in Arcadia Auditorium by President Shawkey at 8:00 P.M., and the following program was given:

Chorus: The Pirates of Penzance—Boys' Chorus, Northwestern High School; Clara E. Starr, director.

Introduction of President-elect John D. Shoop, superintendent of schools, Chicago, Ill.

Address—Woodbridge N. Ferris, Governor of Michigan.

Address—Martin G. Brumbaugh, Governor of Pennsylvania.

Address—Frank B. Willis, Governor of Ohio.

FOURTH DAY

MORNING SESSION—FRIDAY, FEBRUARY 25, 1916

The meeting was called to order at 9:30 A.M. by President Shawkey in Arcadia Auditorium.

The following program was given:

"Booker T. Washington—An Appreciation"—O. T. Corson, editor, *Ohio Educational Monthly*, Columbus, Ohio.

"High Points in the Los Angeles Plan"—J. H. Francis, superintendent of schools, Los Angeles, Cal.

"Significant Developments in Educational Surveying"—Leonard P. Ayres, director, Division of Education, Russell Sage Foundation, New York, N.Y.

"Report of Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education"—Clarence D. Kingsley, high-school inspector, Boston, Mass.

AFTERNOON SESSION—FRIDAY, FEBRUARY 25, 1916

The meeting was called to order by President Shawkey in the Arcadia Auditorium at 2:00 P.M.

The following program was presented:

"The Thirtieth Man"—John H. Finley, president, University of the State of New York, Albany, N.Y.

"Definiteness and Compulsion in Education"—A. Duncan Yocum, professor of educational research and practice, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pa.

"Manners and Morals—Our Problem"—Alice M. Carmalt, assistant professor of education, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, Pa.

"Scouting as an Educational Asset"—James E. West, chief scout executive, Boy Scouts of America, New York, N.Y.

"The National Morality Codes Competition"—Milton Fairchild, chairman, Executive Committee, National Institution for Moral Instruction, Washington, D.C.

E. C. WARRINER, *Secretary*

PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS

ADDRESS OF WELCOME

FRED L. KEELER, STATE SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION,
LANSING, MICH.

The state of Michigan deeply appreciates the distinction this gathering brings to her. Michigan's hospitality is extended with special joy to a meeting of the nation's educators, and it is with keenest pleasure I bid you welcome.

Many of you are not strangers to Michigan. To many of you this meeting is a home-coming rather than a visit to a strange land. It is hardly possible to name a city in the United States, certainly not in the West, that does not have teachers and educational leaders who were trained in Michigan. Our state was the first state in the Union to organize a complete public-school system from kindergarten to university. For two generations Ann Arbor and Ypsilanti stood out as the educational centers of the West. We are proud that the newer states have found much in the Michigan system worthy of adoption, and we rejoice over the marvelous progress our sister-states are making in promoting public education.

The people of Michigan have always maintained a broad view of the purpose of education, and with characteristic liberality their educational institutions are open, not only to the citizens of our own state, but to any person from any quarter of the globe who wishes to come. We believe that we do most for ourselves when we do much for others. And there is abundant reason why we should hold this view. Michigan is great because she has done much for others and because she has done much for herself. But she stands ready always to acknowledge that she has also received much.

Michigan was carved from that great empire, the Northwest Territory, which was created by the Ordinance of 1787—a document which ranks with the Declaration of Independence and the federal Constitution. The Ordinance states that “there shall be neither slavery nor involuntary servitude in said territory.” That provision was drafted by that greatest statesman of the South, who belongs, not only to America, but to the whole world—Thomas Jefferson. The Ordinance also provides that “religion, morality, and knowledge being necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind, schools and the means of education shall forever be encouraged.” This statement expresses the sentiment of our whole country today. That sentiment founded New England, and New England gave it to us. Indeed, the very author of the Ordinance of 1787 was Nathan Dane, of Massachusetts. It appears, then, that the founding of the Northwest Territory was conceived in the best thought of the North and the South.

Not only have we received ideas from other sections of the country, but we have received men with ideas. Each state of the Union is permitted to place in the Capitol at Washington the statues of two of its favorite sons. Michigan has placed there the statues of Lewis Cass and Zach Chandler. Both of these men came to us from New England. John D. Pierce, our first state superintendent of public instruction—the first state superintendent in this country—whom we regard as the founder of the educational system of Michigan, came to us from New England. James B. Angell, for forty years president of the University of Michigan, came to us from New England. Dr. Angell is now the president emeritus of the great institution to which he has given his life. A great educator, a great scholar, a great diplomat, above all a great teacher, we are proud today to honor him as the first citizen of our state.

Five New England states have given us superintendents of public instruction. Each New England state has given us a governor, and some of them two. President Jackson made a young fellow from Kentucky governor of Michigan Territory before he was out of his teens. This was done much against our protest. But of course we decided that the only thing to do was to agree with Jackson and we gave the boy a chance. After awhile we liked the boy so well that we adopted him, and when Michigan became a state we elected Steven T. Mason our first governor. It is perhaps noteworthy that up to the present time Michigan has chosen only one

governor who was a native son. This policy, I must say, has not the unanimous approval of the native sons.

I repeat, we believe both in giving and in receiving. There are more judges on the federal bench today who received their training at Ann Arbor than from any other university in the country. There are today twenty-six members of the national Congress who received their training at Ann Arbor—more than from any other university in the whole country. And while we are training these leaders in national affairs, we are richly rewarded in the men we take in from the outside. Several of the superintendencies of our larger cities are held by men from other states. Three years ago, when the city of Detroit was searching for a man to take charge of her great system of schools, she went west and brought home from Denver, Colo., our present superintendent, Charles E. Chadsey.

The most American thing in America is our public-school system. Nowhere is the work of public education better illustrated than in Michigan. Our state university, with over seven thousand students from every country in the world; our normal-school system, with more than four thousand students; our agricultural college, with an enrolment of two thousand students; a group of splendid denominational colleges, with two thousand students; our public schools with over five hundred thousand children in attendance—all these testify to our conviction that the safety of our country demands that "schools and the means of education shall forever be encouraged." We tax ourselves to support our educational establishment, not, primarily, to give the young people certain advantages. We regard our tax as an investment which richly repays us in the quality of the citizens we get to take part in our democracy. We believe that the most expensive liability a state can have is an ignorant citizen. When I hear the reckless attack made at times by hostile critics of our schools, I wonder what counsel gives them inspiration. That our schools are not perfect, no one will deny. But when I think how young the institution is, and what prodigious burdens have been heaped upon it all at once, and when I see with my own eyes with what marvelous skill the schools of the country discharge their responsibility, I declare to you that the American public school challenges the admiration of the whole world. A little while ago I visited the schools of Calumet, that wonderful mining camp in northern Michigan. I found there in one schoolroom boys and girls representing thirty different nationalities. The wall before them was draped with the stars and stripes. I saw the boys and girls rise and salute *their* flag. And then in a reverent spirit they sang:

*My Country, 'tis of thee,
Sweet land of liberty,
Of thee I sing.*

I have heard our national anthem sung many a time before, but since that day it has had for me a new meaning. Go into the schools of Detroit

some evening and you will find there ten thousand men and women who, at public expense, are being given the fundamentals of an education. Many of these are foreigners who are being taught our language and who are being taught the meaning of American citizenship.

My friends, I will close as I began: Michigan appreciates the honor of entertaining this great meeting of the nation's educational leaders. We welcome you the more because you are engaged in a work close to the hearts of the people of Michigan—a work we regard as the most important business in our country. We welcome you because your presence will be an inspiration to us this week, this year, and the years to come. In behalf of the sterling citizenship of our state; in behalf of twenty thousand teachers—the most enthusiastic, loyal, and devoted teachers that ever blessed a great state; in behalf of one million of the most splendid boys and girls; in behalf of the superintendents and teachers of Michigan here present, I extend to you a hand of welcome.

RESPONSE TO ADDRESS OF WELCOME

FRANCIS G. BLAIR, STATE SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION,
SPRINGFIELD, ILL.

Speaking for the members of this great Association, I cannot assume that your welcome extends any farther than to us as a body of men and women engaged in a great work. I cannot assume that your welcome extends to the ideas which we bring, to the educational programs and resolutions which we shall here formulate. This fact is not mentioned as a matter of complaint, but rather to raise a question which strikes at the very spirit of American life. It is charged that the people of the United States have scant regard for the opinions of their leaders in any field of thought, that they treat with indifference or contempt the opinions of experts, that they resent authority, and show little respect for law. I cannot, of my own knowledge or experience, assert that this attitude is peculiar to America, but some who are widely traveled and deeply learned in the affairs of nations declare that nowhere else in the world are the leaders of thought—the experts—held in such light regard as in this great democracy.

In the face of this great world-crisis, it is becoming in us as the leaders of education in this great democracy to review seriously our educational creeds and philosophies to see whether this gross national defect is in any way chargeable as an outcome of our educational system.

Of course, some of it results directly from the very form of our government. Its cornerstone is the Declaration of Independence, whose glowing lines declare "that all men are created equal and are endowed with certain inalienable rights." No one who believes in the true spirit of a democracy will in any way try to tarnish the luster of those shining, glorious words,

but he will stupidly err if in accepting the doctrine that all men are created equal he concludes therefrom that the judgments of all men are equally trustworthy upon all questions. No one will lightly cast a doubt upon the soundness of this doctrine of equality in so far as it relates to equality of opportunity. The cynic may deny it and the unfortunate may doubt it, but the man of faith, the patriot, will ever hold it as a sound and precious truth, altho he knows that equality of opportunity does not mean equality of condition or attainment. This gospel of equality of opportunity is the modern Jacob's ladder on which are seen ascending and descending, not angels, but boys and girls, men and women. Who are these that are descending? They are the children and grandchildren and great-grandchildren of those men and women who heard the call of opportunity and who, thru heroic effort and merit, climbed to the very top, honored by the people as worthy leaders, and blessed as noble benefactors, but whose offspring lost the gleam of the star and the call of opportunity, and foolishly assumed that achievement and merit can be transmitted from father to son, and stupidly erred in thinking that in America positions of social and civic preferment are hereditary. So down they come, some of them reluctantly, some of them resentfully, but nevertheless they descend to get a new point of view and a new start. And who are these who are ascending? They are those who have caught the glint of the star and have heard the call. Here is a lad whose father but yesterday was a workman on the section. This is the son of a fruit peddler. And this one caught his vision and his zeal between the handles of a plow. These, all, are the children of high endeavor, the sons and daughters of American opportunity. Who, with all of its inconsistencies, with all of its disappointments, with all of its failures, would draw a curtain of doubt and discouragement over this glowing ideal?

But while something of this national infirmity which we are considering may spring from this foundation doctrine of freedom and equality, we may discover if we look farther that much of it finds its origin in our educational creeds and philosophies.

At about the same time that we were writing the governmental theories of Rousseau into our Declaration of Independence we were writing his educational ideas into our systems of education. But it took over a hundred years for his theories of extreme individualism, of revolt against authority in education, to exert any marked influence upon the prevailing methods in education. But reinforced by the sweet and gentle teachings of Pestalozzi and Froebel and systematized by Herbart the spirit of this great revolt against the ancient doctrines of authority and discipline and obedience has swept into and pervaded the entire body of our system of public education.

No one who knows will undertake to deny that this great change has brought into public education a spirit of sympathy which it sadly needed.

It changed the center of gravity of the educational solar system. It placed the child and his interests at the center, and made all other matters—educational theories, courses of study, and methods of instruction—revolve about him and take their meaning from him. It breathed into the nostrils of an austere and rigid form the breath of life and it became a living soul.

All of this the most conservative will admit. They will go even farther and agree that this great rebirth in educational doctrines and procedure has added greatly to the strength of our democracy. But there are many, who are in no sense educational heretics, asking seriously whether we have not carried this spirit of individualism too far. There are those who are not wedded to the old régime in education who feel that modern society has suffered a great loss by this extreme reaction against authority and discipline and obedience.

No one will deny that every child has certain inborn possibilities and potentialities which must be allowed to unfold according to the law of his own nature, but one may very properly question whether any individual, so developed, can live and work with his fellows, can play the part of a man in the affairs of a great nation, unless he has learned somewhere along the line that beyond his individual needs and desires there lie powerful social and civic forces and laws which will add to or subtract from his personal power and influence as he works with them or against them. No one desires a return of the old strait-jacket system of discipline. Everyone rejoices in the new freedom which has come to the child in the new methods of organization and control, but many thoughtful people are asking whether the movement has not gone too far, whether our children are not suffering a distinct loss in character thru the decay of obedience to rule and order, whether it is not breeding a weakness in the very quality of citizenship.

Everyone wants the child to think out for himself everything that lies within his power. Everyone wants him to doubt, to question, to experiment until he finds a satisfactory answer. No one wants him to accept the opinions and commands of others with unthinking docility. No one asks that he stultify his own intelligence and smother his own will in servile, stupid obedience to another. But many believe profoundly that the greatest respect for authority is compatible with the highest degree of intelligence, that the strongest will is capable of the most instant and complete obedience to the will of others, that the very greatest degree of freedom comes only to him who recognizes and obeys established law and authority.

It is very right that we should hold up before the youth of this country the opportunity that everyone has to become a leader in some field of endeavor. It furnishes a worthy ideal. It points out a definite star to which all may hitch their wagon. But we shall err greatly if we do not make it clear that there can be no leaders unless there are followers; that an army made up wholly of generals would be an impossible army. We must show that no one can lead unless he has learned how to follow. We

must never lose sight of the fact that this great economic, social, and civic democracy demands group-thinking and group-acting; that its very safety depends upon the power of its citizens to fix their thought harmoniously upon a common aim, to concentrate their effort solidly toward a common end.

I do not want to be misunderstood. I am not alarmed by every shadow cast by the clouds of war. I refuse to become panic-stricken at the sight of the very clouds themselves. I do not share that feeling of worshipful awe which some good people are exhibiting toward this new international god called Efficiency. How in the midst of this great test of the nations that word has been flung round the world! How it has been blazoned upon the very sky! A gentleman addressing a large audience in one of our cosmopolitan cities declared that unless the United States could effect thru its educational system the same degree of economic and governmental efficiency possessed by some of the European nations, Ichabod would be written across our door and the light of our great democracy would go out forever. Not a few of us will sympathize with the statement of the speaker who replied that rather would he contemplate the destruction of American democracy thru its liberty-loving, wasteful, blundering incompetence than assist in compelling it to that fatal form of efficiency which is driving some European nations on to their certain ruin. Not one of us desires that the American government shall become so compactly articulate that like an ivory ball it shall take its directions and angles of reflections from a cue held in one man's hand.

But we shall be untrue to the sacred trust committed to us as leaders in public education if we do not weigh carefully the meaning of that great word efficiency in its relation both to our educational system and to our government. We may discover that a very great deal of the thing which that word signifies can be appropriated by us with profit to our schools and to our nation. We may discover that thru the shifting of the emphasis in some of our theories of education and thought, the redirection of some of our methods of instruction and control, we shall attain that kind of efficiency which is the essence of a real democracy—individual freedom with respect for authority, personal independence with loyal acknowledgement of leadership, the greatest degree of intellectual and civic liberty, joined with the most profound respect for law and order.

WHAT IS GOING ON IN THE WORLD

NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER, PRESIDENT, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY,
NEW YORK, N. Y.

[Abstract from Newspaper Reports]

Have you really considered how profoundly every one of us must be affected by what is going on in the world? The day that marked the opening of the present great war in Europe marked also the opening of the great

struggle to determine whether our present civilization is to survive or whether we are to enter on a period of social retrogression which will pull us back into even lower depths than those from which we have climbed.

At the present time, strange and unfamiliar conditions confront us. So many things that we thought settled forever are uncertain; so many things that we thought we had put behind us are staring us in the face; what we have longed for and prayed for now seems impossible. The times are so grave, the disturbance of settled order is so severe, the break with advancing civilization is so complete, that no man dare speak with confidence or dogmatism.

And it was all so unexpected! In June, 1914, I was in Paris, with one hundred representative men of all the great nations of the earth. They spoke of the multiplying evidences of a new era when all the nations of the earth would be friends, leaving the world to give all its thought to social betterment and civic improvement. And even as we were speaking the thunder clouds were gathering for the greatest storm in history!

We often read of great crises as if they were specimens in a museum. We speak of the fall of Rome, of the Renaissance, of the French Revolution, of American constitution-making, almost as if they were things apart from us. Unless I am mistaken, we are living even now in one of the great world-epochs. As I read history, there have been only two eras of significance equal to this. Five hundred years before Christ, the battles of Thermopylae and Salamis determined that Greek democratic individualism rather than Oriental collectivism of race, religion, caste, and fixed authority, should be the dominant note of government in the Western world. The second great crisis came when Charles Martel drove back the Arab hordes at Tours, thus deciding that Western civilization should be not Mohammedan but Christian. From that day to this, Western civilization has not had so much at stake as in the present war. Happy are we to be neutral, but we cannot be indifferent or withhold our moral judgment when everything that we hold dear is in the melting-pot. With the opening of the European war there began a new epoch in the history of civilization. On the issue of that war depends the existence of this civilization of which we are so proud.

What has the world been doing these past one thousand years? It has been building nations that sought to be ends in themselves. This nation-building began with the downfall of the Roman Empire, and in this struggle of men to express themselves in terms of the nation we have the clew to the history of the past ten centuries. We have erected the nation into something superior to moral rules and obligations. It is this false patriotism—a patriotism that makes the nation superior to moral law—that is now singing hymns of hate. It is that narrow and unethical conception of nationalism that has brought Europe to the edge of ruin. If our

civilization is to continue, this war must be the Nemesis of that nationalism which regards the nation as an end in itself. I am convinced that the present war is the result of this perverted notion of nationalism. It is one of those volcanic outbursts in terms of nations which shows the disturbance within. It is a blind, unthinking fanaticism that is hurling the nations at each other's throats, and, when the horrors of war have been relegated to the past, it will be determined whether the great principle of nationality is to be a blessing or a curse.

What does it mean? Will it prove to be what the Greeks call a "katharsis," a purification or a cleansing of the spirit? Or does it mean that our children are to see the institutions of a thousand years dissolved like mist into elemental forms? The world may or may not learn the lesson of this great conflict. It depends on us, in great measure, to say whether it shall be ruinous, or whether it shall pave the way to more splendid things by reason of the terrible lessons that are waiting to be learned. Spencer said that when evolution reached its high mark, an involution or inevitable downward tendency would set in, and then would come another upward tendency. If we are unable to grasp the lesson of this war, we must be content to drift back. Shall we do that?

I am an incurable optimist. For my part, I have faith to believe that the world is going to profit by its present dire experiences, and that we are going forward to a time when men will live and work together regardless of the too restricted and too narrow views of nationality that prevailed in the past. I believe we are about to gain a new and a splendid conception of life and patriotism—a new internationalism such as the world has never seen. The great struggle of the nations is going to be a great purifier of thought—a stimulus to co-operation. Ultimately it will bring the world to a time when men will truly co-operate, when brotherly love will be a real, tangible thing and not a myth—a time when war will be a thing forever in the past.

Another great lesson of the war will be learned in terms of religion. This will come to pass when we shall cease to worship a tribal God, cease to be twentieth-century pagans, and shall learn to serve the one, the only God of all nations.

I like the saying of Bossuet: "Beware when God wipes out! It means He is getting ready to write!" It seems that the American nation, with all its acknowledged imperfections, has at this time a contribution to make to the world that will be epochal in its effect. We have learned, as the world may learn, that one nation may be made out of forty-eight nations. We have learned that people of diverse language, customs, and religions may dwell together in peace under one flag, provided each is given his due rights. We have developed great leaders whose thought and opinion all the world may well receive. We ask the nations of the world to take Washington and make him theirs; we ask them to take all our leaders

that have done so well in developing the principles of federated unity and follow them in the cause of the civilization of the world and the eternal betterment of mankind.

THE FORD IDEA IN EDUCATION

SAMUEL S. MARQUIS, SOCIOLOGICAL DEPARTMENT, FORD MOTOR COMPANY,
DETROIT, MICH.

The impression has somehow got abroad that Henry Ford is in the automobile business. It isn't true. Mr. Ford shoots about fifteen hundred cars out of the back door of his factory every day just to get rid of them. They are but the by-products of his real business, which is the making of men.

William Carey, cobbler and missionary, asked as to the nature of his business, said: "My business is extending the Kingdom of God, but I mend shoes in order to provide money to carry on my work." Mr. Ford's business is the making of men, and he manufactures automobiles on the side to defray the expenses of the main business.

Some people call the fifty-acre group of buildings out in Highland Park the Ford Factory. Well, it is that, but it is a great deal more. It is a school. Mr. Ford is more interested in men than in machines. He is before everything else interested in the education of his employees.

The Ford school at the present time has about twenty-five thousand pupils. It has fully twice that many more on the waiting list. Before very long people will be registering an application at the Ford school for their boys as soon as they are born, just as they are now doing at some of the more exclusive academies and colleges down east.

Any man can enter the Ford school, provided there is a vacancy, who is eighteen years of age and is out of employment. Married men are preferred to single, and boys with mothers to support are given a chance before those who have no one dependent upon them. The boy under twenty-two years of age with no one looking to him for support is not eligible for profit-sharing. It would be cheaper to admit him than the boy with someone dependent upon him for support; but Mr. Ford prefers the latter at five dollars per day to the former, because the money will do more good in meeting the needs of more people.

A prominent eastern manufacturer said to me recently:

There is no use trying to meet facts with theories. Mr. Ford has done for his men that which I said could not be done and ought not to be done, but he has done it, and it works to the benefit of all concerned, and that puts an end to the argument. I have come on to find out how he does it, for I want to do as nearly as I can the same things for my employees.

Mr. Ford has done in finance that which financial experts claimed was impossible. He has accomplished in mechanical lines that which trained

and experienced men said could not be accomplished. His one answer to the statement, "It can't be done," is to do it.

A young engineer, a graduate of one of our universities, said to me: "If Henry Ford had had a technical training, he would have known better than to have attempted to do some of the things he has done successfully." And the young man did not see the humor in his statement.

It is a good thing that once in a while some man with originality and courage, and unhampered by the traditions of the schools, confronts the mechanical, economic, and social problems of the world. Because there is a man of this kind out at the Ford is the reason why the impossible and the unexpected happen there so frequently.

When the Ford profit-sharing plan was announced, the Jeremiahs got busy. All sorts of dire things were about to happen. The labor market would be upset. Chaos would reign in the industrial world. Ford employees, made suddenly rich, would squander their wealth to the detriment of the community and the lasting injury of themselves. But nothing of the sort has happened. Things quite the contrary have come to pass.

When Mr. Ford made known his intention to give the man who had made a mistake a chance to come back, another howl went up. The city would be overrun with undesirables. Crime would increase. Men, it was asserted, would break into jail in order to get into the Ford. It didn't happen; and the reason why this did not happen, and the reason why Ford employees did not spend their money in a manner detrimental to themselves and to the community, and the reason why the labor market was not demoralized, and the reason why workmen in other factories did not throw down their tools and go on a strike, and the reason why all the other dreadful things predicted did not come to pass, was that along with the profit-sharing plan went a plan for the education of the working-men in thrift, honesty, sobriety, better housing, and better living generally—a plan that protected them and everybody else. The Ford idea in education was declared impossible. The men would not stand for it. It invaded their personal rights. It took away their liberty. It was paternalism of the worst sort.

But it has worked. It is not resented except occasionally by a man who claims that the liberty guaranteed him under the Constitution of the United States to get drunk and beat up his wife has been invaded.

The Ford school provides five compulsory courses. There is a course in industry and efficiency, a course in thrift and economy, a course in domestic relations, one in community relations, and one in industrial relations.

The Ford English school, which is an important branch of the main school, provides courses in speaking, reading, and writing English, and in arithmetic. This course is not exactly optional. A man who declines to take it is laid off for a couple of weeks in order that he may have time to

think it over. If after further persuasion he refuses to attend the classes he is given an opportunity to find employment elsewhere.

I must not forget to mention that in this school we have our professor of table manners who teaches the art of eating a meal in a manner that will not interfere with the appetite of the other fellow. We also have a professor of etiquette, such as is required in the ordinary station of life.

Then we have a special course in the art of making a new start in life, with the degree of A.M. LL.D., which being interpreted means: A Mistake Doubly Lived Down. The big lesson we try to teach in this course is that while no man can *outrun* his past he can *outgrow* it.

A study of the foregoing courses will make it clear that the Ford idea of education is:

1. To improve a man's tastes and at the same time increase his earning power.
2. To teach a man to use his income in a constructive manner.
3. To put a man into a right relation with his family.
4. To put a man into right relations with his community.
5. To put a man right with his work and his employer.
6. To fit the foreigner to become a citizen and to encourage him to do so.
7. To give the man who is down and out a chance to come back.

It is a poor, blind, blundering, educational system which cultivates in a man a taste for things which it in no way prepares him to obtain. To increase a man's capacity for happiness and at the same time to fail to develop his power for procuring the means for obtaining the happiness for which you have given him the craving is a cruel thing to do, not a kindly one. That educational system is a failure which does not provide for compulsory vocational training for every boy or girl, high and low, rich and poor. The system of education which only increases, thru the so-called cultural studies, the capacity for happiness, and fails to develop the power for gaining that happiness, is a system bound to increase human misery and failure. The Ford idea is to increase a man's capacity for happiness and at the same time to increase his efficiency, his earning capacity, his worth to society, so that he may have access to the things he has been taught to enjoy.

The thing we need to see is the cultural possibilities in vocational training. It is possible to develop a man's mind and soul in the training of his hand. We fail to see this because we underestimate the dignity of manual toil and its worth to society. "I want you to go to school and get an education so that you will not have to work as hard as I have worked," was a remark often made to me by my father. He did not mean to do so, perhaps, but he was instilling into my mind the idea that an education meant a higher standing in the social scale and exemption from the degradation of physical toil. One still meets too frequently with this enervating and demoralizing idea in the atmosphere of our public schools and colleges. A college man at the Ford school discovers that he has a great many things

to learn under the tutorship of men who have never seen the inside of a college. The fact is, we are giving at the Ford a great many high-school and college men their first real cultural training so far as will, thoroughness, accuracy, honesty, and a sense of the dignity of labor are concerned. Education does not consist in developing the human intellect alone, but the will and emotions as well. It is not enough that a man thinks right, he must be able to will what is right, and to feel what is right as well. We believe at the Ford that the true aim of education is to increase the sum-total of human happiness, but you cannot make an addition to a man's happiness that will stay unless at the same time you increase his usefulness to society. In order to get more, he must be able to give more. Cultural training without vocational training is about as wise a procedure as planting wheat in the desert before developing a system of irrigation. True culture cannot be imparted before one has experienced the toil out of which culture springs. Much of our school culture starves to death. It is blindly given at the expense of the training on which it must depend for sustenance in after-years.

In public school and college we stimulate study by assuring the pupil that an education will pay. It will mean more dollars in one's pocket later on. We stimulate a man's desire for an education at the Ford school in the same way. But we go farther. We not only teach a man how to earn more money, but we begin at once to teach him how to spend it. Lessons on how to use money are just as important as lessons on how to earn it.

We receive every man on six months' probation. This is our preparatory school in which a man qualifies for profit-sharing. It is during this time that we make a careful study of his habits. If, at the end of six months, we are satisfied as to his ability to make use of his profits, we place him on the profit-sharing list, but he must have demonstrated the fact that he spends money in a constructive way. There are but two ways of spending money. One builds up and the other destroys the man, his family, and the community in which he lives. The Ford man must be a builder. If he is not, he is called into the office and his destructive habits are pointed out. He is informed that until these habits are overcome his profits will be withheld. If he makes good within thirty days, all withheld profits are restored; if it requires sixty days for him to get right, he receives 75 per cent of his withheld profits and 25 per cent are put into a charity fund. The company does not benefit by the withheld profits of its men. If a man taken off his profits does not qualify within six months, his discharge at the end of that time is automatic. Needless to say, few men discharge themselves. The certainty of the loss of a minimum income of five dollars a day, by spending it unwisely, is a strong incentive to the constructive use of money.

Environment plays an important part in the Ford idea of education. The environment of a man must be right if you expect him to come clean and

strong out of it. Thru our investigators, we frequently take a look into the homes of our employees. If conditions are not right in the home, we set ourselves the very first thing to the task of making them right. If families are separated, we endeavor to bring them together. If husband and wife are living apart, we leave nothing undone in our effort to reunite them.

When the efficiency of a good workman begins to decline, we have come, as the result of past experiences, to look into the home for some kind of domestic trouble. In the majority of instances we find our suspicions confirmed. Family quarrels have an almost immediate effect on the output of lathes and drill presses.

Much has been said about the home as the foundation of state and church. We have made the discovery at the Ford that the family is also the basis of right economic and industrial conditions. The welfare of the factory, no less than the welfare of the state and church, depends upon the home. We therefore keep a close watch on the home. We encourage better housing. We take families up bodily, if need be, and move them into better neighborhoods. We insist that a man shall provide generously in proportion to his means for his wife and children. Should he fail to do this, we may turn his profits over to his wife, until he learns to do the square thing. We impress upon a man's mind the fact that the one condition on which we will share profits with him is that he in turn will share them with his family.

Mr. Ford's idea is that a home in which there are roomers or boarders can never be a real home. We therefore insist that the wife of a profit-sharer be free to give her entire time to the home. Roomers and boarders must go or profits are withheld. Wives seldom object to this ruling.

So firmly convinced are we that the home is the first essential to right living that more than once we have gone out and rented a house, sent to distant cities for the workman's family, and put them together in the new home. The results are worth many times the investment.

I regard the discovery by the Ford school of the economic value of the family as one of the most important contributions made in modern times toward the problem of bringing the home back to its proper place in modern society. It is a fact, once it is appreciated, which will throw the energy of our great industrial organizations into the reconstruction of the home.

In addition to the course in domestic relations, we have a course on civic relations. We have a great many foreigners. A great many letters come to us criticizing us for employing so many. To these we reply, reminding the writer that his great-grandfather—possibly his grandfather or father—was a foreigner, and that had the people already on American soil treated his illustrious ancestor as he wants us to treat the foreigner today, he would be wallowing in the slums of some European city instead

of enjoying his present privileges. We are taking no little pains to make these foreigners citizens in the best sense of the word. We are trying to teach them a higher kind of patriotism than some of our "hope to die" American critics display in their condemnation of our employment of the "hated foreigner." In short, we are trying to lead these men to love their adopted country without acquiring a hatred of the one from which they came. It is curious how many people mistake the hatred of other lands for the love of their own. These are those patriotic people who tell you how the sight of the stars and stripes in a foreign port brought tears to their eyes, and in the next breath tell you how cleverly they beat their beloved country out of its revenue when they passed thru the customs on their return from abroad.

The Ford English school, of which mention has already been made, was established especially for foreigners in our employ. In that school we have at the present 136 instructors and 2,200 students. We teach them to speak, read, and write English and give them instructions in other fundamental branches of knowledge. We use the dramatic system of instruction. The men come to classes before and after work for a short time two days in each week. The lessons last an hour and a half. The course is given in 68 lessons covering a period of 34 weeks. The men who come up to the required standard are graduated. On next Sunday we graduate a class of 512 and have our exercises in the Light Guard Armory. Each graduate receives a diploma. Our teaching force is a voluntary one, and in order to increase the efficiency of these men, some of whom have never been beyond the sixth grade in school, we have organized a Teachers' Club which has much of the spirit of a college organization. Matters of general educational interest are discussed, college songs are sung, and a fraternal spirit is created. The object of this English school is not only to make the men more efficient in our work in the shop, but also to prepare them for citizenship. The first thing we teach them to say is, "I am a good American," and then we try to get them to live up to the statement. We found in the beginning a prejudice on the part of one nationality in the factory against another. A candidate for the vice-presidency of one of our graduating classes was repeatedly turned down, and when the men were asked why they did not vote for him they stated that it was on account of his nationality. It was explained to them that neither he nor they were foreigners, but that they were all Americans and should vote for the man purely on the basis of merit. After this explanation was made the man was unanimously elected.

We encourage these men to buy homes, knowing that the ownership of property will lead to interest in civic matters. We encourage them to take out naturalization papers, rendering them every possible assistance we can in this matter. And in promoting men we do not overlook the efforts of those who have co-operated with us along these lines. We feel,

and we try to make them feel, that there is something wrong with the man who accepts the privileges of this country and refuses to assume in return his full share of the duties of citizenship.

The right relationship between employer and employee follows naturally in the wake of the things we try to do for our men. The spirit of the Ford school is not that of paternalism but of fraternalism. "Help the Other Fellow" is the motto of the institution. We try to be fair with our men, and their appreciation is shown in the hearty good-will with which they do their work.

One hears a great deal of Ford efficiency. The secret of Ford efficiency is the good-will of his employees. The men are happy, made happy by the wage and profit-sharing that put anxiety out of life. In return for what they receive the men work not only with a will, but with a "good-will," and no efficiency methods ever devised can take the place of the "good-will" of employees toward employer. Will plus scientific efficiency methods will do great things, but "good-will" plus ordinary intelligence will do a lot more. And when you get the two together—good-will and efficiency—competition ceases. This is why Henry Ford is getting out of raw, unskilled, and what some ignorant people call "ignorant foreign labor" greater results than any other employer in modern times.

The consciousness of having made his workmen happy was the pay he expected for doing it. The increased efficiency of his men as a result of their good-will came as a by-product and exceeded all expectations.

Our special course for the man who is struggling to regain his place in the world would require an article of great length were I to go into detail. Suffice it to say that of those given the chance, the great majority do make good. Mr. Ford's idea is that the cure for crime is work, not in stripes and behind stone walls, but in the open where men are made strong by the confidence and encouragement of their fellow-men. Experience is demonstrating the truth of his theory.

There is a very definite end in view in the Ford idea of education. We have in mind a man who is right in his relations toward his employer, his family, and toward the community in which he lives. This is the kind of man we have in view. This is the human product we seek to turn out, and as we adapt the machinery in the shop to turning out of the kind of automobile we have in mind, so we have constructed our educational system with a view to producing the human product we have in mind.

Knowing the kind of man we want, we proceed first of all in accordance with Mr. Ford's idea to make it possible for a man to have his share of human happiness; for no man can be right in his relations to his employer and to society so long as they deny him the happiness, or the means thereto which it is his right to have.

Henry Ford's greatest desire in life is to make others happy. Incidentally he has proved to the world that the business of making others

happy pays commercially. But the fact that it pays is not his first consideration. A great deal of his money comes as a sort of by-product of the business of helping the other fellow. It seems that every time he discovers a way of making more people happy, more money pours in. But so long as the money is used, as it always is, to give more people employment at a wage that provides for some of the luxuries of life, as well as for its necessities, nobody cares.

Henry Ford is one of the few men controlling great wealth whom the masses of men want to see control still more.

*DEBATE: THE BEST ORGANIZATION FOR AMERICAN SCHOOLS
IS A PLAN WHICH SHALL DIVIDE THESE SCHOOLS INTO
SIX YEARS OF ELEMENTARY TRAINING AND SIX YEARS
OF SECONDARY TRAINING*

1. CHARLES H. JUDD, DIRECTOR, SCHOOL OF EDUCATION, UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO, CHICAGO, ILL., AFFIRMATIVE

How long are the elementary schools and the high schools to stand apart? How long are pupils in the seventh and eighth grades to be deprived of their right to a richer course of study because of the artificial line which has heretofore cut them off from geometry and biology, from the languages and literature of other nations, and the skilled arts which train the eye and hand? How long are we to accept with complacency the wasteful and discouraging reviews which characterize the eighth grade and compel children to mark time on the threshold of the great change into the first year of high school? How long are we to tolerate a curriculum in the first year of the high school which seems so strange to the ordinary child that he is alienated from the pursuit of higher knowledge?

These are the questions which we are to discuss today. The answer is brief and clear. So long as you listen to the dark counsels of those who say to you that children in the upper years of the elementary school cannot do more than they are now doing, you will hold them back. So long as you let those who scoff at their fellow-teachers make you think that high schools are for the few and elementary schools have the secret formulas of democracy, you will be content to shut your eyes to the fact that the American high school is one of the most typical expressions of our western-world democracy. So long as you are willing to jog along with the clumsy school organization that originated in the middle of the last century, you will waste the time of children by your ox-cart methods.

If, on the contrary, you will open your eyes and realize that our high schools today register 30 per cent of all the children of high-school age, you will begin to see that the time has come to adopt a modern form of organization which will facilitate the continuation of every child's education.

If you realize that the three R's have expanded in the modern world into science and civics, into art and knowledge of human life, you will be inspired with enthusiasm for the introduction of some of these better things into the earlier years of a child's life. Elementary schools should not be the homes of drudgery and the abode of the downtrodden. Elementary schools have a right to a part of the new light of a new age.

If we liberalize the elementary school, we shall also, in like spirit, liberalize the first year of the high school. When one thinks of the wall of Latin, algebra, and ancient history, over which most of us climbed half a generation ago, he is certainly glad of an opportunity in mature life to knock a few stones from the foundation of that moss-grown barrier.

The answer, I say, is brief and clear. We cannot longer allow anyone to befool us into satisfaction with the present breach between the elementary schools and the high schools.

Lest there should be a few conservatives among us, let us begin by asking them what is sacred about the eight years of the present elementary school. Were these eight years determined upon after careful consideration? Not at all. The elementary school was, at the outset, an undefined and, in many respects, unlimited institution. One can remember, if his experience goes back to a district school, how the older boys and girls of the community came in during the winter term and took a little work when they were otherwise unoccupied on the farm or in the home. Pupils in such schools were frequently much older than our present eighth-grade pupils. The reason why they came to the common school was that no high school was near at hand to offer them extended opportunity. These older pupils were the forerunners of those who today are demanding a larger and a richer education than that which has heretofore characterized the grades.

Indeed, in New England, where economic conditions were favorable, the experiment of a nine-year elementary school was tried. Even today over the whole state of Maine, except in the large cities, the nine-year school is the standard school and expresses the ambition of the people for more education than can be included in the limits of a course based on the three R's.

On the other hand, there are seven-year elementary schools in the United States which go to show that there is nothing sacred about the eight-year school. In many of our southern states the seven-year school flourishes and is retained by men and women of this organization who are thoroly acquainted with the eight-year school.

The famous experiment in Kansas City shows that a seven-year school is a perfectly rational and altogether economical school. So much misinformation has been circulated about the Kansas City schools that I took pains to secure from Superintendent Cammack information on the matter. The average time required by the pupils who last year completed the seventh grade in Kansas City was 7.65 years. We know that the

average time required by children in eight-year schools to complete the eighth grade is 8.5 years, so that it is seen that the Kansas City schools get their children thru the elementary course a year earlier than other schools. Superintendent Cammack's figures show, also, that more of the children get thru the Kansas City schools than in eight-year systems.

All these details show that the eight-year school is not a fixed law of nature. Where, then, did it come from? Some time in the middle of the last century when the high schools were very little developed, when the common school gave the common child all the training he was to get, the example of Europe was accepted and our eight-year school crystallized into form.

The European eight-year school is the product of an entirely different national attitude toward education. In Europe, the boy or girl who goes to an eight-year school goes no farther. The eight-year school is a complete unit. The eight-year school of Europe is the device of aristocracy to give only a limited education to the common people.

The school of Europe which is intended for children who are going on is not an eight-year school. No child of the governing class goes to the eight-year school in Europe.

This is the thing we borrowed from Europe—an eight-year school for the poorer classes, an eight-year school which aims at a meager education, an eight-year school sharply marked off from the higher schools.

It is interesting to note in this connection that the age of fourteen which was selected as the upper limit of compulsory education was not determined by a careful investigation of the intellectual life of children or the subject-matter of instruction; it was originally established in Europe and in the traditions of our civilization because it is the period of confirmation in the church. In Europe religious education has always been a part of the work of the school, and when the child is ready for confirmation his education automatically stops.

The student of education sees in the later developments of American schools a brilliant illustration of the biblical parable. This old European bottle, full of the New World ferment, is covered with the patches put on by conscientious but misguided hands, and yet hope grows less and less that our new ambitions can be held together in this antique vessel.

The elementary school breaks up when nature asserts itself. In the best schools of this country the upper grades are departmentalized. This means that the methods of teaching children cannot be the same in the lower grades and the upper grades. The division of the eight-year school into upper classes conducted by one method and lower classes conducted by other methods is a natural and wholesome readjustment.

Further evidence that the eight-year school is no unit appears in the fact that the present-day course of study is different from that offered in the old-fashioned unit school. One cannot keep an eighth grade alive on

ditch-digging problems and definitions of parts of speech. There are new courses in civics, new courses in local industries, and new courses in science. There is even a tendency to read some of the classics in English literature which used to be labeled as the exclusive property of the high school. The duplicating of high-school work has gone so far in the upper grades of the elementary school that harsh words are sometimes passed down by high-school teachers who find that Julius Caesar and other strictly high-school characters have been kidnaped.

What does all this duplicating mean? It means that you can surround the common people of the United States by an eight-year school, but they will break out as soon as they can. In America there is today in reality no eight-year school. The shell is broken, save only in those unfortunate localities where some arch-conservative is holding it together by devices which repudiate nature.

If we turn from worn-out European tradition to scientific studies of human nature or even to observation such as a sensible teacher can make, we find that it is the twelve-year-old child who is putting away childish things in the first flush of adolescence. The twelve-year-old child begins to look into the larger world. He begins to think of his duties to society and himself. When he is fourteen or fifteen, he will be half thru the critical period of adolescence. If you want to influence an adolescent in a large way, you must begin at twelve, not fourteen.

Another product of the science of human nature is the principle of individual differences. The fallacy of believing that all pupils are exactly alike was the fallacy of a generation ago. The study of human nature and the needs of society have forced upon us a new conviction. We now realize that an individual to be a productive member of a democratic society must play some part other than that which is played by his fellows. In our schools we must provide preparation for the diversified duties of democratic society by giving full recognition to individual capacities and individual training. Children in the lower grades exhibit personal characteristics which deserve attention, but in those early days when the most fundamental types of learning are being worked out, the common traits of human nature are in preponderance. By the time the child has reached the fifth and sixth grades, his personality begins to express itself emphatically in new ways. Having cultivated acquaintance with the fundamentals of knowledge, he now begins to make applications of knowledge to his own individual life, and the period of adolescence finds him ready to assume personal responsibilities and make personal decisions with regard to intellectual and moral matters. Whether we like it or not, the child in the seventh grade is growing into an individual. Whether we like it or not, his tastes and outlook will begin to mark themselves off sharply from the tastes and outlooks of other members of the class. That school alone is

intelligent in its management of seventh-grade children which recognizes the fundamental principle of individual differences.

There are those among us who contend that children of this age must be driven into the same mold, that they must be made to fit some abstract notion, developed in the mind of the pedagog. Some of these conservatives may have their way for a time, but the years will prove that their conservatism is falsely conceived. That education is most appropriate to a democracy which is most broadly planned and executed.

Up to this point we have shown that reorganization is going on in our school system thru the changes which are naturally developing in the elementary school. If we turn abruptly to the high school, we shall find here a tendency toward reorganization which is even more pronounced. The high school has been in some degree from the earliest period an institution organized to give to all its students a broad outlook upon life. Some high schools have degenerated into appendages of colleges and have been satisfied to offer merely a narrow preparatory course. But the typical, the vigorous example of the American high school has been characterized by the broad purpose of introducing the student to life. The great fields of human knowledge are to be canvassed by the student in series of courses which carry him thru history, literature, science, and mathematics. In our modern high school there is added to this list of academic subjects an intensive study of the vernacular and a whole series of practical and industrial arts which are to widen the student's horizon. The result of this ambitious program is that the curriculum of the high school has come to be so crowded that it is quite impossible to meet the demands in the short four years allotted to this school. The Committee of Ten, when it made its report in 1894, saw very clearly that the secondary school cannot do the work which it must undertake and confine its program to four years. The pronouncement¹ of that committee in this matter is perfectly definite and is as follows:

In preparing these programs, the committee were perfectly aware that it is impossible to make a satisfactory secondary-school program, limited to a period of four years, and founded on the present elementary-school subjects and methods. In the opinion of the committee, several subjects now reserved for high schools—such as algebra, geometry, natural science, and foreign languages—should be begun earlier than now, and therefore within the schools classified as elementary; or, as an alternative, the secondary-school period should be made to begin two years earlier than at present, leaving six years instead of eight for the elementary-school period. Under the present organization, elementary subjects and elementary methods are, in the judgment of the committee, kept in use too long.

The secondary school is thus on record as having discovered the problem of reorganization before the lower school became clearly aware of it.

¹ *Report of the Committee of Ten on Secondary School Studies*, p. 45. Published for the National Education Association by the American Book Company. 1894.

Even today we have a situation which can be described in somewhat the same terms. The secondary-school people are taking up the innovations of the intermediate school or the junior high school with enthusiasm. Elementary-school officers, on the other hand, are somewhat more conservative. The elementary-school principal hesitates to lose his upper classes; the elementary-school principal is afraid that he is to be deprived of his most experienced and efficient teachers. While the high-school people are driven by sheer necessity to accept a change, the elementary-school people are not convinced because they feel that it may be possible by makeshift devices to evade for a time the real issue.

That the high school is compelled to expand may perhaps be made more impressive by calling attention to the fact that it has already expanded at the upper end into the Freshman and Sophomore years of college. There is not an American college which does not complete the secondary course of its students. In many institutions this is done by an evasion which can hardly be described as subtle. In these cases the college prints a long list of requirements, accepts students who do not fulfil these requirements, and then compels these students to make up conditions after entering. A "condition" is a confession that the college cannot demand from students its own prescribed secondary course.

Other colleges deal with the problem more directly and say to the student, take elementary German or French, elementary history and science, in the early years of your college course and thus complete the broad survey of human knowledge which the high school could not complete. Until you finish this introductory work we cannot let you specialize or enter the professional schools.

The evil of this situation lies, not in the fact that the colleges are in reality secondary schools in their Freshman and Sophomore years—the evil lies in the fact that many colleges are making a frantic effort to force the high school to do more work. Students take not four but five and even six units in a year in the effort to cover human experience in four years. The high school needs relief, and the broadest educational statesmanship will be exhibited in providing this relief.

It would be easy to pile up arguments for the reorganization of the high school. What does it mean that some of our better schools are organizing two-year courses? What does it mean that the elective system has come to the rescue of the first year? What is supervised study? Every reform in the high schools is an eloquent pronouncement in favor of an extension and a modification of the present school organization.

Why one should have to present all these facts in the form of arguments is hard to understand. Let one look out over our schools and he will see the change coming. This is not a prophecy; it is a fact. More than 10 per cent of the approved high-school systems in the north-central territory are at work today on the problem of organizing intermediate schools. We

ought to have every ounce of our energy to devote to the discussion of the best way of carrying out the program. It is truly irritating that one must pause to say, "Come with us; it is so, it is so," when he should be in council discussing the next step forward.

Perhaps there are some who do not understand why this movement is so swift in our day. Perhaps those who hold back are merely dazed by the rapidity of the change. There is an explanation for all this, and perhaps we shall do well to give that explanation in all detail.

When the Committee of Ten made its report, it had a theoretical insight into the situation, but its contentions operated only very feebly in bringing about real changes. This teaches that change in organization does not grow out of theory, and we have new confidence in the vitality of the real changes of today. In the same way, the forces that have been operating to change the elementary school have been at work slowly until, finally, within the last few years, there seems to be a consummation of this movement with a rapidity that is literally astonishing. When the historian of education writes an account of the last five years, he will point out the fact that during these years the great fundamental need of social economy bore down upon our people with unmistakable emphasis. It made very little difference in the early days of our American civilization that a student lost one or two years thru our clumsy school organization, but today we are not at liberty to waste the time of students in any sense of the word. We must give to students and we must give to communities the best forms of organization possible. There have been inco-ordinations in the earlier years, as every serious writer on education has realized and pointed out. Today the public is calling upon us, in an age of efficiency and scientific insight, to cure these inco-ordinations. We are forced to act and act promptly. What was theoretical discontent has become a real demand for improvement.

Curiously enough, this demand for economy is misunderstood by some of our conscientious colleagues. They think of intellectual parsimony when we speak of economy. They think we are going to hold back something from children. They cry out for the old-fashioned waste as the sure mark of generosity. Let us exercise what charity we can with them. Let us tell them that economy means better organization, less friction, more rapid progress, less loss. Everywhere the forces of society are set in the direction of improving the opportunities of every child. These opportunities must be so complete and so well organized that there shall be no question at all about the investment of equipment and teaching which society is making in the schools and the investment which the child is making in time and energy. We must see to it that there is no wasteful duplication. We must fit the courses to the needs of the individual child. We must fit these courses to the needs of his growing mental life. We must change the methods of our administration at a time when it is appropriate to the child's

change in mental attitude. Anyone who stands in the way of this movement is an enemy of society and an enemy of the individual child. Economy does not mean something that is narrow and limiting; it means, rather, a better organization.

Sometimes it has been said by those who oppose the intermediate school that the break between the sixth grade and the seventh grade will be widened by this new form of organization. They are saying, also, that the break between the ninth grade and the tenth grade is a menace to the fuller development of the child's education. The answer to these criticisms lies in the fact that the whole motive of this organization is to create a continuity where heretofore there has been a disjointed and wastefully duplicating system. The seventh grade is to recognize the individual child's needs and is to give him such a course as is suited to his adolescent experience. In doing this, it will effect a change in methods of operation just at the point where the child himself is undergoing a change. The child will reach out and meet the change in school organization which is provided for him. To delay this change until two years after the child is prepared for it, as we do in an eight-year school, jeopardizes the whole relation of the school and the pupil. To make the change at the time in the child's life when he is ready for it and when the change will be congenial to his needs and intellectual demands is to economize his life and energy in the largest sense of the word. We avoid a break by moving parallel to the child's own motion, not by crossing him obliquely in the path of development. In exactly the same way, if we change the first year of the high school so as to make it fit the child's needs, we shall effect economy by removing those obstacles to the natural progress of the pupil which now exist in the first year of the high school.

The effect on teachers and school officers will be equally wholesome with the effect on students. It is quite impossible to work out these changes which are contemplated in the organization of an intermediate school without showing the irrationality of all the harsh feelings and criticisms that heretofore have existed between the elementary school and the high school. We shall make for unity by cultivating in the school organization itself a new spirit of adaptation of the courses to the students. If the whole corps of teachers could be trained by this new form of organization to see that the one dominating principle of school organization which is acceptable in modern society is the principle of continuity and adaptation to the child's needs, we shall have eradicated those criticisms and personal animosities which have in the past so often expressed themselves in the petty criticisms passed back and forth between shallow-minded partisans of distinct and antagonistic schools.

In these few paragraphs, I have tried to outline the changes which are transforming the eight-year school into a richer school, better adapted to

the children, and better related to the other members of the school system. I have tried to show that the high school, too, is changing.

The consummation of these changes is seen in a new amalgamation of those grades which have until now been universally held apart. The seventh, eighth, and ninth grades belong together. No artificial line can permanently divide them. As we become more intelligent in our scientific insights, as our social life expresses itself more freely, we become vividly aware that the sixth grade is the natural point of differentiation and that the problems of secondary education unfold themselves from the child's twelfth to eighteenth year.

The new order of school is not an imitation of an outworn model; there is here all the vigor and appropriateness of a new social life finding its large and natural expression. There is a cure in this new organization for the littleness and provincialism of those earlier days of separation.

Surely the burden of proof lies heavily on the shoulders of anyone who would oppose this movement. He must show that the old order is efficient, economical, and full of harmony. He must make us believe that the upper years of the elementary school are like the lower years. He must persuade us that the high school can give an adequate view of life in four years.

He must not only persuade us, but he must also persuade the children in the schools and the parents in the homes. The strength of this new organization is in the fact that it meets a felt need. Where it is put into operation it holds children in the schools, equipping them for life in accordance with the laws of their natures. This movement is a great substantial social fact and he who opposes it must answer to society.

II. CARROLL G. PEARSE, PRESIDENT, STATE NORMAL SCHOOL,
MILWAUKEE, WIS., NEGATIVE

In beginning this discussion, the negative makes no denial of the fact that the elementary schools of the country, as well as the secondary schools and the colleges, need readjustment and a much better adaptation to the needs of both the pupils and the community; none of these three grand divisions of the American educational system has kept pace with the changes in the industrial and social life of the nation, nor is any of them, in general, meeting satisfactorily the demands of the time. But to the plan proposed by the affirmative as a remedy for existing difficulties, the negative offers a most positive dissent.

Our present educational system is a growth; it was not prescribed for us by others. It has grown up as the joint result of our national conditions and our compelling desire that all the people be educated. It is, therefore, reasonable that it, and the causes that have produced it, receive consideration before it is gaily thrown aside for the plan here proposed, or for any other plan.

Our ancestors in the colonies that have given us our ideals in education clearly held two beliefs: first, that all children should be taught to read and write and cipher so that they could read the Bible and the laws, communicate with others or make a record, and compute, as required by their daily business; secondly, that leaders were needed, ministers, lawyers and judges, doctors, to tell the people what to think and what to do. To educate leaders, colleges were needed. These two notions gave us the elementary school and the college.

Boys who wished to enter the colleges must be trained in that knowledge which was required by those institutions. Not all boys could be fitted for college by the father, or the minister, or some learned friend of the family. Academies and "grammar schools" were set up for this purpose. Two generations after the Revolution, Horace Mann preached his crusade, with its principle that every child should have the chance for an education, which, to him, meant a college training. To make broad the highway from primary school to university, the academy and the "grammar school" were turned into the public high school.

General intelligence increased; other subjects joined the "three R's" in the common-school curriculum. We wanted our children to learn certain things. But more especially we wanted them to remain in school until about the age of fourteen, at least, before taking up the burdens of life, or before deciding on the particular direction their future studies should take. The curriculum was arranged, from time to time, so as to occupy generally the time indicated. In Maine and in other New England states, where youth matures later, some nine-year elementary schools were established; thruout the South, owing to climatic conditions, maturity comes earlier, and many seven-year schools were instituted. But in general the eight-year elementary school became the accepted pattern for the country.

There were always failures in the old-style schools. But the boys and girls who were poor at their books often did best at their work; they dropped out and went to work, and little was said. But when people flocked to the towns, schools became large, and were of necessity more closely graded. Here the large number of failures in the grammar grades attracted attention; school funds are wasted when it takes two years to teach a boy what he should learn in one; also, many children who fail leave school unprepared for successful work in life.

But the high schools and colleges are having trouble as well as the elementary schools. Too few children get into the high school; too many fail after getting there; too many who fail, and too many others, drop out.

Young men graduate from college too late by two or three years. When they enter the professions, they too often, because of the preparation now required, come into the practice two, three, even four years later than

they ought. A committee of the National Education Association on Economy of Time in Education stated a few years ago:

Since the early New England college, we have added four years to preparation and three years to specializing for the professions. Instead of converting the college into the university, we have piled the German university on top of our imitation of the English type [of college] without adjustment of the system, and the situation is full of difficulties and absurdities.

For this generally unsatisfactory condition we have been seeking remedies. Some public schools have put their grammar-grade failures into "industrial classes," giving them mostly hand work, in the effort to interest them and hold them in school; other schools have had similar classes called "prevocational classes," which have sometimes tried also to train these children, made failures by the faulty conditions in regular classes, into usefulness as shop or factory hands. Now comes this proposal to cut off the seventh and eighth grades—separate the twelve- and thirteen-year-old children—from the elementary school and put them into the high school, thus organizing a six-year elementary school and a six-year high school. When we remember the difficulties which fourteen-year-old children now have in too many high schools, it seems a queer remedy.

Two types of the six-year high school are proposed; sometimes one type is urged, sometimes the other. The one type is to provide separate courses, and probably, where possible, separate schools, for different groups of children. These are to be required to choose, at the end of the sixth grade, whether they will follow industrial careers, or go into commerce, or have a liberal education and probably go into a profession. If the children do not know what to select, someone is to choose for them and put them into the compartment selected. The other type is to be a sort of glorified grammar school, somewhat different from our present schools in equipment and curriculum, but differing chiefly in having the seventh and eighth grades separated from the lower grades.

The first type of six-year high school, where children are separated into classes according to their "probable future employment," is no doubt suggested by those familiar with the secondary schools of England and Germany. In both these countries, only those who are to go into the professions or those who are to have a liberal education enter the secondary schools, which are largely separate institutions, and do not have any close or direct connection with the elementary schools. These secondary schools are for "the classes"—the children of families of wealth and social position, and for a limited number of other children who show promise of special mental ability; these are taken out of the elementary schools at twelve years of age or earlier, while most of the children—the common children—are left in the elementary schools to be trained as workers.

The headmasters in the English secondary schools, which are in reality college-fitting schools, clamor to have their students sent to them at the

age of twelve or earlier; in the German schools, children who are to have the "higher education" go into the secondary school before the age of twelve, often at the end of the fourth or even of the third school year. America does not wish a public-school system the organization of which is drawn from such educational practices, or from countries with such social and educational ideals.

It is fair to ask who among us is now advocating this plan. I regret to say that our highest educational official has taken this, as I believe, erroneous view of the remedy for existing conditions. The honored and influential ex-president of a great eastern university is quoted as having said at an important educational gathering a few years ago that each child should choose, or someone should choose for him, at the age of twelve, his future career, and his future education should be shaped to that end. A Committee of the National Education Association on Economy of Time in Education in its report a few years ago favored the plan. In connection with this report it may be noted, however, that on this committee of five there were three college men and one high-school man; only one public-school man was among the number, and he was not the most aggressive member of the group.

Many college men, including my distinguished opponent, would be pleased with this plan, and there are reasons why college men should favor it. The young men now too frequently come from the professional schools three or four years too late; too often they graduate from the colleges two or three years too late. Some kind of an adjustment will, within a few years, be forced. If the plan we are discussing could be adopted, the organization of the professional school could be saved; the college could retain its present organization and prestige as a four-year institution. The college could then also get from the high school that more thoro and extended training in the college-preparatory studies which the college is now asking for but which the high school does not find itself able to give. That the two years thus gained for the benefit of the colleges would be taken from the elementary schools is no doubt of little importance to the college men. Only a small minority of children get thru the high school, and fewer yet get to college, and the college is interested only in this selected minority. By this plan too the proper aspiration of the high school to expand and become a more important institution could be gratified. It may be that if, by taking the two years from the elementary schools, this importance could be given to the high schools, they might relinquish the desire to expand by the plan of taking into the high school the "junior college," the first two college years. Only the common schools of the common people would suffer. Shorn of these two years, they would be greatly reduced in importance, in prestige, and in their power to influence American life and institutions.

Many employers would be glad to see this six-and-six arrangement. The differentiated courses for the industrially destined pupils would give

a means of training hand workers in the years from twelve to fourteen that nothing we now have can equal. One such employer is quoted as saying that he would like to have the public schools send him a boy who could "read a blueprint, run a drill press, and be satisfied with his job." A boy caught at the age of twelve and trained for his "probable future employment" as a hand worker might perhaps fill even this last specification and "be satisfied with his job" as attendant to a drill press for life.

It is to be regretted also that some public-school men, who can hardly have realized what such a six-and-six plan would quite certainly do to the common schools sooner or later, are echoing the cry for the plan, the chief benefit of which is to be reaped by the colleges. Perhaps this is only natural; many public-school men are loyal graduates of the colleges which are pushing this plan; they have been accustomed to look to the colleges for leadership; the colleges have recognized and regular means of giving publicity to their views. Public-school men seldom have mediums of publicity; they perhaps too often take the word of some one who offers to give it.

The advocates of the plan tell us—that is, some of them in arguing the question do—that the great change in our young people comes at twelve, not at fourteen; that the age of twelve marks the time in a child's life when he puts away childish things and becomes a man. This, from "scientific men," sounds queer. Common people know without asking "educators" that these great physical and spiritual changes come at about the age of fourteen in our latitude and climate. In the tropical south, the time of change arrives earlier; far to the north, it may be delayed; but, for the great majority of our young people, it comes at about fourteen. I quote only one authority, G. Stanley Hall, who will no doubt be accepted as such. He says in his great work on adolescence:

These years are the best decade of life, and that it [the book] may directly and indirectly help the young to exploit aright all the possibilities of the years from fourteen to twenty-four, and safeguard them against insidious dangers, is the writer's desire.

It is childish to say that our elementary school has been made to end with the pupil's fourteenth year because the church confirms its children at fourteen. We have fixed the end of our elementary school to coincide with the fourteenth year for the same reason that the church confirms young people into its membership at that age; because, at about the age of fourteen, profound spiritual as well as physical changes fit the youth for this experience and participation. The church of Europe has learned thru a thousand years the wisdom of this course; and this is based upon an even older experience and practice running back into the mists of pagan antiquity. If we should accept the age of twelve as a "change" period requiring a new and separated school organization, we must remember that there is another "change" period at about the ninth year; we must make another sub-organization and establish still another school in a separate watertight compartment for children of that age.

Children at twelve years of age are seldom fit to make choice of a life career; parents and teachers are seldom fit to make this choice for them at that time. You know that this is true of your own twelve-year-old children. Why should you presume to require the children of others—of the "common people"—to choose at that time? The changes of even preadolescence often put a very different face on matters in two years, and choices made at the age of twelve will often be and often ought to be remade at fourteen or later. The two years in question are, however, invaluable for vocational guidance—as a time for reflection and for obtaining information before children are forced to the iron gates of decision. Traditional standards and considerations, parental influence and the influence of surroundings, up to the age of thirteen are strong; after that young people begin to exercise greater independence in choosing occupations.

But there is still a weightier reason than any of the foregoing why this type of the six-year high school ought not to be permitted to get a foothold among us. The deeper reasons for a public-school system are social and political. Every man pays school taxes to help to train every child of the state as an intelligent citizen. More important even than the knowledge which is so important to intelligent citizenship is the sentiment of real democratic equality, and a knowledge and understanding of each other and an interest in each other on the part of all our people—not merely the liberally educated, not merely the workers in industry or in commerce, but all the people. There is enough scramble and selfishness and conflict of interest after the youth leaves school for the work of life; there is enough tendency to social separation and exclusiveness if we do the best we can. But to push downward by two years the time when our children in the people's schools are separated into groups, largely if not wholly according to their "future probable employment," would be little short of a crime on the part of those responsible for it, and nothing short of a calamity to us in our national life. The separated high schools, where commercial and industrial and "liberal" high-school courses of study are followed by separate groups of pupils under separate roofs, are bad enough; but to introduce this division at the end of the sixth grade would be as inexcusable as it is unnecessary.

That form of the six-and-six plan which proposes a common course of study for all children but proposes to cut the seventh and eighth grades away from the grades below, while less dangerous and fraught with less grave dangers to our institutions in the near future, brings with it certain serious dangers nevertheless, and is wholly unnecessary; all the improvements and reconstructions which are required can not only be made without resorting to it, but they can be more advantageously made with an eight-year elementary school than under the six-and-six plan.

The end of the elementary school is a natural stopping-place. If the common school ends with the sixth grade, a far greater number of pupils,

especially those who are over age, will wish, or will be urged by shortsighted or greedy parents, to leave school, than will be the case if the elementary school stops only at the end of the eighth grade. This does not need argument; every practical school man knows it.

If the six-year elementary and six-year high school is to be accepted as our type, a general reorganization of our schools everywhere must take place. This will require in many, probably in most places, the erection of special buildings for the new type of school, with new and expensive equipment and furnishings. It will require the appointment of teachers of the high-school type and with the high-school standard of salaries. A good many public-school administrators, as well as a good many experienced parents, will wonder how much better off boys and girls in their thirteenth and fourteenth years will be if placed in charge of the type of teachers often found in charge of high-school classes in the earlier years; they will be sure to raise the question at once as to how much better and more wisely the entering high-school students will now be handled by the high-school teachers under high-school conditions than the same pupils have been handled by grammar-school teachers and principals in the later years of the grammar schools. But, waiving this point for the present (tho the superiority of high-school teachers and high-school methods should be clearly shown before the proposed plan can be seriously considered), can anyone doubt that the plan proposed would greatly increase the cost of carrying on the schools? The cost of high-school buildings is very much greater than that of entirely satisfactory grammar schools; the cost of instruction for high-school students thruout the country approaches, if it does not reach, a figure twice as great as that for pupils in elementary schools.

The difficulties of the plan would be largely increased by the fact that only the larger towns could or would organize in accordance with it. The expense of separate establishments, or for greatly increased high-school facilities and equipment, would be out of the question for the small communities with limited financial resources. This would result in a dual school organization, with most of the larger towns administering their schools on one basis and the smaller communities on another. This would cause endless trouble and loss to pupils transferred from large to small or from small to large school systems. Public-school men know how constantly this circulation from one town and school system to another is going on, and they, at least, can realize how serious a problem this constant readjustment of pupils entering from other school systems would be.

But to one who studies the six-and-six problem from the standpoint of the needs of the community and the needs of the pupils, the plan is seen to be wholly unnecessary. The present common organization of school units has within it the possibility of all the reforms which are necessary. By the plan which the negative side favors, the necessary modifications

to give vitality and motive and interest to the work of young people up to the age of fourteen, and to enable the schools to meet more effectively the needs of their communities, are entirely possible within the present form of organization.

The work of the grammar grades in the average school neither appeals to the interest of most of the pupils nor serves their needs or the need of the community. The studies are for the most part suitable, so far as they go. Each subject in the curriculum has been included in response to a felt want; it is not likely that any of them will be dropped out. The things taught have a purpose, either practical, for business or citizenship, or cultural in a desirable way. But something is lacking in the way the subjects are treated, and something much more important is lacking, namely, the things that are not taught in the schools.

The schools are still teaching the things that sufficed when much education was given, incidentally, it may be, but nevertheless given, at home and elsewhere out of school. The morning and evening and vacation-time duties which once filled the out-of-school time of children have become almost obsolete, so far as town children are concerned. For them the morning and evening chores and the vacation-time work about the farm are things of the past. Even the old-time sports and the recreations in which we and our fathers took delight and found education are no more. The schools must bring back the opportunities which have slipped away.

The school grounds must give the play space and the space for digging and planting which once could be had elsewhere. The short school day is now packed full, but it can be made longer, if the required variety is given to the school exercises. It was made short when children had work at home; make it long enough now so that they can do some hand work at school. A school day one hour longer, with another hour available if the child desires; a school year four or five or six weeks longer than at present—long enough to turn to useful training a considerable part of the long and useless vacation which is a bane to children and a plague to parents—will give opportunity for all the vitalizing and motivation that will be required, and that within the present form of school organization. The course of study, suitable enough when the home, the shop, the farm, and the playground were educational auxiliaries, can, with this added time, be reshaped so as to give this physical and motor training, so as to develop judgment and poise, and so as to have vital interest for all normal children. Increased opportunity for hand work, not for dull children only, but for all; outdoor work and play, work in the dirt and with growing plants and animals; unorganized play, and sports and games which require organization and direction; a more detailed and practical study of our history and government, especially the practical application of the will of the people to the affairs of local government, including a study of and instruction in the obligations of the citizen to his government and to his neighbor, his fellow-citizen; a study of

vocations and of the proper choice of a career; the study of household economies—the apportionment of income, the relative and particular responsibilities of the earning and the buying partner, the necessity for thrift, both in saving and in avoidance of waste; the responsibility of the head of the household to understand the care and upkeep of the “plant” in which he lives and to see that it is a comfortable home; household arts for all girls—cooking and sewing, homemaking, the art of simple home nursing, the care and feeding of little children; for both partners in the home, the duty of maintaining its essential standards, and an understanding of the importance and the rightful place of the home in the community; these topics suggest something of the mines that lie waiting to be worked, and the possibilities of enriching and motivating and rendering vital and fruitful the work of the grammar grades in the elementary school. Utilizing these and other things which lie waiting to be used, it is not necessary to cut off the seventh and eighth grades and separate them from the lower grades in order that the pupils may be interested or happy or profitably employed.

There does not seem to be any reason why, with an hour in the day allowed for optional studies as suggested, classes in algebra or in Latin or in German or in French cannot be formed wherever there is a call for them, for those pupils who wish, or whose parents wish them, to begin these subjects.

Such a plan would be of the greatest value also in that the improved facilities for the seventh and eighth grades would be available, in a considerable degree, for sixth-, and fifth-, and fourth-grade pupils, and even for the younger ones, where they were fitted to profit by the opportunities.

Such a plan would make the six-and-six arrangement, as a means of securing desirable provision for the seventh and eighth grades, as unnecessary as an automobile in Venice.

But strong as the educational and administrative reasons to be urged against this perhaps less dangerous type of the six-and-six plan are, the strongest argument is again political and social.

We have long viewed with apprehension the gradual disappearance of men from the elementary schools. In many cases now the more energetic and ambitious women are beginning to follow the men into the high schools, where the pay is better, and into the professions, and into business. Every superintendent of schools knows how difficult it is to keep those women who are strongest and most able, and especially to keep men of the type we wish our boys and girls to be associated with, in the service of the average elementary school. With the seventh and eighth grades cut away, nothing is more certain than that the most desirable men and the stronger women would be drawn, in increasing proportion, into the secondary schools and into business employments. The elementary schools would be left more and more in charge of the more mediocre and less aspiring women and of a few unambitious men.

The American common school has not always been high in economic efficiency; it has not always given back dollar for dollar the value that was put into it. But as a nursery of democracy, no instrument has ever equalled it. For four generations, it has been transforming the children of Old World immigrants into American citizens. It is more important to the perpetuity of American institutions than any other agency. Imperfect as it has been, it is indispensable.

With the plan proposed by my opponent, the American common school, in which all the children of all the people are to be educated, would sink from its high estate. It would become a school composed of little children taught by women. Beautiful and splendid as the service of American women has been to American schools, no one, they least of all, would wish to see such a result. The welfare of the nation demands that the common schools be not reduced below their present dignity and importance; that the needed reforms in the grammar grades be made without destroying the elementary schools as an influence in our national life.

We cannot afford to listen to a proposal which will delegate to the secondary schools and colleges the chief duty of shaping the social and political ideals and attitudes of the nation. We cannot stand idly by while the birthright of the American public school passes from it; we cannot consent to this plan which will make of the common school an ineffective and feeble thing as regards its function as a nursery of democratic sentiment and patriotic citizenship; we cannot consent to have the common schools, which have been the bulwark of American ideals, transformed into a system of infant schools.

GREETINGS

DAVID B. JOHNSON, PRESIDENT, NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION,
ROCK HILL, S.C.

I congratulate the officers of this Department of Superintendence and I congratulate you upon this great meeting in this great and progressive city.

As we are having a record-breaking meeting here, so also we hope to have a record-breaking meeting of the general Association at New York City next July. In order that we may have that, however, we must have your loyal support and your presence there. May we not confidently count on both?

I hope that none will allow his allegiance to the parent Association to be weakened in any respect because of his commendable allegiance to this great department. The parent Association needs your presence and your help. I believe the great body of teachers of the rank and file will be benefited by your attendance upon the meetings of the general Association and I believe you yourselves will be benefited thereby. Let us have then a great get-together meeting next summer of the teachers of all classes in this

great country. Let us determine to put the National Education Association where it belongs—first among the educational associations of the world in numbers, in influence, and in helpful work undertaken and accomplished. It does seem that out of 600,000 teachers in this country, we ought to have more than 7,200 active members of the National Education Association. Would it not be a great service to the schools, to the teachers themselves, and to our country for us to work to increase the active membership of the National Education Association, an organization which stands for development of leadership in that army which is doing the most effective work of all forces of any kind in preparing for the defence of our country against its most deadly foes—ignorance, inefficiency, disloyalty, and low moral standards?

The meeting in New York next summer will be the first meeting of the Association ever held there, and we hope to make it memorable in many respects. I am glad to tell you that all of the educational, commercial, and civic forces of New York City and the educational forces of the state of New York are working together heartily and enthusiastically to help us make the meeting a great one. Columbia University and New York University have both postponed the opening of their great summer schools until after the meeting of the Association to avoid conflict with it.

A number of entertainments and interesting trips will be arranged for the visiting teacher, of which one will be a trip up the Hudson, probably to West Point. I cannot speak officially as to Coney Island or Chinatown, but, without these sights, the many other sights and experiences of New York City will prove a liberal education to anyone who has never been there and renewed inspiration to everyone who has.

THE PUBLIC SCHOOL AND THE NEW AMERICAN SPIRIT

J. GEORGE BECHT, EXECUTIVE SECRETARY, STATE BOARD OF EDUCATION,
HARRISBURG, PA.

Little more than a month ago, there occurred in the city of Philadelphia an event which was widely noted in the public press as one of the most significant and important conferences assembled in this country in recent years. That conference sounded a national call to public and private agencies to enlist in the work of Americanizing America. Gathered together on that notable occasion were representative men and women from the various phases of social, professional, industrial, and civic life. Capital and labor, official and civilian, settlement worker, teacher, preacher, and social economist sat side by side in earnest conference on one of the most complicated problems that confronts the America of today.

The conference had its origin in a propaganda, inaugurated less than a year ago, to promote a nation-wide movement to bring American citizens,

foreign born and native born alike, to a realization of the common privileges, the common opportunities, and the common loyalties of all the inhabitants of America wherever born. Directly stated, its object is to devise ways and means to amalgamate the many diverse peoples inhabiting the United States into a national unity; to encourage the use of the English language thruout the nation; to promote the best standards of American living in every community; to teach the proper interpretations of American citizenship; and to encourage a recognition of foreign-born men and women in the human, social, and civic aspects as well as in the industrial aspects of our American life.

Thoughtful people everywhere recognize the fact that the problem of self-government is not solved. Far from being solved, it is just beginning to disclose itself in all its vast complexity. In small units of government where the interests of the people are limited and range along well-defined lines, where there is a common ideal, and where competition is slight, there the problem of self-government presents relatively few difficulties. But where the unit of government is large, where the interests and purposes of a people are diverse, and where the spirit of competition is marked, there we shall find self-government an increasingly complex problem—one that challenges the best thought of a free people.

In this country we have passed from a simple homogeneous people into a highly complex heterogeneous cosmopolitanism. The several groups of early settlers were widely differentiated in point of customs, creeds, habits, manners, and traditions, and succeeding generations retained and passed on many of the racial or group characteristics, yet within each group life's activities were ranged along simple lines. Because people live far apart, racial characteristics did not obtrude themselves and national life developed with comparative smoothness. But the multiplication of interests thru invention, scientific discovery, industrial and commercial expansion has expanded simple life. Into this natural expansion of the internal life of the American people, Europe has poured annually for many years thousands of her subjects. The vastness of our territory and the economic opportunities on this side and a restless discontent with the intolerant social, political, and oftentimes religious conditions of the Old World have caused a flood of immigrants to invade our shores, greater in number of individuals than any recorded migration in history. The first decade of the present century added nearly 9,000,000 aliens to our population.

An examination of the figures relating to the alien element in this country shows that every third person in the United States is either foreign born or born of foreign parents, and that three millions cannot speak the English language and twice as many more cannot read English. One-sixth of the population (15,000,000) of the United States is therefore directly or indirectly influenced by foreign conditions. Four-fifths of the more recent immigrants belong to the class of unskilled laborers. Seventy-five

per cent of the inhabitants of cities having a population of over a million are foreign born or in the generation of the immigrant. Furthermore, the tendency to mass in certain states and centers is a marked characteristic. It is a current saying that New York is the largest German city in the world except Berlin; the largest Italian city except Rome; the largest Polish city except Warsaw, and by far the largest Jewish city in the world. Fifty different languages are spoken by this alien folk. One thousand two hundred newspapers in the United States are printed in thirty-one languages other than English. These papers are generally American in spirit, but their chief items of interest are news of the fatherland. Thus they keep the alien in constant touch and sympathy with his native land.

The assimilation of this polyglot immigration into the American nation is one of the tremendously significant problems confronting America today. The matter of absorption is becoming increasingly difficult owing to their vast numbers, their varied habits and traditions, and their inability to grasp the full meaning of the spirit of liberty as exemplified in the thought and activities of our people.

The elemental background of American liberty was the fusing of the spirit of Puritan and Cavalier thru the shock of the Revolutionary War. That influence may be traced across the continent. From the crossing of their blood, the union of their virtues, and the mingling of their best traditions came the type of American citizen who influenced history during the greater part of the nineteenth century. During the early period of immigration, beginning distinctively in 1840, most of the immigrants came from Northern Europe. Since they had many of the same traditions and ideals and the same political standards, the process of assimilation was comparatively easy, but in the last twenty years most of the immigrants have come from Southern Europe and are farther removed from the thought and spirit of American life. With limited understanding and lack of training and of vision, they do not readily adjust themselves to the new environment. Misunderstood and ostracized, as they often are, their disappointment gives way to discontent, which is likely to express itself in turbulence.

But a new social ideal is taking possession of America today. It is the spirit speaking out from the great heart of humanity. It recognizes the vast and intricate human relationships the world over. It realizes that the treatment of the immigrant and his relationship to the social and industrial order present an unprecedented problem. The new American spirit stands not for the elimination of whatever has not been produced on American soil; but it rather welcomes the best of the culture, the arts, and the crafts of the Old World, that thru the process of education and training these may be incorporated into our life and thus we may be enriched with this spiritual inheritance.

In aid of this new movement to Americanize America, the distinctive formal educational forces of the country will play no unimportant part.

Already the United States Bureau of Education is co-operating with the Bureau of Immigration, and the public school has become the rallying-ground for the organization of the new forces. The school is rapidly divesting itself of the archaic methods of teaching citizenship. The time is not far past when memorizing preambles to constitutions, powers and duties of congresses and legislatures, outlining departments of government, and learning definitions constituted the teaching of civics. The painful results were apparent when pupils described England's government as a "limited mockery," and confidently asserted "that the first conscientious congress met in Philadelphia and that the constitution of the United States was established to promote domestic hostility."

The adult foreigner must be prepared for citizenship no less than his children—nay, even greater is the necessity that he shall have special training. Fortuitous conditions will educate the plastic and impressionable child, while the parent responds only to specific training. And all too frequently the alien receives no aid, encouragement, or opportunity to prepare for the sacred right except at the instance of political partisanship. The school for the adult is becoming to be as much a part of public education as a school for the child. Our attitude to the foreigner has not always been characterized by sympathy or even respect. Too often we have tried to awe him with the superiority of our institutions, by exploiting our traditions, extolling our heroes, and boasting of our freedom, hoping thereby to impress him with our vaunted greatness and thus cause him to forget his fatherland and to discard the customs and culture of his race. Such an attitude clearly violates the fundamental principles in training for loyalty.

Critical observers of social heredity point out what must be very apparent to anyone who analyzes the problem presented by the fact that a man deeply and truly disloyal to his own folk and culture is not likely to become a deeply and truly loyal American. Then, too, there is always the obvious danger which has its basis in a profound and fundamental psychology that in any attempt to change or completely transfer from one loyalty to another, the very capacity for loyalty is destroyed. Nothing is more deeply rooted than social and group instincts and traditions. To strip these from the individual and to cover him with an alluvium of social habits ever so thick may after all prove to be only a cheap substitute.

What makes the Japanese patriotism so vital is the fact that the religion of the Japanese includes a reverence for the past. That reverence is the thing that is perpetuated. The school must make more of our national holidays. Unfortunately, one of our essentially patriotic holidays comes during the vacation period. But happily there has been a decided reaction from the degeneracy of a bombastic, half-riotous occasion, with its toll of injury to life and limb, to a more dignified mode of celebration in which sanity and safety are predominating characteristics. The schools here can render a service by making our national holidays an opportunity for teach-

ing the lessons of sacrifice. Too often the alien looks upon this land of the free and this home of the brave as a land of unrestricted liberty. He must understand that personal liberty must always comport with moral law and political liberty with civil law. In our land, democracy has a problem of race as well as a problem of social and industrial classifications.

The revival of pageantry in various communities, working out thru ceremonial and dramatic form the episodes that marked the rise and progress of a city or community, is one of the most significant methods of impressing upon the young the spirit of sacrifice and social service. American children show their love and appreciation for heroic deeds in their selections of declamations which set forth the exploits of such heroes as Horatius, Gustavus Adolphus, and William of Orange. These make their appeal to children, not because the expression of their lives symbolizes a race or a group, but because they represent fundamental expressions of human life. The school and the community should help preserve the best traditions of the alien and help him to work them out into the newer relationships. To neglect their heroes is to subtract one of the most fruitful factors in teaching patriotism. Garibaldi, Pasteur, Disraeli, Volta, Mendelssohn, Marconi have a meaning to the world that is not consequent upon the fact that they were born across the sea. The courage, strength, ardor, and spirit of the great men of any nation are admired by other nations.

Hitherto the school has regarded the teaching of citizenship as a special topic, or the work of a separate department, but we are learning that every recitation constitutes a lesson in citizenship, and that there is an arithmetic of character, a geography of character, as well as the ethics of character. There is no branch of study that may not lend itself to training for civic righteousness and civic efficiency. The problem of training youth in citizenship does not involve new institutions, new text, and new subject-matter, but rather a new attitude of the teachers and a new atmosphere in the classroom. Children must be helped to think thru the problems of the community and the relationships of the individual to the social group to which he belongs as well as to the civic order. The alien, as well as the native American, needs to be instructed in the limitations of liberty. He must learn that his liberty must be liberty under the law. If American children understood this as thoroly as they ought to understand it, we should not have to blush in the presence of the foreign child when children of native Americans, with half-baked ideas about liberty and independence, interpret that liberty and independence in terms of unbridled license. What indeed must be the effect upon children of the alien when in high schools or in the grades they note the pupils strike because someone has been punished, or because a teacher has been promoted or demoted or a holiday refused? Above all else, the school must teach a reverence for the law and respect for the rights of others. No word is so misunderstood as "liberty."

The problem of democracy is this: "How to utilize without waste the tremendously potent forces of human life that are everywhere about us." The problem is largely individual. The wealth in character of the state is, in the long run, the wealth in character of the individuals composing it. Every social structure is the outgrowth of personal ideals. The public school has been an efficient agency. It will be more effective in the future as, with deeper consecration, superintendents and teachers advance to the unprecedented problems that lie before them. With new ideals, new aspirations, new hopes for the enlarged brotherhood of America, may we not hope that these dissimilar nationalities will be incorporated into the newer type of citizenship?

THE SUPERINTENDENT AS THE LAYMAN SEES HIM

THOMAS W. CHURCHILL, PRESIDENT, BOARD OF EDUCATION, NEW YORK, N.Y.

There are 5,833 public-school superintendents in America. I have a speaking acquaintance with only 111. From the superiorities of these to fashion an ideal head, including such pulchritudes as a layman especially admires in a school executive, is my undertaking.

In mixing my paints I should like plenty of red. Rousseau's dictum comes to my mind: "Let him first be a man." You want warm body color in making the portrait of one whose main business is the rearing and culture of men. Red blood, hard muscle, virile speech, manly manners seem to me indispensable in the head of a school system. The traditional pattern with spectacles, with the scholar's stoop, the parchment skin, the painfully proper speech chastely devoid of slang and expletive—the type strictly devoid of variation from the conventional—has had its day.

The perpetuation of a deep and accurate scholarship has long been preached as the purpose of public schools by mild-mannered men who expressed rather their own instinctive desire than any great public need. Those who founded the American public-school system had no such notion. Enlightenment, liberty, self-management, self-government—that is, ability for, and desire of, democratic citizenship, each working for all and all for each—was the result expected by the early patriots who proposed in America that education should be free and universal. There cannot be any doubt of this. The words of Jefferson, of Adams, of Franklin, of Washington, and of the framers of the Ordinance of 1787, under which the schools of this western territory grew, are as clear as the sunshine in this particular. The perpetuation of scholarship, the preservation of polite learning, the bestowal of a literary culture—all as an asset of personal distinction—was undoubtedly the aim of educators in the period before the Revolution. Learning meant gentility. Gentleman and scholar were words repeatedly linked together. School meant leisure; leisure meant means; means meant birth or high estate; all meant aristocracy.

No one would think of disputing that. It is too plainly written in the history of the world before the overturn of 1776. But what especially interests us now is the slowness with which the principles of the Revolution permeated the soul and substance of education. The Fathers of the Republic and the statesmen of succeeding years have been in substantial agreement that tax-supported schools are for the creation of an intelligent, liberty-loving, self-directive people. On the other hand, there has persisted in the public schools a surprising amount of Old World assumption that the lower schools ought chiefly to concentrate their attention upon grammar and classic arithmetic, leading to upper public schools where Latin, ancient mythology and history, rhetoric and polite scholarship are the staples of instruction. Is that not true? Our forefathers conceived a school system to generate political virtue for the future; our fathers let the school master continue to retail the pedantic learning of the past. Our theory of schools proposes the cultivation of manhood; our practice clings to the mediaeval purpose of producing learned men of letters. Tradition insists that the school superintendent be a scholar. All the underlying reason for the existence of schools, all the needs of the time demand, "Let him first be a man." A century and a half of American familiarity with the school manager assuming the scholar-type has lamentably failed to give the school superintendent that confidence and respect which are required to enable the schools to realize the purpose for which they were established. Perpetuation of a scholastic ideal dear only to a very small proportion of the country is much easier for a superintendent than any other course. His life, spent among books, his thoughts, guided from infancy along well-trodden paths thru normal school and university, his purpose incrustured with academic ideas, repeated year after year in conventions of his own kind, make of him a Living Yesterday. He is concerned with the perfection of systems by which what-used-to-be may more perfectly be preserved. This notion of a superintendent's function has lamentably failed. There never was, since the nation was born, so widespread and definite a protest against the failure of schools. Cities misgoverned, public lands stolen, whole precincts selling their votes, juvenile crime increasing, colleges bending their necks for the yoke of rich men's foundations, periodicals reeking with salacity, the drama smothered in sex-madness, and prominent employers informing the newspapers that the school children can neither read, nor write, nor spell, heads of state departments of education confessing that "the lives of school children are wasted,"¹ all these things are weakening the American faith in public education. Far be it from me to insist that all or any of these distressing things can fairly be charged to the failure of the schools. But the pertinent fact is that the founders of the free-school system expected it to produce a higher type of self-governing citizen than the Old World knew. The distressing outcome is that so many

¹ Andrew S. Draper, state commissioner of education, New York.

prominent publicists¹ declare that the hopes of the Fathers have been bitterly disappointed.

Among the many answers that suggest themselves to these somber reflections, these two take prominence. Either the expectations of what public education ought to do have been too high or the public schools have not been efficiently directed toward realizing these expectations.

First, was the hope and belief of the founders of the free public school that it would preserve liberty, prevent tyranny, decrease vice and crime, and increase human happiness, too high a hope and too confident a belief? Most of you have said no. When the superintendent campaigns for increase of funds, he urges that the money be spent for schools so as not to be needed for jails—to set men right rather than to lock men up for going wrong. You call the school the bulwark of the nation's liberties, the agent of progress, the urging force for "that one far-off, divine event toward which the whole creation moves." We cannot look to the school superintendent for a denial that the results expected from free and universal education have been estimated too high. We come to the other query: Have the public schools been really directed toward delivering an intelligent, liberty-loving, self-governing, co-operating, happy people? I think not. They have been too generally used as the means of perpetuating an ancient conception of scholarship. Their programs show it, their managers' words declare it. Nothing short of a complete revision of the conception of public-school service will abate the dissatisfaction which has arisen as the result of a comparison of the product of the schools with the conception of what public education is for. The main agent of this revision is obviously and inevitably the superintendent. He must purge himself of the fallacy that scholarship is the main desideratum in himself or in the school system. The public does not tax itself for scholarship. It expects intelligence. Intelligence is as distinct from scholarship as morality is from theology. Intelligence is common-sense; it is "know how" penetration, brightness, understanding. Scholarship is the sum of the conventional attainments which custom and fashion have imposed upon schools. Intelligence is mind-power for use in any circumstance, old or new. Scholarship is an accumulation which requires a special situation for its enjoyment, either the leisure of the study or a company of specially trained persons. Your communities are not demanding of you the graduation of scholars, but an output of human creatures who can think, reason, judge, and decide about the large concerns of personal and national life. Most of you and most of your helpers have been trained to think about academic subjects—about nouns and pronouns, *x* and *y*, which do not matter much. To say a thing is academic (that is, pertaining to school) is to say that it will not work. This was well enough when education was the preparation of gentlemen

¹ Richard Grant White, Rebecca Harding Davis, Charles W. Eliot, Rabbi Emil Hirsch, Edward Bok, Michael Friedsam, Captain Charles King.

superior to toil. To maintain such an academic education at the expense of a nation of workers is as fatuous as it is dishonest. These observations do not hurt you any more to hear than they hurt me to say. I, too, have been nurtured on flowers from the gardens of antiquity. I, too, love the echoes from a learned and refined past. To be called scholar, to parse, to scan, to quote, are as dear to me as to the most refined of this learned body, but scant 5 per cent of my post-academic life is spent upon the things my schooling emphasized. Scant 5 per cent of all our citizens travel paths to which their school training naturally leads. To bring a school system to an adequate public service does not demand a scholar. Were it not for a fashionable tradition about it, such as requires the English judges to incase their heads in cages of false hair, or Michiganders to vote the Republican ticket, a superintendent might properly be unable to know whether it was Nessus or Narcissus who had trouble with his shirt, or whether Savonara was an indoor skater or a toilet preparation. But truly it is of supreme importance that the person to undertake the commission of bringing the schools to produce what they were founded to produce—intelligent, self-governing, co-operating citizens—shall be a supremely manly man.

I have known superintendents who set great store by organization. They made and tended systems. The mechanism bedeviled them. They could act only as the machines within their own heads would allow. "Keep the rule even if you lose the boy" was their motto. Their hero was that sweet little idiot of our boyhood days, Casabianca of the burning deck, immortal martyr of stupid regularity.

Of what use is an organizer who fails to produce anything that is worth organizing? Our school system is wonderfully provided with good roads laid out by superintendents, but the highways do not lead where the children have to go. The expert roadmaker, the skilled organizer, is in great danger from his own ability. Often the people of his system will travel more joyously and arrive more quickly at a more desirable place on paths of their own making. The organizer runs a great risk of becoming a driver. He mechanizes education too much, therefore he dehumanizes it. Maybe some parts of the country need more organizing power in their superintendents. Those I have seen ought to soft-pedal their organization for a while and use the human stops a little more. Let us have a superintendent who can organize, but let him first be a man.

One hears much about the superintendent as leader. It sounds exalting, more often to the superintendent than to the teachers. A need of leadership there has always been since superintending was invented. Where the leadership idea is over-prominent in the superintendent's mind, there is inevitably a narrowing of his ideas down to those put forward by himself in exclusion of those offered by others. An educational department is a garden of talent wherein hundreds of valuable seeds of education lie in the soil along with weeds a-plenty. Some leaders are so keen to banish

weeds that the possibilities of the varied talent all thru the system are never realized, but remain dry seeds in dry dust. It stands to reason that the sum of the brains of a teaching staff, including the brains of a superintendent, ought to amount to more than the brains of the superintendent alone. Leadership, personal authority, concentrated spotlight on the head man, have kept back many a city from its money's worth of education in the schools. What we want in the superintendency is a man, not a monopolist, a discoverer who searches out and pushes along every genuine fellow-laborer who will contribute ideas for the common good. Let us have manly give-and-take in educational councils with the superintendent conscious of the fact that there ought to be many persons in the department as intelligent and as able as he. There is an innate spirit of advance in every normal personality. A superintendent suffused with a real devotion for public service will nurse that spirit, inspire it, give it scope and employment to develop a school system rich in able personalities. A narrow-minded superintendent will fear the competition of other minds, will give none of his supreme problems to other workers in the schools, and will carry on what should be a democracy of public service as tho it were the realm of an absolute monarch and he its czar.

In schools and colleges there have appeared the students' council and other co-operative associations. The vital element of such an idea is the very American essence. We believe in the management of their own affairs by the people themselves. We believe that to prepare the people for such management public schools were established and are maintained. We count it, therefore, a regrettable condition if any school system or any superintendent neglects to use to a large degree the form and principle of democratic government in the conduct of departmental affairs. I know the objections that are running thru your minds; that the teachers are not big enough to discuss educational policy; that the teachers are too selfish to recommend an extensive improvement of the service if it brings any hardship upon them; that in many cities of the country the teachers are pulling one way and the superintendent another. But, granting all the infirmities of teachers, which make the sharing of participation with them seem unduly arduous, the way to make teachers big enough to grasp big policies is to bring teachers up against big policies. The way to cure the selfishness of teachers is to bring it up against a great service demanding sacrifice. The way to stop teachers and superintendents from pulling in different directions is for superintendents when teachers are pulling toward the public benefit to pull with them. The educational work in each locality is greater than one superintendent can do. There must be a larger number of hearty people uniting for the common good. No mere scholar, no organizer, no one full of the ambition of personal leadership, can get hearty and efficient service out of these people. Back of scholarship, formation of plans, and desire of leadership, is the great inspiring hope which constitutes the essence

of teaching, namely that the nation shall grow in wisdom, in loyalty, in generosity, in the great qualities of manhood. For this, scholarship has proved inadequate, organization has failed, leadership has not sufficed. Greater than all these and waited for by city after city thruout the whole nation is the incarnate spirit of manhood, a living, virile sense of the great possibilities of life, a determination to organize the agencies at hand to realize it. I yield to none in respect for the clergy, those ministers of God in a careless world preaching the Gospel of a clean and happy life. But yours is a ministry which gives you mankind in the making. Twelve times as long as to the clergyman, you have the minister's flock each year in the schools. In your hands is the rearing and culture of men. The makers of our free school conceived this to be its work, and not the delivery of that cut-and-dried curriculum of yours which goes by the name of an education. I do not conceive your main business to be the question: "What is the Boston course of study?" or "What does Cleveland teach?" But I do know that in your own town there is waiting for an answer the query: "What are these children around me? What are the possibilities before them? What are the forces of manhood and womanhood by which they shall realize their destiny? How can I help these forces grow? How guide them aright?" We may no longer close our ears to these demands and salve our souls with the unction that we are doing what Boston does and with as much success. The business of a superintendent is not now to keep in motion the old machine that came over in the "Mayflower," a pattern of the thing that polished the sons of gentlemen in the days when knighthood was in flower. A superintendent is not a tale that is told, but an agent of a better tomorrow. His mission is not to prove that Horace Mann was right, but to propound anew to the best minds in his own town: "What is the most we can do for these children?" It means the breaking of old ties, the surrender of fond memories, the abandonment of assumed omniscience, the adoption of humility and willingness to learn, bravery to advance, audacity to hazard new adventures, courage to take one's commission in one's hand and to risk it among carpers and cavilers such as have obstructed progress since creation's dawn. Oh, it is inspiring to be a school superintendent in 1916! There never was a time when a real one was greater in demand. If he will cease to be content with forms and will give himself, both heart and soul, to the pursuit of that end which the best vision of the best thinkers of '76 conceived, a sustaining spirit will come within him driving out all pettiness and weakness whatever that has at any time brought any superintendency into contempt. He will, by this devotion and this service, feel himself to grow and to remain in the full stature of a man.

TO WHOM IS THE BOARD OF EDUCATION RESPONSIBLE?

A. E. WINSHIP, EDITOR, "JOURNAL OF EDUCATION," BOSTON, MASS.

It is true that a school consists of a teacher, textbooks, and pupils, but in America there would be no teachers, no textbooks, no schoolhouse, no equipment, nothing out of which to make a school, but for the board of education that administers the funds that are tax raised.

So far as the public schools are concerned, the boards of education, directly or indirectly, have the first word and the last as to the use of tax-raised school moneys. Doctrinarians may quarrel as to the desirability of having experts, pure and simple, handle the funds, and direct how they shall be used, but they will achieve so little in our day that we may assume that boards of education will stand sponsor for the use of these moneys.

Members of boards of education are as intelligent, as devoted, as honest as any class of people intrusted with any official responsibility. The traditional assumption is that boards of education are chosen primarily to prevent the spending of the people's money, that their business is to put on brakes, to make it difficult for superintendents and other school officials to get money for school uses. Boards of education often try to find ways and means to prevent teachers from getting influence that might increase their salaries. This is due entirely to the inherited tradition that it is the first duty of these boards of education to prevent increase of taxes for school purposes. Unless this attitude can be changed, it makes no appreciable difference whom we elect to boards of education, men or women, experts or philanthropists.

The board of education is elected by the people to look after the interests of the children and to do that alone. It is the business of the board of education to get as large appropriations as can be wisely used for the good of the children, for schoolhouses, for equipment, for textbooks, for teachers. Boards of education are expected, are required by common-sense and conscience, to get as adequate and as modern buildings and equipment and as efficient teaching as they can get the money to buy.

Every law providing for the election of such boards specifies that they are elected to provide school privileges for "all the children of all the people." No law was ever passed that stated that these boards are elected to prevent the use of money, to put on the brakes, financially. Whoever is elected on a ticket that virtually pledges a candidate to serve in the interest of the taxpayer instead of in the interest of children is virtually doing an unlawful act, is trying to thwart the purpose of the law. It ought to be possible to indict such a man for contempt of legislation, at least for conspiracy to defeat the ends of the law. Any party or organization or group of citizens who should run a candidate on the issue of serving the interests of the taxpayer should be indictable for conspiracy to defeat the purposes of the law. The mayor and the city council are expected, officially and traditionally,

to guard the treasury, but the board of education is expected by specific law to get all the money that can be used advantageously for the advantage of the children.

It is not at all uncommon for board members to be elected to erect a schoolhouse in a given section out of spite against some other section of the district, or to oust a superintendent who has said or done something with no relation to education that arouses the prejudices of a given set of people, or to depose a principal who has offended some influence, or sect, or organization. Any such campaign, any such pledging of a candidate, any action based on such a pre-election pledge, is definitely, deliberately, emphatically unlawful and should be indictable. Members of boards of education are responsible first, last, always, and everywhere to the children and to them alone.

Boards of education have the greatest of all responsibilities in American official life. They have America's future in their hands as have no other class of Americans. On the lower side, they must protect the men and women of tomorrow from the civic pests of the cheapness and narrowness, the prejudice and spite of today which have been inherited from yesterday. On the other side, they must protect the men and women of tomorrow from the conceited dreamers of today.

To the members of boards of education alone is given the opportunity to get the right perspective of the child in the schools as he is jeopardized by the conservative of yesterday and the zealot of today while trying to plume his wings for the opportunities of tomorrow.

SOME SUGGESTIONS FOR IMPROVING THE RURAL-SCHOOL CURRICULA

G. C. CREELMAN, PRESIDENT, ONTARIO AGRICULTURAL COLLEGE,
GUELPH, ONTARIO, CANADA

The whole rural-school problem may be considered as a large one in itself. And there are many phases to the problem. Where population has decreased, there is an attendance so small as to hinder proper class organization or the incentives to work that come from the enthusiasm of numbers; there is the frequent changing of teachers, due to goodness knows how many reasons, but economic chiefly; there is the inexperienced girl-teacher trying her apprentice hand in the rural school; there is the poor equipment and the non-attractive school and surroundings; there is the non-progressive board of trustees, interpreting trusteeship to mean doing only what the law makes compulsory and with no vision of the great dividends to be earned in investing generously in education; there is irregularity of attendance, owing to bad roads, sickness, work at home, and indifference to education; there is the lack of play—that best part of school life; there

is need for medical inspection; there is need for truancy officers and real compulsory education; there is the dropping out of school of the boys about the time they reach fourteen years of age, going out into life thus insufficiently equipped; there is the school work reflecting courses of study prepared with the graded urban school in view; there is the high school only at a distance, requiring boarding in town and again giving instruction specially adapted to the urban dweller or the few pupils who may proceed to the college or to professional life.

Agricultural teaching is the remedy.—What is the best way to meet the defects in our schools and what different kind of school should be aimed at? Our answer to the first question is: The rural-school problem will be best solved by the introduction of agriculture and domestic science. We must make our schools appeal strongly to our patrons as institutions worth while, deserving strong financial support as institutions giving children something which they cannot afford to do without. Not agriculture in the school so much as the school in agriculture is the goal. There will be a rationalizing of the work of the rural school; it will reflect its environment and meet the real needs of those depending on it for an education. It will seek to serve and not to stand off apart from its best opportunities. It will not interpret agriculture and homemaking as narrow things. It will mean play and music and books and social mingling as much as soils and crops and cattle and cooking, "for life is more than meat as the body is more than raiment." The school will be for everybody; not limited to the uses of children but bringing everybody to school, if not for instruction, then for no less necessary recreation. It will be the heart of the community, vitalizing every home. From it will arise new visions of education.

The new kind of school.—What different kind of school might be aimed at? There is a kind that embodies the new spirit of co-operation. Perhaps it will necessitate the breaking down of our sectional scheme of school administration, making the township or a group of schools the unit of administration. It will need a new kind of trustee, and perhaps a larger outlay of money.

In many places the old kind of school has served its day. There should be a consolidation of schools which will permit of the introduction of agriculture, domestic science, and manual training. Possibly this may be associated with a township or county people's high school, located in a central place (not a town) in the township, managed by a township board of trustees composed of farmers. Such a school will have as its headmaster a teacher trained at the agricultural college; his classes will be conducted chiefly in the winter months, and pupils of all ages will be taught; his summer work will be to follow his pupils on to their farms, help in the other schools of the township, and work his own little farm which is provided with his home. In time a teacher of domestic science will carry on similar work with the girls and women. The school will be provided with adequate

grounds and facilities for play. The school will be a social as well as an educational center for the township. There will be a good assembly hall in which public meetings, lectures, and social gatherings may be held. With the school as the head, all the other schools of the township will be closely associated, receiving from it help and inspiration.

Such a school might be, if the people desire it!

In spite of the general progress undoubtedly being made, all these defects must be recognized and met. We have made considerable advancement in the last ten years; we have still a long way to go. We must ever set up higher ideals if continued progress is to be secured.

In introducing this topic, I am presuming that all of us have long ago in our minds settled two questions: (1) That every boy in every country school should have an opportunity to learn the scientific principles of his father's business. (2) That every girl should receive instruction in household science whether she or her parents believe in it or not.

No matter how strongly you and I have thought on this matter, however, these subjects have not been generally introduced into our schools, perhaps for the following reasons: (1) It is easy to outline a course of study that seems simple and easily introduced. It seems altogether different to transfer a course of study from paper into reality. You have no doubt found this out for yourselves. (2) Agriculture seems to be especially hard, not to introduce, but to get practical results therefrom. It is easy to interest children in plant and animal stories, but it is not easy to instruct children so that an improvement is readily seen in the field crops and the flocks and herds and the home life of the neighborhood. (3) The pressure of the general course of study limits the time for such new subjects. (4) There is a lack of knowledge of these subjects on the part of the superintendents and inspectors. They may assume, or even feel an interest in the work, but without definite knowledge the lack of ability to be helpful soon manifests itself and the teacher and pupils soon lose interest. (5) There is frequent changing of teachers. (6) The limited knowledge and experience of the teachers is beyond question the greatest difficulty.

Teaching agriculture in rural schools.—We have long since come to the conclusion that special training must be given to the teachers if definite or really instructive work is to be accomplished and that the state should pay for this training. This may be done in one of two ways: (1) The board and lodging and traveling expenses may be paid by the state, for a definite time, to some central place where agriculture is well taught; (2) the state may offer a bonus of \$25 or \$50 a year, to be added to salaries of such teachers as take such courses and afterward successfully teach such subjects to their pupils.

It is for each state to settle for itself where in the state such teacher's courses may be taken up. At first glance, it would appear perfectly natural to use the grounds and buildings and equipment and staff of the agricultural

college. We believe at the Ontario Agricultural College that we are doing some of our best work in training teachers for rural-school work. This does not mean that we are turning out teachers from our regular agricultural courses, but that we have thrown open our doors to the rural teachers of the province, and that in co-operation with the Department of Education we are using our large plant to help the cause of the rural school. This is bringing results.

The other way of trying to teach agriculture, in a pedagogical way in normal schools at odd hours and sandwiched in between other studies, has not met with success. On the other hand, given a purely agricultural environment with practical science teachers and fields and woods and flocks and herds and plants, and nature everywhere, it seems easy to interest and instruct along all lines of rural activities. We have had intelligent teachers in training who at first showed resentment when asked to make their own gardens, to collect insects or plants, and to make observations of temperatures and erosion and wood-lots. We have never had one who continued for six consecutive days who did not show first interest and then enthusiasm in the work.

School gardens.—Perhaps the easiest and best way to start the agricultural work in rural schools is to start the pupils to plant and care for gardens. We have had pupils return to the school-garden work on Saturdays when nothing that we can think of would induce them to return for regular school work. The garden idea permits of starting in winter with germination tests and weed-seed determinations, also selection of seed and removing of impurities from samples from father's granary and corn crib. While gardens imply flowers, I have seen in schoolyards splendid experiments with field crops, such as liming soil for alfalfa, spading under clover for green manure, the eradication of weeds by cultivation and by spraying, the growing of potatoes at different dates of seeding and with different kinds of fertilizers. In some gardens enough vegetables are grown to supply the domestic science class the following winter, from which the girls in turn make vegetable soup each day, for one cent a bowl, and serve it to all those who bring their lunches to school. Then again the garden furnishes endless illustrations for teaching arithmetic, language lessons, and so forth.

The school fall fair.—This has been one of our most progressive movements. The teachers and pupils seem to find in it a long-felt want.

With a small beginning in 1912 of 25 school fairs, the work has progressed so fast that this past season of 1915 as many as 234 school fairs were held in 41 different counties, including 2,291 schools representing 48,386 children. Seed was supplied and instructions were given to the children, who planted and cared for 51,243 plots. They also became responsible for 6,868 settings of hens' eggs of bred-to-lay strains. The total number of entries at the school fairs amounted to 116,236, and the total attendance, including children and adults, was 157,000.

A regular inspection of the plots in the summer is important. It keeps the teacher in the neighborhood; it helps the children to a better care of the plots, lends a pleasant diversion, and enlists a larger sympathy from the parents. Competent judges who can give their reasons for the awards are also a great help, not only in insuring fair play and no favoritism, but in emphasizing the importance of careful selection and preparation of exhibits.

At these fairs, oratorical contests have been inaugurated with splendid results. Hardly a school fair but had its attraction of ambitious boys and girls speaking from an improvised platform. Exhibits of cooking by the small girls have also come to be a very important feature of the school fall fairs.

Live stock judging is coming also to be a part of our school fair work. The parents supply the stock to be judged, and the district representatives or county agents conduct the contest, or some other agricultural college graduate is secured to superintend.

Teaching domestic science.—I shall not dwell upon this phase, as you have a special section on this program devoted to the work. I will say, however, that as 95 per cent of the people in the United States and Canada do all their own housework, it seems stupid that the people have not long since risen and demanded that the art and science of the household be made compulsory by every board of trustees in the country.

For one hundred dollars, equipment may be procured and used even in a one-room school, so that every girl may receive useful instruction in cooking and sewing and laundry work. She wants only a start, the rest she will get at home by constant and careful practice.

The older boys.—Many farmers' boys leave school permanently just when they should be starting their secondary education. There are many reasons why, and it is not necessary to mention them here. What we have not done is to make it easy for such boys to return to the same school some years later and find instruction according to the need. We have, it is true, added continuation classes to our common schools, but these have not attracted many pupils who have been out of school for any appreciable length of time. There must be hundreds of thousands of young men, between sixteen and twenty-five years of age, who would be greatly benefited, and perhaps given an entirely new viewpoint in life if they could get some systematic instruction just at this stage.

We find that six weeks' and ten weeks' courses for farmers' sons in the winter time are coming to play an important place in our agricultural educational scheme. As many as fifteen hundred, in classes of from ten to twenty-five, have been in attendance at such short courses in one season. Given a class of young men who have had practical experience in farming, and offer them a chance to learn the why of farm operations, and it is wonderful how quickly they will become interested. Keep them at it for six

or ten weeks, and it is remarkable how their whole outlook on life is changed. Co-operation becomes possible in the neighborhood; the agricultural college and experimental stations become real and personal; reports and bulletins are read and understood; cow-testing is made easy; a water system is now within reach; tile draining is practicable and possible, and the whole future looks altogether different. We secure agricultural college graduates to do the teaching. Good men who perhaps were school teachers before going to college, and who are now farming, are easily attainable at a moderate cost. We are trying in this way to give help to those who want it when they want it.

To sum up, it seems to me that what our rural-school curriculum needs is the teaching of real agriculture to young farmers and a chance for every girl to get a start in systematic homemaking while her time is not worth very much. I should like to see in every rural schoolhouse a creed for every boy and every girl, something like this.

ONTARIO COUNTRY BOY'S CREED

1. I believe that life in the country can be made just as pleasant and profitable as life in the city.
2. I believe that father and I can form a partnership that will suit both of us.
3. I believe that if I kill every weed on my father's farm we shall be well paid by the increased crop alone, to say nothing of the benefit to our neighbors.
4. I believe that by careful selection of our chickens I can double the output of the flock.
5. I believe that by introducing alfalfa on our farm we can keep twice as many domestic animals as at present.
6. I believe that by keeping twice as many animals we shall be able to grow much larger crops of alfalfa and other things.
7. I believe that by planting shade trees, growing flowers, shrubs, and keeping a tidy homestead, we shall be better contented and happier in every way and our farm will increase in value.
8. I believe not in luck, but in pluck.
9. I believe that farming is a most honorable calling, and, having decided to stay on the farm, it is my duty to make the best use of my time in school that I may be the better farmer in the days that are to come.
10. I believe in working when I work and playing when I play, and in giving and receiving a square deal in every act of life.

ONTARIO COUNTRY GIRL'S CREED

1. I believe that I have a right to be happy every day.
2. I believe that God's blue sky and God's green earth are a part of my inheritance.
3. I believe that I have a right to love little chickens and ducks and lambs and puppies as well as dolls and ribbons.
4. I believe I could take care of these things as well as my brother who does not love them as much as I.
5. I believe I would love to keep house better than anything else, and I only wish they taught housework at school.
6. I believe that keeping a garden all my own would be great fun, and I believe that I could be very happy in giving away the flowers and in cooking the vegetables that I raised myself.

7. I believe that I could study real hard at my grammar and geography and arithmetic and spelling if I could do cooking or sewing with the other girls in the afternoon.

8. I do not want to go to town and leave my father and mother and my brothers and sisters, for I know I shall miss them all and the trees and the creek and the green grass and the old woods and everything; but oh! I do not want to stay at home and do nothing but wash dishes and carry water and do the chores and grow old like auntie. I want to laugh and love and live.

9. I believe I can learn to sew and cook and do laundry work and do them well, and I want to learn them and I want to learn to do them well.

10. I believe in the square deal for girls as well as boys and I want everybody to be happy all the time—the old as well as the young.

JOINT DISCUSSION

THE MINIMUM ESSENTIALS VERSUS THE DIFFERENTIATED COURSE OF STUDY IN THE SEVENTH AND EIGHTH GRADES

I. LOTUS D. COFFMAN, PROFESSOR OF EDUCATION, UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA, MINNEAPOLIS, MINN.

There has been a growing educational theory that individual rights and liberties are paramount to social duties and to the social will. It is true that the most distinctive and valuable contribution of current educational psychology is a knowledge of individual differences. The discovery of these differences has resulted in an exaltation of the importance of the individual, and that exaltation has become the dominant note in educational theory and practice. So deeply enmeshed is the doctrine of individual differences in educational thought that we are in some danger of forgetting that interest, one of its by-products, is not always a measure of value, that mere spontaneous activity in itself never produced reflective thinking, that natural learning, apart from human intervention, is a fiction, a dream, an anomaly.

The only national rights anyone has are those he uses for collective welfare. Certain standards and certain values must be set up for the training so that all may more satisfactorily satisfy the conditions of good citizenship, of neighborhood, and of family life. At this particular time it is becoming increasingly imperative that we ask what is best for society, what is best for the state, rather than what is best for the individual. The gigantic problems this country is facing and will soon have to solve will demand new conceptions of responsibility, a more wholesome respect for the ideals of American life, a stiffening of our moral fiber, and a more rigorous mastery of the tools of learning.

If the efficiency of a state or of a nation depends upon the trained intelligence of the people, the school must play its part in solving those problems which are basic to social welfare and to national integrity; and in doing so it must provide first and above all a curriculum consisting of

minimum essentials, a curriculum consisting of those great facts and principles which all should be expected to acquire within the limits of their respective capacities.

The violent reaction we are experiencing against providing a curriculum consisting of minimum essentials is due to the wholesale attempt to apply a uniform curriculum uniformly to all classes of children. This practice has placed no premium upon variations in methods. But initiative upon the part of teachers will be stimulated and encouraged if we vary the methods of instruction to harmonize with the capacities of the children for the purpose of securing more uniform outcomes in matters of skill, knowledge, standards, ideals, appreciations, obligations, and duties. We regard it as a healthy sign and as a mark of progress that teachers enjoy great freedom in the adaptation of materials to the abilities of children. Any educational program that offers little opportunity for the exercise of resourcefulness and initiative on the part of teachers is the product of mediaevalism. A certain amount of freedom is desirable because it stimulates ambitious teachers to improve their methods; a certain amount is necessary because some individuals and some classes will do more work than other individuals or other classes.

But the great fact remains that there is a certain irreducible amount of material, constantly increasing in character and in amount, which all children should be required to master if they are to be in possession of those things which constitute the essentials of our common life and common welfare. It is quite as necessary, and certainly as valuable, that we emphasize the stabler aspects of society in the curriculum as that we be conversant with every variation proposed. Initiative is an eminently desirable quality, but initiative without guidance becomes anarchy; initiative without being founded upon a substratum of common ideals determined by sane leaders will result in national destruction. But ideals cannot be formulated in a vacuum. They always follow in the wake of or cluster about ideas, and it is those ideas and practices which constitute the basis of social life for which we are pleading.

It is not uncommon to hear the special pleaders of individual differences proclaiming that reading should be taught without readers, arithmetic without arithmetics, and that we should abandon all textbooks and courses of study. The discovery of an obsolete bit of material in the curriculum or some defect in method has encouraged them to declare the entire school system to be antiquated and worthless, the "most gigantic and momentous failure of modern times." They also urge differentiation in the seventh and eighth grades because of the elimination and retardation found in these grades, and they cite as the cause of this retardation the lack of adjustment between the different grades of ability found in the school and the course of study. While this mal-adjustment has no doubt contributed to the mortality of the schools, still the total population in school between 1900 and 1910,

as shown by the census returns, increased proportionately more rapidly than the general population for each age group, and more rapidly for boys than for girls in every state in the Union except Nevada. Altho mortality is descriptive of a condition to be ameliorated, we have much evidence to show that both enrolment and attendance are improving. The greatest achievement of the last century, one unparalleled anywhere else in all the world, is the retention in school of four children in ten to the age of fifteen and of one child in ten to the age of nineteen. We are not familiar with a single trustworthy investigation that establishes beyond question the fact that retardation and elimination are due primarily to the uniformities of the curriculum. That much of the retardation and elimination is due to causes over which the school has little or no control has been clearly demonstrated. Moreover, a recent investigation in one state has shown that enrolment and attendance have increased as rapidly in 120 schools having no vocational work as in 117 schools having vocational work. Evidently there is a nation-wide faith in public education, whether it be general or special, cultural or vocational.

Another of the stock arguments for the differentiation of the curriculum in these upper grades is that it should be organized to serve the needs of the community in which the school is located. We have no desire to minimize the importance of this conception. We are convinced that there should be many more contacts than now exist between the school and the community, that we have not yet become sufficiently sensitive and self-conscious concerning the possibilities of social service thru such contacts. The localization of the activities of the school in terms of the dominant industries and activities of the community will vitalize the curriculum and motivate instruction. It will make a direct appeal to the pupils and it will encourage local support for the schools. These results are highly desirable. But attempts to localize the school curriculum may result in a situation inimical to the interests of democracy. The natural consequence of localization may mean an accentuation of the differences already existing between the communities. If such be the case, and if the practice be extended indefinitely, then one of the great obligations of the public school will be neglected. If, as is generally admitted, the common school, and in that we would include the seventh and eighth grades, is the agent of universal education, if the station of a nation among the nations of the world can be determined by the attention it is giving to the general education of the masses, if social solidarity depends upon likemindedness rather than upon unlikemindedness, then we must safeguard those things which made for the homogeneity of our people, and not accentuate unduly community differences.

We cannot educate all who live in farming communities to be farmers, or all who live in mining communities to be miners. We know that a majority of the sons of any generation will not follow the occupations of

their fathers. Since there is a tremendous shift in occupations from generation to generation, is it not all the more important that all people be educated alike in those things which are essential to mutual understanding and to mutual intercourse? This does not imply that all shall think alike all the time, but that all shall have the basis and the instruments for similar thinking when it is required. Otherwise, the charlatan, the mountebank, and the demagog will need to appeal only to the emotions, the superstition, and the ignorance of the people to lead. But few will deny that an educated citizenry is as necessary to fight the battle of peace as a trained citizenry is necessary to fight the battles of war, and neither can be secured without common elements in our educational program.

Frequently the advocates of localization forget the fact that approximately one-half of the people living in cities were born, reared, and educated in rural districts. Had they been trained in the district schools in a narrow curriculum, colored by one or two local occupations, they probably would have found it far more difficult to adapt themselves to city life. Moreover, the mobility of our population between states, a tendency we should hardly think of restricting, must be reckoned with when we are considering education in terms of national good and national integrity. Unless we safeguard all those things which make for social welfare and mutual understanding and social intercourse in our educational program, the localization of the curriculum, valuable as this conception is, must lead to occupational stratification.

When any educational theory seeks to establish new ethical standards, to undermine our codes of personal morality, when it strikes powerfully and sharply at the value of racial experience, when it declares that many of our stabler institutions are antiquated and worthless, the validity of its arguments should be tested. Not education merely, but every phase of American life has been permeated and infected by the invidious implications of the doctrines of individualism.

The extent to which the doctrine of individual liberty has forced itself into business is a matter of common knowledge. Men will refuse to buy of a grocer or a butcher whose scales are not properly adjusted when they themselves resort to trickery in disposing of stocks and securities. Men will vote to imprison the dealer of adulterated milk when they themselves do not scruple in selling watered stock. In other words, business has become a game. At least, it is called a game in which each player is dominated by self-interest.

The same tendencies are at work in the political field. Politics, as such, is looked upon as a game in which trickery, deception, and fraud are the proper cards to play.

It would seem that we need a new conception of public responsibility. Taking morals and public duties as we find them, we are impressed with the necessity of devising new standards if we are to prevent degeneracy. We

must prevent the spirit of our trusteeship from sinking into abeyance and from being replaced by the spirit of selfish or local ends. To divert attention from the immediate and alluring and to center it upon the stabler aspects and interests of society is a problem of paramount importance.

The trial of democracy as a form of government before the civilized world has been going on too long to be overlooked in the burst of enthusiasm for human freedom. All human freedom is limited by its capacity for stable and efficient government. Democratic nations have died only by self-slaughter. The last shreds of autocracy can be extirpated in a democracy only by learning submission to law, not to a master; to efficiency of organization under a higher servant, not under a ruler; to energy and efficiency of devotion to the common welfare, not to individual liberty. Our nation faces the task of reinterpreting its ideals and readjusting its life. Purpose must take the place of destiny, and there must be a change from drift to mastery. Our domestic and public affairs and our educational program must all be more efficiently organized. In the future there will be less talk of rights and more insistence on duties. It will be realized that there can be no solidarity without sacrifices. If we do not loyally volunteer for the new life of our country, we shall be drafted. In this work of national readjustment our educational system will be tested as never before.

President Eliot has recently declared that democracy is on trial now and that unless it can effect a highly efficient organization with national unity as its goal it must perish when it comes into competition with more efficient nations. National integrity and economic efficiency depend upon intelligent citizens and they depend upon the educational ideals fostered by the country. If education is not used to promote the resources of the nation as a whole, but to divert these resources into individual channels, it becomes a source of weakness instead of strength. As Fouillée points out, "The danger that above all others the democratic nation must avoid is the disintegration of society into units with no immediate concern but self-interest, into individuals to whom social duties and bonds are gradually ceasing to appeal." A growing consciousness of social welfare and of social organization is calculated to shift the emphasis from the demand for individual liberty to a demand for social unity.

Modern educational psychology has not only made us aware of variations in ability, it has also discovered that there is a common central tendency around which individuals cluster or tend to cluster. Slight variations from this central tendency are numerous; large variations from it are rare. Similarities in mentality as well as similarities in social ideals and standards are after all important criteria for determining the selection of the materials of education and the attainments of children. Variation in ability is essential to social progress, but resemblances in ideals, customs, skills, and standards are essential to social stability. Differences among people are no more basic to democracy than likeness among people. That

community of ideals and ideas, which serves as the basis for mutual understanding and which must be lifted from level to level with each succeeding generation, cannot be assured without a common pabulum in the school. If this and succeeding generations are to consider common problems, if democracy is dependent upon agreement in thought and action with reference to the great fundamental conceptions and issues of life, then education in measuring up to its responsibility must seek to transmit the facts, principles, and standards and to inculcate the ideals which will safeguard those conceptions and issues.

A curriculum which serves this purpose cannot be narrow and restricted. It will be an enriched and socialized curriculum. All those things which relate to health, to civic responsibility, to our relations with one another, must be emphasized. There must be an examination and reinterpretation of the subjects now in the curriculum for the purpose of making them more serviceable and valuable to us all. New materials will be introduced under the sanction of new pressures for the purpose of satisfying new demands of general social utility.

Before specialized skill and knowledge are set up as ends of education, all that knowledge of a non-technical nature with which every well-informed and reasonably well-adjusted citizen in an American state is equipped; all those social and personal habits; all those ideals, attitudes, appreciations, prejudices, and contempts which distinguish the desirable citizen; all those duties and obligations which fix our responsibility and constitute the basis of our social life; all those tools which represent the instruments of learning and the expression of experiences as our common usefulness—all these common elements the seventh and eighth grades, whatever else they do or do not do, must see that their pupils possess on leaving them.

II. W. C. BAGLEY, DIRECTOR, SCHOOL OF EDUCATION, UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS, URBANA, ILL.

The question of differentiated curricula versus common elements in the seventh and eighth grades is not a question to be solved on the basis of expediency; it is not a question to be solved on the basis of individual, local, or partisan interests; least of all should the issues that it involves be clouded or obscured by emotion or prejudice. The answer that this department gives to this question is fairly certain to commit both the department and the public schools definitely and perhaps irretrievably to one or another of two fundamental educational doctrines, and this at the present time especially is not a responsibility to be considered lightly. Today, more than ever before, we are in a position to appreciate the fundamental influence which a permeating philosophy exerts over the conduct of a people. In a country where institutionalized education is universal, the doctrines that dominate the people's schools will have a large share in deter-

mining the doctrines that dominate the succeeding generation. Under our decentralized system of school administration, the body that has the largest power in determining the dominant educational doctrines is this representative body of school administrators. Your decisions will have a preponderant influence in shaping public opinion upon educational problems. Your judgment will be a large factor in giving to the people the counsel and advice that may determine basic educational policies.

It is important, then, that our discussions should emphasize basic principles. The issues that are involved are too fundamental and too serious to justify a quibbling debate over unessential matters. We shall quarrel neither as to the need of differentiations nor as to the wisdom of meeting individual needs and individual capacities by a rich and varied program of studies. Personally I believe that there is a place for certain differentiations, not only in the seventh and eighth grades, but even from the very outset of school life. The important question is not, Shall differentiated programs be provided? but rather, Upon what principles shall differentiations be based?

Touching this important question, there are three theories or doctrines widely current in American education that appeal to me as fraught with the gravest dangers. The first of these theories is this: that common elements in the school program are unnecessary beyond the point where children have fairly mastered the "tools of knowledge"; substantial uniformity up to this point, we are told, is both economical and expedient, but uniformity beyond this point, while both cheap and easy to administer, cannot be justified by any principle of educational values. According to this view, common elements beyond the fifth or sixth school year are not essential, and while there will continue to be some uniformity, this will be determined merely by convenience, not by basic and fundamental principles. This, I believe, is substantially the view held by a group of prominent students of education who have recently published a joint statement of principles that, in their judgment, should govern the construction of curricula. It is also a view that is either implicit or explicit in the current arguments for reorganizing the seventh and eighth grades on the junior high-school plan.

This point of view, while representing a wholesome reaction against the extreme and deadening uniformity that once prevailed, overlooks entirely, and to my mind inexcusably, one of the most important problems that education in a democracy should strive to solve—the problem, namely, of insuring an adequate number of common elements in the people's culture; the problem of insuring an adequate measure of likemindedness, a fund of ideas, ideals, and standards common to all the members of the democratic group. If a democracy needs anything that education can furnish, it certainly needs this essential basis of mutual understanding, for if democracy means anything, it means that the people in the last analysis must govern their own affairs; it means that the will of the people must be

supreme. If this collective will is to guide aright the destinies of a great nation, it must be based upon a collective intelligence of a high order; and collective intelligence of a high order is impossible without a high level of common ideas, ideals, and aspirations.

The curriculum problem in the seventh and eighth grades and in the high schools, then, is not to be solved by discarding or belittling the principle of uniformity. The obvious avenue of solution is first to determine with great care what elements of knowledge, skill, and aspiration may best be made common to all; to insure that, whenever we ask everyone to master certain elements of knowledge and skill, these elements shall be really worthy of the honor that is being conferred upon them—the honor of being among the common denominators of the collective thinking of a great people. In the past, the common elements of the school program have not always or often been determined carefully, and while it is probably true that many if not most of the materials now standardized in the elementary program deserve the high recognition that has been accorded them in making them the basis of the common culture of the people, it is also true that some of them have outlived their usefulness, while the presence of others could not be justified even as having historical value. The first problem in curriculum construction, then, is to make this determination of the minimal essentials which are to constitute the common elements of basic education. These must be thoughtfully and carefully selected, not upon the basis of individual whim, or doctrinaire caprice, but upon the basis of their human worth. They must represent the most precious and enduring parts of the culture-heritage of the race. Nothing cheap, nothing tawdry, nothing that is of merely evanescent or superficial value should be included here.

Carefully selected, rigorously tested common elements, then, should form the core of every seventh- and eighth-grade program. Around these should be built the differentiations, the diversified offerings, but no one should be permitted to escape the common elements—that is, no one who is to have a voice or a vote in the government of the people.

And this leads to a second current doctrine that, to my mind, is surcharged with social dynamite. It is the insidious notion that what we call general or liberal education is needed only by those who are going into the professions; that workers in the industrial, agricultural, and commercial fields do not need the kind of culture that the general and liberal work of the seventh and eighth grades and the high school is supposed to represent—that instruction in history, in geography, in literature, is really vocational education preparing for the “white-collar” occupations. And so we have the proposals for differentiated courses in history—industrial history for those going into the industries, political history for those going into the professions; and we have proposals and even experiments in the teaching of English which would relegate the great masterpieces to the white-collar pupils, and feed those destined for other callings on the inspiring contents

of poultry bulletins and mail-order catalogs. I do not mean that the sober sense of the educational public has yet permitted the lower schools to be exploited by these fantastic schemes; I do mean that proposals no less absurd have been made by serious and sincere individuals who have been caught by this notion that the cultural materials of our upper grades and high schools are of value only to those who are headed toward the professions.

That the work of the seventh and eighth grades is now very far from perfect from the point of view of providing the essential common elements of general education, we shall readily admit; but the defects are those of detailed application, not of fundamental principles. Certainly these sweeping reorganizations which propose differentiated curricula beginning with the seventh grade are an extreme and unwarranted means of solving the problem. To adopt a policy which in time is certain to force vocational choices at or before the age of twelve is to work a personal injustice to millions of immature children, most of whom will not thank you at a later day for thus prostituting their interests and selling their birthright. Most of those who advocate early vocational differentiation are not thinking of their own children. Of course a broad and liberal training is presupposed for *them*. These opportunities for early vocational choices are for other people's children. And what do the "other people" think about them? Two years ago, the Illinois Federation of Labor adopted a report from its educational committee—a report, by the way, which expressed a keener appreciation of the difficult service rendered by the public-school teacher than any similar document that I have seen coming from a group of laymen. In adopting this report the Federation went on record against vocational differentiation prior to the age of fourteen. Even Mr. Cooley, with whose advocacy of the dual system of vocational schools I have had no sympathy, has at every point in his constructive proposals safeguarded inviolably the general and liberal education of all children to the age of fourteen. And he has done this, I am told, against the pressure of some of the powerful commercial and industrial interests that he has represented. When this department last year adopted a resolution that apparently indorsed vocational differentiation at the age of twelve, a Chicago newspaper that was advocating the dual system immediately seized upon the resolution as an illustration of the inconsistency of the schoolmen. This paper said in effect: Here are the schoolmen protesting in one breath against the dual system of schools which threatens their control of the educational situation, and protesting on the high grounds of democracy; and in the next breath they adopt a policy of premature vocational differentiation tenfold more undemocratic than the dual system could ever be.

With the junior high-school movement as an agency for instituting wholesome reforms I have no quarrel. There are many things to be said in favor of segregation of the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades. But many prominent advocates of the movement are insisting that its essence is

differentiated curricula, and differentiated curricula will inevitably mean vocational differentiation; they will mean a separation of the sheep from the goats, and class restrictions in respect to liberal education; they will mean curtailing by two full years the common pabulum of culture so essential to a democracy; they will mean the inevitable narrowing of interests at a time when, above all times, interests should be broad and liberal. Furthermore, if the downward movement starts, it will certainly continue. Those who predicate their confidence in the junior high school on the theory that an important corner in mental development is being turned at the age of twelve can easily find another corner at the age of nine. In fact, if the junior high-school movement is based upon the assumed virtues of vocational differentiation at the age of twelve, it is simply the first step toward the Europeanizing of a democratic school system which, with all its faults, has still constituted an "educational ladder with its base in the gutter and its tip in the university."

The work of the seventh and eighth grades is open to vast improvement—in which respect, by the way, it bears a close resemblance to the work of the high school, the work of the college, the university, and the graduate school. Mortality is still too high in these seventh and eighth grades. Our boys and girls who reach the end of the compulsory education period before they graduate from the elementary school need opportunities and stimulus for further cultural and vocational training; these opportunities and this stimulus should certainly be provided. I am heartily in sympathy with every plan that promises to alleviate these conditions without at the same time surrendering, as do these present-day proposals, the fundamental principles that form the educational basis of true democracy. I am also in favor of certain differentiations all along the line that will supplement and complement the essential basis of common elements. We must provide adequately for the 10 or 20 per cent of pupils who find the present standards too rigorous to meet, and we must also provide for the 10 or 20 per cent who find the present standards too easy and who acquire enduring habits of laziness and carelessness because they are not stimulated to their best efforts. But the differentiations which these problems involve *will be primarily differentiations in teaching rather than differentiations in materials*. The problem is one of adaptation. We can never hope by any legerdemain of subjects, courses, and curricula to meet every individual difference in rate of mental growth or in capacity for mental mastery. To take the materials that have proved their worth and to adapt them to the needs, capacities, and aptitudes of individuals is the task of the teacher. As a teacher I cannot escape my responsibility merely by throwing the blame back upon the curriculum that I may be attempting to teach. The fault may be in the curriculum, but it avails me nothing to advance the faults of the curriculum as a cloak for my own inefficiency. It avails me nothing to say that I could teach all right if only I could find materials that

everybody wanted to learn. If such materials were available, my office would soon be vacant; it would necessarily disappear for it would represent a luxury without a purpose.

A great deal of our trouble today lies in the fact that we are looking upon all of the ills of education as curriculum ills, when, in reality, many if not most of them are teaching ills. And in the improvement of conditions in the seventh and eighth grades, this matter will need some attention but hardly, I take it, from the high schools and colleges. During the past few years, I have visited several hundred classes on the elementary, secondary, and higher levels of public-school work. Easily the best teaching that I have seen has been in the primary grades and in the seventh and eighth grades.¹ I shall not generalize from my limited experience, but personally I am very skeptical of any proposal which would bring down into the seventh and eighth grades the methods commonly found in many high-school classes—methods which have in turn been derived from college classrooms. Nor am I wildly enthusiastic about the prospect of reproducing among seventh- and eighth-grade teachers the attitude toward the work of teaching which characterizes many high-school teachers and many more college professors. This may be a minor point, but if my earlier proposition is correct, if the problem of differentiation to meet individual needs and capacities is primarily a teaching problem and only secondarily a curriculum problem, then it seems to me that the teachers in these grades should be men and women to whom the *art* of teaching is something more than a topic for sneering contempt.

Closely akin to this phase of our discussion is the third and final current doctrine that has intimate relations to this matter of differentiated curricula in the seventh and eighth grades. I refer to the belief that educational values are to be determined exclusively or chiefly by the relation of educational materials to the "immediately felt needs" of the pupils—the doctrine that interest is the chief measure of value. The weight of this doctrine obviously falls on the side of curriculum differentiation, for the greater the number of offerings and the fewer the common demands, the greater the likelihood that something appetizing to the individual will be found.

Again it is necessary to keep the balance. Interest is an educational agency the potency of which it would be folly to ignore. We have indeed traveled far from the rigorous doctrines of the Puritans, and no one can greatly regret that the severity, the harshness, and the repression of the olden time have given place to a recognition of pleasure and happiness and the joys of life. But, after all, the problem is to balance the two forces. *Then*, nothing was good unless it had a bad taste; today nothing is good

¹Classroom efficiency varies with supervision. Effective supervision is much more prevalent in the elementary school than in the high school. It is practically non-existent in colleges and universities. There is a prejudice against classroom supervision among secondary and higher teachers; hence the danger of the movement to reorganize the upper grades on the high-school model.

unless it tickles the palate. Both are extreme views, and either, unbalanced by its complement, will lead to individual and social disaster.

Toward a solution of these problems of seventh- and eighth-grade work—of all educational work, for that matter—we need a co-operation of these two forces. The teacher's attempt to make work fascinating and attractive must be met half-way by the aggressive effort of our boys and girls. In the last analysis, the efficiency of our educational system depends upon the capacity of our boys and girls to do "hard, uncoaxed, uncomplimented work willingly and heartily." With this attitude as a basis, the doctrine of interest may be applied to the last notch; with this attitude lacking, our present emphasis upon the doctrine of interest commits us to a pernicious individualism that is full of social perils.

Is it not an opportune moment to suggest that our schools can never be more than superficially successful until public opinion places its powerful sanction upon what may be called the duty of intelligence? The kind of preparedness that a democracy needs most is not primarily the kind that we hear so much about today. The kind of preparedness that a democracy always needs, whether to face the crises of war or the crises of peace, is that which is represented by the highest possible level of general intelligence. Under the influence of the present crisis, it should not be an impossible task to direct the thinking of the people toward this momentous problem.

There are those who believe, and believe sincerely, that duty and sacrifice are outworn virtues that have no place in a democracy. It may not be enough to argue that, if democracy can find no place for these virtues, the world will shortly find no place for democracy. Can we insure on a large scale an effective sense of duty that will impel all the children of all the people to pay the necessary price for the trained intelligence—the price of effort and sacrifice that must always remain the basic factors in mental mastery? There are boys and girls in our high schools and in our state-supported colleges and universities who look upon the opportunities and privileges that the bounty of the people provides always with the attitude that these are rights, never stopping to think that a right implies a corresponding duty. It is wrong to permit this condition to continue—wrong to these boys and girls themselves, wrong to society primarily for whose benefit public education has been established, wrong to the schools whose efficiency is impaired and whose service is restricted by the essentially individualistic attitude that our current educational doctrines deliberately encourage.

The fundamental issue in this matter of "differentiation" versus "common elements," then, is the issue between individualism and collectivism, and the struggle here is only a tiny example of the eternal struggle between these two forces. It is the struggle to find the proper balance, the adequate proportion of emphasis to give to each factor. It is the lack of a proper balance on a vastly larger scale that is drenching Europe with

blood today. Many are asking whether, in our own country, we have not gone too far in the direction of individualism. In our educational theory we have certainly gone too far, and educational practice has gone about as far as it is safe to venture without a counteracting movement. In my opinion, the time is ripe for a little tincture of iron in our educational philosophy; for the touch of a more virile idealism; for a renaissance of thoroughness and a reasonable measure of rigor; for something approaching a revival of the ideals of duty and effort.

III. DAVID SNEDDEN, COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION, BOSTON, MASS.

The efforts now being made in various states to reorganize curricula of training and instruction for children from twelve to fourteen or fifteen years of age constitute undoubtedly the most significant and important of contemporary movements in education. We are justified in assuming without argument that the scope and character of that instruction and training will be materially modified in the near future. Readjustments in administrative plans, restatement of purposes, and new developments in means and methods employed may all be expected. For some years educators have discussed plans for a "six-and-six" division of the years given to elementary and secondary education; and we now hear much about the intermediate school and the junior high school as means of providing better education for children from twelve to fourteen years of age. Already a large number of interesting experiments along these lines are being tried.

The writer holds that the theses given below can now be successfully defended, and in this paper it is proposed to contribute toward their discussion:

a) The educational needs of pupils of twelve to fourteen years of age are variable to such an extent that, if conditions of educational administration permitted, a number of courses of training and instruction, dissimilar as to many important elements and also even as to quality of results expected in common studies, should be provided.

b) The number and variety of subjects of training and instruction suited to and desirable for at least some important groups of pupils of these ages are now far too large to be properly included in the educational program of any one learner; and the number and variety of these desirable studies tend steadily to increase.

c) It is highly probable that as regards flexibility of courses of instruction and training the school suited to the needs of pupils from twelve to fourteen years of age will in essential respects repeat the history of the liberal arts (general) college and the general secondary school which, in the early stages of their history, offered uniform curricula composed in

the main of prescribed studies, but which subsequently and in ever-increasing measure found it desirable to increase the range of their studies and to give pupils wider latitude in making individual programs of study.

d) While it may safely be assumed that for some years to come at least the individual programs of instruction and training for all pupils of twelve to fourteen years of age will be required to contain studies or elements common to all, nevertheless it is even now expedient and desirable in well-organized schools, and, of course, subject to administrative limitations as to expense and also subject to certain general conditions hereafter to be described, to allow pupils to elect individual programs in large measure from among all the subject courses offered.

UNLIKE ENDS OR OBJECTIVES IN EDUCATION

Every specific subject or even phase of subject of school work should, of course, be taught with certain conscious ends or objectives in view. These objectives or goals determining the teachers' aims are but illy defined at present, especially where the education of children from twelve to eighteen is concerned, but we may expect them to be more fully analyzed and stated in the near future, as educational processes become more scientifically correlated between social and individual needs on the one hand, and individual powers and possibilities on the other. But, in the light of present experience, it seems highly desirable to classify the objectives of the education that is adapted to children of twelve to fourteen years of age into at least two groups according to the presence or absence in each study or phase of study of certain fundamental characteristics. A few concrete cases will make this clear.

The objects to be attained in teaching a pupil to spell, for example, differ essentially from the objects to be attained thru having the same pupil listen to a good musical recital or witness a dramatic performance. It is unfortunate that educational psychologists have not given more attention to the fundamentally unlike character of the learning processes here contrasted. In teaching spelling the outcome expected on the part of the pupil is a certain quite definite and easily recognized ability to do, to execute, to express in action, and the learning process cannot be terminated economically until this end is achieved. On the other hand, the learning achieved in hearing a recital or witnessing a dramatic performance (and we are agreed that some form of learning is thus achieved) can be subjected to no profitable test of expression, of doing. We expect absorption, assimilation, growth, as results, but the final outcome is so remote from the original stimulus that we do not, ordinarily, seek to trace connections.

For the sake of convenient classification, let us call the first type of learning the alpha type, and the second the beta type. Let us repeat that the conspicuous result expected in the case of the alpha type is ability to do,

to *express in action*, while the most tangible result expected in the case of the beta type is *appreciation* or, in one sense of the word, *interest*.

In the seventh and eighth grades, it is probably in accordance with sound pedagogy so to teach arithmetic, penmanship, composition, spelling, and, presumably, grammar that these subjects should properly fall in the alpha class. On the other hand, literature, science, and civics are, or doubtless ought to be, so taught as properly to belong to the beta class.

History, geography, music, art, and practical arts seem to be composite. It is manifestly important, for example, that certain phases of history and geography should be so definitely taught that the resulting fixed knowledge becomes as available and inerrant as should be knowledge of the multiplication table. But it is intolerable that all geography and history as organized for children from twelve to fourteen years of age should be so taught. Most of the supplemental material used, and indeed much of the contents of the textbooks in current use, also, should be read, talked over, and the resulting impressions assimilated, but no fixed and instantly usable knowledge need be expected. Hence the proper organization of these subjects should involve a conscious and definite differentiation between alpha and beta portions, teaching units or phases.

It is difficult to determine the effect of the differentiations here proposed on music and drawing (or art), because the purposes of these subjects in elementary education are, as yet, so imperfectly defined. It is probable that both subjects are now composite, and that in the interest of effective teaching they should be differentiated into alpha and beta phases or teaching units. There is much discussion at present of the teaching of music for the purpose of developing musical appreciation. Picture-study has a place in some schools for a similar purpose. Clearly these are beta phases of these subjects. But it is also probably desirable that some children should be taught to execute music—that is, to read musical notation accurately, to sing, or to play. These are clearly alpha phases. Perhaps, also, upper-grade pupils should be given definite drill in drawing as an art of expression—also an alpha phase.

Now the distinction here made is of fundamental importance in any discussion of flexible courses, or elective systems, because of the probability that the right and expediency on the part of the school of prescribing studies or phases of studies applies with far greater force to the alpha group than to the beta group. For one thing, the processes of learning in the alpha group are much more arduous, as a rule, than in the beta group; but in the alpha group, at least for the elementary school, will be found many of the common intellectual tools of civilized society—the arts of oral and written expression, receptive (or silent) reading, definite knowledge of geographical and historical facts, simple principles of hygiene, generally accepted rules of behavior, etc. On the other hand, learning in the beta group is easier, or should be, if needed adaptation is made for individual interests;

and in respect to appreciation studies generally, society can well afford to have and perhaps even to procure a large degree of variability rather than of uniformity among its members. We should all spell alike and have in common a definite knowledge of some of the facts of American history; but it is of advantage rather than disadvantage that our people should vary greatly as to the fields or individual examples of literature, and of history, in which they find interest and satisfaction.

It should, then, theoretically prove possible for us to enumerate all the desirable ends or objectives in the systematic education of young people from twelve to fifteen years of age, and to classify them into the two divisions suggested above, according as the learning sought is specific, definite, and instantly usable in active life, or as it results in appreciation, taste, modified sentiment, ideal, and undifferentiated background of knowledge (experience, intellectual nurture).

THE POSSIBLE CURRICULUM OF THE JUNIOR HIGH OR INTERMEDIATE SCHOOL

In order to set clearly before ourselves, without unnecessary restrictions, the possibilities of flexibility in schools for children from twelve to fourteen years of age, let us assume a very large city school receiving only pupils who have completed sixth-grade work, and designed to retain these pupils for but two or three years. Let us assume further that the school possesses financial means sufficient to enable it to organize and offer any kind of instruction for which there is a substantial demand, and which in the judgment of the authorities it is wise to offer to pupils of the stated years and qualifications. Let us furthermore assume, for the sake of concrete description, that the work is offered as units, a unit consisting of the equivalent of five weekly periods of 60 minutes each, extending thru twelve weeks, to cover both instruction and recitation, and any other form of exclusive claim on the attention and energy of the pupil of average power for the 60 minutes. Theoretically, then, in view of recent progress in enriching elementary-school curricula and in urging desirable new forms of instruction and training, the following subject courses might profitably be offered in Grades VII and VIII in such a school, the alpha and beta units being separately indicated:

Name of Subject	Alpha Units	Beta Units
(Figures at left refer to explanatory notes at end of section)		
(1) English expression:		
(2) Oral expression	6	
(3) Written expression	6	
(4) Grammar	3	
(5) Word analysis	1	
(6) Spelling	1 or 2	
(7) Penmanship	1 or 2	
(8) Alphabet	1	
(9) Silent reading	1 or 2	

	Name of Subject	Alpha Units	Beta Units
(Figures at left refer to explanatory notes at end of section)			
(10)	General history		6
(11)	American history	3	3 or 6
(12)	Community civics	1	2
(13)	Literature	1	5
(14)	General moving pictures		3
(15)	Music, individual vocal	3	
(16)	Music, chorus	1	
(17)	Music, piano	3	
(18)	Music, appreciation		3
(19)	Music, band	1	
(20)	Drawing, representative	2	
(21)	Art, appreciation		3 or 6
(22)	Geography	1 or 2	2 or 4
(23)	Science, general	1	2 or 5
(24)	French	3 or 6	
(25)	German	3 or 6	
(26)	Spanish	3 or 6	
(27)	Latin	1 or 2	2 or 4
(28)	Industrial arts		3 or 6
(29)	Agricultural arts		3 or 6
(30)	Commercial arts		3 or 6
(31)	Household arts		3 or 6
(32)	Arithmetic, commercial	3 or 6	
(33)	Arithmetic, industrial	3 or 6	
(34)	Arithmetic, home	3	
(35)	Arithmetic, geometry, and algebra	3 or 6	
(36)	Hygiene	1 or 2	2 or 4
(37)	Physical training	1 or 2	5 or 4
(38)	Vocational guidance		3 or 6

(1) To include all general studies designed to give greater power in the use of the vernacular, oral and written.

(2) Including reading aloud, "speaking," correct use of voice, "oral composition" (or sustained delivery to audience), debate, correct usage, etc., all from standpoint of effort to secure definite attainments.

(3) Composition, letter-writing, correct usage in writing, etc.

(4) Systematic analysis, with correction of personal solecisms.

(5) Origin and structure of common words.

(6) Chiefly to meet individual needs. Good spellers excused.

(7) Chiefly to meet individual needs. Good writers excused.

(8) Drill in alphabet, to produce readiness in use of indexes, dictionaries, etc.

(9) Drill in technique. The subject not clearly defined as yet, but evidence exists that it is very important.

(10) A general reading and lecture course—no drill.

(11) Selection of special details and fundamental generalization for drill for alpha units; general and interesting phases of subjects as beta units.

(12) To include a small amount of definitely organized knowledge as alpha units. Beta units to cover thrift, reading about sanitation, practice voting, school self-government, readings, visits, etc.

(13) Close analytical study of one or two selections, and certain central facts of literature, under alpha units. Beta units to include home reading, library reading, etc., but

no requirement as to uniformity of material for all pupils. Individual choices, subject to approval of instructor.

(14) That is, not definitely correlated with other subjects, and is designed chiefly to enhance discriminative appreciation of moving pictures as a means of education and diversion.

(15) Drill for pupils having marked capacity to profit from such study.

(16) Selected group desiring drill.

(17) For selected pupils desiring definite training.

(18) All available forms of music offered to all desiring such training.

(19) Selected group desiring definite training.

(20) A general course; additional specialized work in correlation with practical arts.

(21) Plastic and decorative, and in part correlated with practical arts, but should include pictures, room decoration, architecture, advertising illustration, and moving pictures.

(22) Separation of formal or drill phases from appreciative phase, preserving correlation, by means of specific "teaching units" for both alpha and beta phases.

(23) Largely interpretive of scientific aspects of surroundings.

(24)-(26) To produce mastery of spoken or of written language, according to pre-determined aims.

(27) For drill in part. Subject could be reorganized to give insight and appreciation (beta units) in part.

(28) Miscellaneous shop experience on projects from wide range of industries, including reading about the industries, and other means of enriching experience. Projects from textile, printing, metal-working, woodworking, food-packing, transportation, and other industries.

(29) Including gardening, poultry-raising, correlated reading, etc.

(30) Typewriting, elementary bookkeeping, commercial penmanship, commercial readings, visits to commercial establishments, etc. Much of it on practical project basis.

(31) Primarily to build on home experience and to enhance appreciation.

(32)-(34) To be definitely practical subjects, correlated with practical arts courses.

(35) Recommended for pupils expecting to enter high school and college.

(36) To include certain alpha phases for definite knowledge and practice—teeth, posture, etc.—and others (beta) for insight and wide appreciation.

(37) Some definite physical training to cure defects or to prevent apprehended defects (alpha units). Games, "boy scout" activities, miscellaneous developmental play, athletics, etc., for beta units.

(38) Readings, individual conferences, lectures.

THE VARYING EDUCATIONAL NEEDS OF CHILDREN OF TWELVE TO FOURTEEN YEARS OF AGE

The foregoing idealized curriculum shows clearly that there is even now available for possible use in courses of study for the junior high or intermediate school many times as much material as any one pupil can compass. Common experience teaches that hardly any subject is included above which cannot be "used" in some educational way, and to the interest and advantage certainly of individuals and even of groups of pupils. But there are no great numbers of these units that can reasonably be regarded as essential to all pupils alike, and which therefore should be universally prescribed as positive requirements. Equally, there are few

that any pupil should be prohibited from taking if he wishes—here called negative prescription.

But what shall be the bases of these positive and negative prescriptions? They certainly include at least the following: (a) the limitations imposed by the varying native capacities of pupils; (b) the requirement that each pupil, even against his own desire and that of his parents, shall, as a part of his right to a protected childhood and as a logical accompaniment of compulsory school attendance, be required to receive the instruction and training that will probably be necessary or greatly advantageous to him in later life; and (c) the right of society to have each person fitted as far as may be to take his part as citizen, parent, soldier, and worker in a world where all human activities are increasingly socialized and corporate in character.

No argument is required to prove that children of twelve to fourteen years of age vary greatly as to natural capacity. Some are so talented that they can carry a large program of studies with ease and profit. Others are fortunate if they can, only at best, meet minimum requirements. Some are born with natural gifts for music, foreign language, and drawing. These pupils can master their favorite subjects with an ease not possible to children less gifted in these directions. It is the observation of every teacher that some children have inferior natural capacity for arithmetic and other forms of mathematics, while others find only slight difficulty in these subjects, even in portions where rigorous abstract thinking is required. These natural limitations will therefore be influential in determining what large numbers of pupils will, or will not, be allowed to take.

On the other hand, the rights of the child, irrespective of his own desires in early youth or those of his guardians, to obtain or be given the education essential to a fair start in life are of paramount importance. This right applies not only as regards those minimum attainments in reading, writing, spelling, and number which are to be expected of all normal children; it should include also the requirement that children, manifestly talented in certain directions, shall be obliged at a suitable age to begin studies, such as foreign language, that may later, as far as can reasonably be foreseen, prove essential in the careers and positions of personal influence toward which their native powers seem to direct them.

Finally, no one will dispute the obligation on the part of society to require all persons to acquire in childhood at least the minimum of knowledge and training which is essential to their successful participation in corporate life. Not only are the arts of expression to be included here, along with moral training, knowledge of civic facts and responsibilities, and everyday arithmetic; eventually each person may be required to submit to the training required for a vocation, and for the work of the soldier. Society must give this degree of education as a means of self-preservation.

But, when an extensive curriculum of subject courses is offered in a school, the burden of proof rests on the school to establish a strong presumption as to the necessity of the units which are prescribed, whether for all or for those electing stated courses. Subject to the requirement that the pupil and his parents provide for the full use of the pupil's time, the learner should be free to elect his own program of studies, unless the school authorities can definitely establish the desirability of prescription.

THE PROS AND CONS OF THE ELECTIVE SYSTEM

Clearly, then, educators charged with organizing and administering education for persons from twelve to fifteen years of age are, or soon will be, confronted by conditions which constitute, if the distorted figure may be permitted, a three-horned dilemma: (a) Possible educational offerings (or opportunities for giving particular kinds of instruction and training) are becoming many fold more numerous than can be taken by any one individual or group of individuals presenting like characteristics; (b) the native capacities of pupils or of distinctive possible groups of pupils vary greatly; and (c) some subjects or phases of subjects, as yet not fully determined or defined, should in some cases be prescribed for all, and in other cases for all having stated forms of ability or probable future fields of usefulness. How shall the administrator proceed under these conditions? Shall he disregard, as he has heretofore done, the first and second considerations, and insist on a limited curriculum of prescribed studies for all, thus ignoring opportunities for varied training and instruction? Shall he include in his curricula all possible studies, but segregate them in rigid courses, so that each shall constitute a fixed system in itself, like a railroad route, of such a character that the pupil, once *en route*, cannot cross to another line, and can change his route of travel only by going back to the starting-point again? Or shall he simply organize the school offerings into one long series and allow the pupil to range and choose *ad libitum*? Manifestly, each of these courses is open to objection. They are all psychologically unsound.

In reality, each method is desirable and feasible as to certain elements or types of studies in the curriculum. Some studies or subject courses should be prescribed for all pupils; some should be prescribed only as component elements of definite courses, and therefore to be required only of learners electing such courses, while, possibly, elective to others; and some should be freely elective to all. But it is here contended again that as regards all prescribed work, whether generally prescribed or prescribed for those electing specified courses, a heavy burden rests upon the authorities making the prescriptions to establish the presumption that it is *better* that these prescriptions should thus be made than that the pupil, subject to reasonable supervision from home and school, and to the general requirement that he must employ all of his school time profitably, shall freely elect his own course (subject, also, of course, to the limitations imposed by

the necessities of efficient and economical school administration). Here we are, of course, at once involved in the old debate as to the merits and demerits of the elective system and the capacities of learners wisely to use such a system.

All of us have read (and perhaps participated in) lengthy discussions as to the elective system in college and school. We were long ago told that learners—whether college Juniors or high-school Freshmen—were not old enough or wise enough or earnest enough to choose their own studies to advantage. They would usually choose “snap” courses. Their programs, under freedom of election, would consist of unco-ordinated subject-courses, the resulting learning would be fragmentary, discursive, and unsubstantial. “Easy instructors” would be in favor, real efficiency would disappear, and chaos would prevail.

It is a fact that in nearly all debate as to the elective system, its opponents have had the stronger arguments. The proponents, while usually able eventually to win the day in action because of favoring circumstances, have never, it would seem, formulated the most fundamental and strongest arguments in favor of their position.

It must surely be admitted that the pupil, whether in seventh, or tenth, or fifteenth (college Junior) grade, is but poorly equipped to make so momentous a choice as that involved in electing the studies he will henceforth pursue. Almost equally, after college graduation, he will be but poorly prepared to elect his profession, his place of future work, his physician, his political party, a woman to be his wife. Here we express, of course, only an admission that our system of education includes as yet hardly any provision for adequately guiding the individual in the matter of many, if not all, of the important decisions he must make in life.

For, if we ask what is the alternative to free election of studies, even, let us say, in the college period of education, we are confronted by the fact that except in rare instances there exists as yet no organized procedure whereby the *individual*, with his limitations of capacity and opportunity, his interests, and his obligations to society, can be guided into making choices that best meet or serve his needs. The opponents of election have probably never asserted that they were ready to provide the personal attention and scientific insight that would be required adequately to have prescribed for the individual student on the basis of sound diagnosis the best program of studies for *him*. It is certain that in college and secondary school this could not be done, for the sufficient reason that never yet have educators in those institutions accomplished anything substantial in the way of capacity for making scientific diagnoses of the capacities, limitations, and probable opportunities of individual learners.

Furthermore, even assuming that such diagnoses were possible at any period, the prepossessions of the advocates of rigid courses—or, usually, of one rigid course—would probably have prevented them from studying

the variant qualities of the minds of their students, again for the sufficient reason that the all-important consideration, as teachers have believed, was the subject to be taught—Latin, algebra, Greek, rhetoric, logic, physics, etc.—and not at all the characteristics of the individual learner.

In other words, the historical alternative to free election, at least of courses, if not subjects, has been rigid prescription as determined by inflexible tradition or custom or educational theory. The variability of learners as to capacities, interests, and needs has been ignored. Traditions and dogmas as to the superior or even unique educational values of certain ancient subjects of study have governed. The newer subjects were intrinsically inferior, if not worthless, educationally; hence any choice of them has been regarded as necessarily bad. The thought that election of studies is bad has always been fathered by the wish that it should prove bad from the standpoint of the opponent whose favorite studies might not be elected.

The various attempts heretofore made to modify, on the one hand, the rigidity of the inflexible one-course curriculum, and, on the other, to prevent the wasteful possibilities of completely free election, have constituted admissions that adjustments of courses and studies, based partly upon the capacities of learners, and partly upon their varying needs, are highly desirable and probably feasible. But it is a fact that no satisfactory statement of the principles which should guide in the matter has, as yet, been formulated. There is still too often the naïve assumption that the "system"—that is, the collection of educational dogmas and traditions as expressed by unprogressive educators, usually thru conference or committee edict—knows best what the "student" needs and should have. This is not an individual student, James Ferguson, for example, but an abstract human being, an educational John Doe, who has met entrance requirements and who is probably assumed to be taking his class attendance in the same spirit in which he would accept a necessary, tho distasteful, sentence to a hospital.

It is still too early, perhaps, to formulate the underlying principles which should govern flexibility of curricula and courses; but it is possible even now to apply to the possible junior high-school curriculum the best results of contemporary theory and practice as to this educational problem in secondary school and college.

CONTROLLING PRINCIPLES OF FLEXIBILITY IN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

If we take, for example, the entire range of subject-courses that it is possible to offer in the junior high school, it is clear that all cannot be regarded as being on the same footing from the standpoint either of election or of prescription. Some are essential to all, many essential to none. Some are essential in certain courses, others essential to no particular course. On the other hand, there are many that may well be regarded as educational luxuries—highly pleasurable to those who can afford them and surely not

injurious to any who can take them without detriment to their more necessary work. But what are the subject-courses that belong in those respective categories? It is difficult for us to reach sound conclusions here because our prepossessions are at present so much stronger and more clearly defined than are any available findings based on scientific study. In the idealized curriculum for a junior high school given above there are found from 58 to 88 alpha units (or subject-courses to be taught with the aim of producing power to *do*), and from 52 to 82 beta units (or subject-courses in which *appreciation* is a controlling purpose). No one average pupil, probably, could take in two years more than 30 of the total 140 units supposed to be offered. A slow pupil could take perhaps not to exceed 20, while an exceptionally strong pupil could take 40. What requirements shall we make, what advice offer, and what liberty allow, to our junior high-school pupil confronted by the foregoing curriculum?

First, let us repeat that our attitude toward the alpha units should not be the same as that toward the beta units. If the beta units are taught (or, better word, offered) with due regard to appropriate pedagogical principles, we may experience difficulty in keeping pupils from them, or, at least, from some of them. They should prove inherently interesting to children as do play, the "movies," sports, and certain kinds of fiction, or as the opera, fiction, travel, and association prove attractive to adults. On the other hand, the alpha units present, in the main, the characteristics of the harder work of the world. The interest with which they are pursued must often be a derived interest—derived, in some cases even, from fear of punishment, or fear of forfeiture of desired approval, or from love of gain or approval. Hence it can at the outset be asserted that prescription will be much more necessary in the case of the alpha than of the beta units.

Let us assume that a careful study of the capacities of average children of twelve to fourteen years of age, coupled with an equally careful study of the objectives, individual and social, which should be realized thru their education, shows that it is expedient and desirable that their two-year programs could and should include substantially 15 alpha units and 15 beta units. We might then establish the following rules to govern the making of individual courses:

- a) Any pupil deficient as to spelling, writing, and silent reading according to some definite standard shall be required to take these alpha subjects.
- b) Every pupil shall elect four alpha units in English expression, in addition to those required under (a).
- c) Every pupil shall elect at least six units designed to provide a definite course in one of the following fields: (i) foreign language and mathematics; (ii) commercial arts; (iii) industrial arts (boys); (iv) household arts (girls); (v) agricultural arts.
- d) No pupil shall have fewer than 15 or more than 20 alpha units.
- e) Every pupil shall elect at least 10 beta units.

CONCLUSIONS

The following are the conclusions of this paper:

1. The reorganization of education designed for young people from twelve to fourteen is one of the most important of contemporary movements in the field of general education.

2. It is right and proper that this period should continue to be reserved for general education (cultural, physical, and social education), and that no specific vocational education should be offered in it; but (a) vocational guidance, based on communicated information (books, lectures, individual conferences), observation of men at work in vocations, and participation in simple processes derived from industry, all designed as phases of general education, is acceptable and desirable; and (b) differentiated courses in practical arts, partly as a means of enabling each pupil to find himself, and partly as a means of acquiring valuable experience in reception and expression or execution (not necessarily contributing to vocational power however), are desirable.

3. Central schools should, as far as practicable, be organized for all pupils from twelve to fourteen, to include not only the normal in grade, but the retarded as well. As far as practical, retarded pupils should take the same studies as pupils of normal grade; and where, in the more technical studies, they cannot do this, special courses containing work especially adapted to their needs should be provided.

4. Whenever it seems that a new study can profitably be offered to a substantial group of pupils of these ages, it should be introduced.

5. It is to be expected that many more studies or subject-courses will be offered than can be taken by any one pupil; and hence will arise the necessity of election of courses or subjects.

6. In providing for the selection of individual programs, prescribed studies should be reduced to the minimum, and large freedom allowed to the pupil and his parents to elect, subject to full advice, the subject-courses to be taken by the pupil. Choices made by pupils may frequently be unwise, but rarely more unwise than the courses prescribed arbitrarily by the authorities.

ADDRESS

WOODBRIIDGE N. FERRIS, GOVERNOR OF MICHIGAN

I want to have it distinctly understood that I appear before you as an educational exhorter. I haven't a new thing to say to you; I haven't anything to tear down. I just want to present two or three very old notions and exhort you to their observance.

If I were to organize an educational system, I would make for its center health—h-e-a-l-t-h, health. I ask teachers to care as much about health as the great industrial institutions of this country care about

health. If you will do that much, there will be important changes in the United States in a comparatively short time. Our great factories are today houses of glass. What for? Light, light, and more light. They are so built that they can have air and more air. The industrial world has found out that it pays in dollars and cents to have light and air, and of course any industrial institution that has light and air has all other sanitary provisions.

Many of our school buildings, viewed in the light of what I have already said, are unfit for the use of our boys and girls. You say, "What can we do about it?" You can do everything. It is about time schoolmasters and schoolma'ams came to realize the power they possess. You can do almost any wise thing if you have a mind to, or rather, if you want to.

Tonight I make the appeal for air and sunlight. In Michigan we have a state sanatorium for tuberculosis patients. This sanatorium is full of patients, every single case a well-defined case of tuberculosis. They are sleeping out of doors, living out of doors, playing out of doors, working a little out of doors—everything out of doors except dressing and undressing; on account of the peculiar usages here in America, particularly in sanatoriums, they are obliged to dress indoors. The same restrictions are not placed on people who are well as on people who are ill. We know that the only means by which we can help these people is to have them live out of doors. Well, what under heaven has Michigan and the other states in the Union against people who haven't tuberculosis? I want you to answer that question. My state is going to stamp out tuberculosis, that is, kill tuberculosis, get rid of it somehow. I ask our officials to take hold of the educational machinery of my state and see if they cannot do something to get well men and women to live as they ought to live with reference to air and sunshine. Now, you yourselves don't do it. You don't believe in fresh air, you don't want fresh air, you won't have fresh air; you won't live out of doors, you don't want to get out of doors, and consequently what hope is there?

Microbes do not thrive out of doors; they don't sit up in the trees nor on brick or stone walls. They are indoors. Every cold, every case of pneumonia, is an indoor disease. Let us come a little closer to our subject. What can you people do with the present schoolhouses? You cannot have them condemned and torn down; you cannot build new buildings in order to have air and sunshine. You can take out the lower or upper sash, and put in a cotton-cloth screen for the entire year. You will use more fuel possibly, but you will have fresh air and better air, less sickness, and teach a few boys and girls how to live and have health instead of tuberculosis or any other disease. Will you do it? No, the majority of you won't.

And what else can you teachers do? On every sunshiny day, on every fair day, in the rural and village schools, you can take your boys and

girls out of doors and conduct out of doors every class that can be conducted successfully out of doors. I dare you to do it. There has never been a schoolroom built to equal God's schoolroom. I would much rather have the boys and girls out of doors, now and then glancing at a bird in a tree or a squirrel scampering around, than observing a curtain when it falls down inside.

I go further, I plead in behalf of medical inspection. I hold that every American child, when he enters the schoolroom, has the right, if the state is going to demand what it does, to have just as good teeth as modern science can give him; he has a right to have a pair of eyes just as good and efficient as modern science can give him; he has right to have just as sound ears and efficient ears as modern science can give him; just as good a throat and nasal cavities as modern science can give him; just as good a body as modern science can give him. You agree with me, don't you? Is there any possibility of disagreement? You see then what I mean by health in the schoolroom. In five years, you can perceptibly improve conditions thru your own efforts along the lines I have suggested, without state aid. It is up to you. By the way, the people will respond. They will listen to you.

We have in this country a tremendous school equipment, costing millions and millions of dollars, and for whom? Your traditional answer is, for the boys and girls of a certain age. Talk about superstition—I haven't any language whereby I can describe my contempt for this answer. And what has it done? It has paralyzed the majority of people, so that, when a man whose hair is like mine speaks about getting an education, he is told that he is too old. When a man or woman is too old to learn, there is only one thing I can suggest. He should take a shovel and pick, go to the family cemetery, where I hope he has bought a lot, dig a grave, get into it and stay there.

In our democracy, public schools should be for all of the people all of the time. We now use them less than 50 per cent of the time. The remainder of the time they are idle. City schools should be open six nights in a week and six days in the week. There are many schoolmasters who think that the people would not take advantage of these privileges.

I love the flag. I like to hear folks talk about it; but I have always had a profound admiration for the people who carry the flag. I want to say that one of the highest forms of patriotism in this country consists in carrying out the idea I have suggested, of giving all of the people in this country an opportunity to acquire the fundamentals of an education, and especially an opportunity to learn to speak and write English. Oh, what a gigantic influence it would have on the solution of industrial problems, on the solution of national preparedness!

One other thing: Don't forget the few fundamentals we have taught in the public schools ever since they were organized. Above all, teach a

few things so that they will stick. Isn't it humiliating to hear the graduate of a college or university say: "Oh yes, I have been out of college five years; I cannot read my Virgil, I cannot read my Cicero, it is all gone." Or, "I once knew a little something of geometry, but it has vanished; I knew something of chemistry, but it is gone." Don't mention it again as long as you live. What is the use of advertising your foolishness? Don't take particular pains to mention it. I am not afraid of any of those fellows. I am afraid of the fellow who has learned something that has stayed with him. There is E. A. Strong, professor of physical sciences, State Normal College, Ypsilanti, Michigan, who is now nearing his eightieth year. He has taught science all his life. If an Ypsilanti girl tomorrow should say: "Doctor, I am puzzled a little with that passage in Virgil," he would read it as tho he had only learned it yesterday. He mastered the classics at Union College. I am not arguing as to whether you should teach the classics or not, but whatever you do teach, teach it so that it will stick. The greatest teacher I ever had was Herman Krüsi. He covered plane geometry in just forty weeks, but in some of the high schools in Michigan the period is sixteen weeks. Every theorem was presented in the form of a problem. No textbook was used. Every student presented his own solution. I would like to find a Krüsi student in the United States who today does not know his geometry. I know plane geometry and I have not taught the subject in twenty years. Somebody says: "Do you teach geometry that way now in your own school?" No, because I am compelled to cover a certain amount of ground in a certain number of units of time. Why so? Many of my students enter colleges and universities, and I must meet the requirements of these institutions.

Please don't think lightly of my appeal for health, my appeal for all the people, my appeal for throness.

ADDRESS

MARTIN G. BRUMBAUGH, GOVERNOR OF PENNSYLVANIA

In the United States we have gone far to put to the test a new theory of government—that the will of a majority expressed in law, constitutional and statutory, is the sole and adequate guidance for all the people. We have put democracy on trial. We have proclaimed its adequacy. We have unhesitatingly subscribed to its beneficent operation. We stake on it our lives, our property, and our sacred honor. We have at all times, with bated breath, in the solemn hours of reflection, asked ourselves whether after all we have found in our democracy, as it works its issues, the golden good we are proud to claim that it holds. What gives this heart-tremor, this tender solicitude, this half-awakened fear that perhaps we have not, after all, found the pot of gold at the end of our rainbow of hope and faith?

Why are we half fearful to put our democracy fully to the test? Is it because we question its fundamental rightness? Absolutely no. What visioning souls wrought in Independence Hall we hold sacred and secure. The doubt is born, if at all, because we have not given to democracy its adequate channels of expression. We have not been fair to our own dominant ideals.

What we need to do—and do it now—is to make possible a complete reliance upon our theory of government and put it to its fullest use. To do this we must unhesitatingly lay larger reliance upon education. An enlightened democracy is the hope of the nation. The school is the hope of the Republic.

This agency, devised by wise insight and carried steadily into the generations of our advance, needs re-establishment and rejuvenation in these stress years of our advance. The whole theory of preparedness is fundamentally a theory of education. Our armies and our navies, the front line of preparedness, and our industries, the secondary line of defense, are alike dependent upon a trained, skilled, intelligent, efficient citizenry. The resources of a people, material and spiritual, are its safeguards. Education is the guaranty of resourcefulness.

Our educational system under control of our fundamental theory of government is not only the most potential agency to stabilize our national ideals, but it is the agency pre-eminent for their completest realization. No equipment of material good can replace a training of our people into a homogeneous nation. This fact is emphasized as one considers the far reaches of racial ideals that here fuse and fashion this mighty people. From every land and from every clime they have come, they are coming, they will come, and, unless these all pass the portals of our educational system, and in its halls get essential baptism of American ideals and achievements, and a keen understanding of national purposes, we cannot hope for a nation whose democracy is its boast and its certain permanence.

We turn then to the school and demand for it a much larger place in the American mind. It is increasingly manifest that it, best of all our institutions, trains for service, for efficiency, for living, and for promoting the government whose agency it is. We must in the school train for co-operation in all civic duties, for competition in all industrial activities, for moral steadfastness in all social endeavor, and for the intertwining of these into one serviceable and substantial system of national equipment.

We have committed ourselves to a vast enterprise—the making of men and women fit for the Republic. There must be no looking backward. We must go steadily on until the proud boast, “I am an American citizen,” shall be a synonym for civic pride, industrial efficiency, and moral and religious worth. Then we shall be prepared—not for war—but for the peace that passeth all understanding and is permanent.

ADDRESS

FRANK B. WILLIS, GOVERNOR OF OHIO

In these times we hear much about conservation, a word to which the last ten years have given a new significance. We hear of the conservation of the public domain, of forests, of game, of insectivorous and song birds, of water power, of mineral resources, and the public health. All these are important. I wish to say, however, that to the teachers of the country is committed the momentous problem of the conservation of the intellectual and moral energy of the Republic.

We see around us in the material world evidences of the prodigalities of nature. We see life in myriad forms struggling for existence. We see in the elements the manifestation of mighty powers that are yet to be utilized in the service of man. In the motion of the air as it sweeps over the country and in the power of the restless sea thundering on rocky shore, there is sufficient energy to heat and light and move the world.

To the educators of the United States is committed the intellectual and moral energy, in large measure undeveloped, of those who will soon not only shape the destinies of the Republic, but constitute the Republic itself: for what is our nation but the aggregate of its citizenship? On you more largely than on any other body of men in the United States devolves the problem of the conservation and development of the energies of the children of the nation.

Garfield once said, before he was president: "I always feel like taking off my hat to the American boy. I do not know what possibilities are wrapped up under his plain jacket." To the schoolmasters of the land are reserved the privilege, the opportunity, and the responsibility of developing these large possibilities. The intellectual and moral powers must not be dissipated or frittered away and wasted. They must be directed to useful and beneficent ends. It is a great thing to attain dexterity in kicking the football or plying the oar in physical contests, but it must be made just as worthy in the public eye to wield the hammer and the trowel, to guide the lathe and the drill, to follow the plow and drive the harvester thru fields of golden grain; and hand in hand with manual training must go the intellectual and moral development suited to the varied needs of our American citizenship.

On Washington's birthday there was published in this country a detailed statement setting forth the pre-eminence of the United States among the nations of the earth. In making comparisons, population was considered, but much was properly made of the fact that the efficiency of the individual citizen must be taken into consideration. The enormous population of China and the relatively large population of Russia do not give them a dominant position among the nations of the earth. By careful calculation, the expert arrives at the conclusion that "the United States exceeds all

other nations in size of effective population." In wealth and resources our dominance is even more pronounced. If this superiority is to be maintained, the energies of the rising generation must be conserved and the average individual citizen of the United States, morally, mentally, physically—in all that goes to make up efficiency—must be the peer, yea, even the superior, of the average citizen of the most favored nation beyond our borders.

To make him such is in large measure the work of those who are assembled here. The subjects for discussion on your program show that you are awake to this fact. You are met to discuss practical educational problems of momentous import. I bid you Godspeed in your work. With the realization of your ideals we shall have not only "a new conception of nationalism," but a new nationalism and a new patriotism that shall include all in the old that brought us to our present high estate, and add to it all that is to lead us to the greater Republic yet to be.

We hear much of preparedness both for national defense and for national elections. Probably both are necessary. Certainly the President must be backed up with power if his efforts for peace are to be successful. Our foreign policy must be something more than an international school of correspondence. Peace is our passion: "our interest is in concord not in conflict"; yet we must have an army and a navy big enough to protect every American citizen wherever he has a right to be. On the wings of a new American-built merchant marine, Old Glory must be carried to all the ports of commerce of the world. With this preparation for defense, not conquest, must come also industrial preparedness to maintain our standard of living and thinking. Let us inculcate the homely virtues of honesty, hard work, and hopefulness. One of the qualifications absolutely essential for permanent success in public or private life is old-fashioned, square-toed honesty. Our young people must be made to understand the dignity of labor and the honor of toil. Human nature is so constituted that it is best developed by toil and battle and struggle. The coral insect perishes where the currents are gentle, but grows and thrives under the thunderous attacks of waves that would grind granite to powder. With honesty and hard work and good cheer let there be coupled a patriotism that knows only one country and one flag. The elements of our cosmopolitan civilization are diverse, yet they become one in the democracy of the American schoolroom. This thought has been well expressed by an Ohio school-teacher in the following lines:

Briton or Teuton, it matters not,
Once we've been thru the Melting Pot;
Changed forever each heart and mind,
Old World fealty left behind;
Henceforth, Yankee, in blood and bone,
We have one country and one alone:

AMERICA.

Land of the larger, nobler view,
Land of the immigrant's dreams come true;
Country where tyranny, caste, and clan
Yield to the sacred rights of man;
Nation whose glorious history
Brightens the hope of humanity;
Storehouse of treasure, rich and vast,
Gift of a providential past,
Spared by fortune of time and place
To nurture a new and favored race;
Land of our opportunity,
Land of our children's destiny:

AMERICA.

If you do well your work of teaching honor, industry, optimism, patriotism, and faith in a Power not ourselves that makes for righteousness, the future of the Republic is safe.

BOOKER T. WASHINGTON—AN APPRECIATION

O. T. CORSON, EDITOR, "OHIO EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY," COLUMBUS, OHIO

Born a slave, without a record of either the place or date of his birth; permitted to grow up in the midst of the direst poverty, without any of the refining influences or tender associations so essential to the happiness and welfare of a little child; compelled at a very early age to work in the salt and coal mines of West Virginia, under conditions which the most heartless exploiter of child labor, in these days, even if the law permitted, would hesitate to impose upon any human being; with no opportunity to go to school and satisfy his insatiable thirst for knowledge; without even a chance to play for which the soul of every child lingers; without a word of encouragement or a whisper of hope from anyone, with the possible exception of his kind but poor and ignorant mother; without even a family name; with everything in both heredity and environment against him and with nothing in his favor: these are a few of the countless and apparently insurmountable difficulties which surround the birth, childhood, and youth of the man in whose honor the members of this Association, representative educators of a nation, now reverently pause for a few moments, in their consideration of educational problems, in order that an opportunity may be given to pay a brief but very imperfect tribute to his memory.

Can it be that out of the depths of such hopeless conditions, there could come, not only a great leader of his race, but also one of the greatest educators and philanthropists which any age or race has ever produced—a man of sterling character and brilliant achievements, who would be honored by degrees from some of America's greatest universities, whose fame would extend across the seas, and whose untimely death would be sincerely mourned by all who knew his worth and work? Certainly, a half-century ago, no

one would have prophesied such a future for such a child, and even today, with an intimate knowledge of the achievements of the all too brief life of Booker T. Washington, it is exceedingly difficult for us to believe what we so certainly know.

It is pleasing and profitable to turn from a consideration of the discouraging conditions which surround the beginnings of the life of this poor boy, with no promise of success, to an enumeration of a few of the marked stages in the steady growth and development of that life in the years that were to follow.

His first taste of knowledge, as represented by symbols, in learning to recognize and make "18," the number allotted to his stepfather in marking the barrels at the salt mine; his advancement in mastering the alphabet and thus teaching himself to read; his success from the start, in the midst of the most disheartening circumstances, in carrying out the "one resolve," which he tells us remained with him constantly in a "determination to secure an education at any cost"; his training in the home of Mrs. Ruffner, where he laid the foundation of all his future success by learning to do everything exactly as it ought to be done and precisely when it should be done; the passing of his entrance examination to Hampton, which consisted in sweeping and dusting a room so perfectly that Miss Mackie, the head teacher, who was not at all prepossessed in his favor, at once recognized in him the qualities certain to win; his hard work as a student, which won for him a place upon the honor roll of commencement speakers; his unselfish devotion to his work as a teacher in the school at his former home, where he stood ready at any time, day or night, to teach anything he knew to anyone who wanted to learn; his later study in Washington, where his observations and experiences served to deepen his conviction of the necessity of industrial training for his race; his call to Hampton as a teacher, which furnished him additional opportunity to prepare for his future career; his life-work at Tuskegee, extending over a little more than a third of a century, beginning in 1881 with practically no equipment of any kind, with himself as the only teacher, and with only a score and a half of students, and ending with his untimely death a short time since, in the Southland to which he was always so devotedly loyal, at the home he so dearly loved, located in the midst of one of the most noted educational communities in all the world, with its property valued in millions, its teachers numbered by hundreds, and its students enrolled by thousands: these are only a few of the many achievements recorded in the life of the man whose memory we cherish, who had the power to turn emergencies into opportunities, and win victories in the midst of conditions which ordinarily insure defeat.

How he made himself the master of his fate and won for himself such a prominent and permanent place in the educational world is an interesting study. Fortunately, the secret of his phenomenal success is not enshrouded in any mystery to be solved by some biographer with a theory of his own

invention. Booker T. Washington is his own biographer. In *Up from Slavery*, with its wealth of interesting and instructive contents and its charm of simple and direct style, he tells the wonderful story of his struggles and achievements. In it all there is not a single note of complaint or bitterness because of his hardships and not a word of boastfulness regarding his attainments. Every difficulty which beset his pathway, he seems to have expected and to have utilized as a means of growth and development, while every special recognition which resulted from his efforts came to him as a surprise for which he was always profoundly grateful.

The fundamental principle upon which he constructed his philosophy of life and built his hope of success is found in his own statement, frequently repeated in modified form, that "every persecuted individual and race should get much consolation out of the great human law, which is universal and eternal, that merit, no matter under what skin found, is, in the long run, recognized and rewarded."

He believed with all of the intensity of his being that merit, and merit only, would win success and that any man would be recognized and rewarded just in proportion as he learns to do something well; learns to do it better than someone else; learns to do a common thing in an uncommon manner; learns to make his services of indispensable value.

As a natural outgrowth of his abiding faith in the success which merit is certain to win, he was able to say in the face of some of the most trying circumstances which ever confronted a human soul:

I will not say that I became discouraged, for, as I now look back over my life, I do not recall that I ever became discouraged over anything that I set out to accomplish. I have begun everything with the idea that I could succeed.

The success which he believed he could win by meriting it was not, however, in any sense, a selfish success. He earnestly strived to succeed in order that he might thereby be able the better to serve. In his autobiography we read:

From my early childhood, I have had a desire to do something to make the world better, and then to be able to speak to the world about that thing.

It was this desire, aroused in his early childhood and deepened by the experiences of each passing year, that impelled him to perform deeds of heroic self-sacrifice—literally to give his own life in unselfish service for others—and that enabled him to tell the inspiring story of what he had done with rare eloquence and power. How well he succeeded in realizing the first part of his desire "to do something to make the world better," thousands of his own race who came under his influence at Tuskegee, and thousands of the white race who realize what he accomplished for humanity, unite in bearing willing and convincing testimony. That he also succeeded in realizing the second part of his desire, "to be able to speak to the world" about what he had done, his numerous educational addresses, and published articles and books abundantly prove. And now that his voice is

silent and he can no longer speak directly to the world, the noble institution at Tuskegee, to which he gave his life, still remains to speak, out of its splendid history and with its future promise, most eloquently and forcefully of his great work.

On this occasion it is interesting to recall that Mr. Washington dated the beginning of his public-speaking career with his first address before the National Education Association at Madison in 1884. This was also his first address that dealt in any large measure with the general problem of the races. It is not surprising that many white people, some of them from his home community, went to the meeting expecting to hear the South abused. They were all pleasantly surprised by not hearing a word of abuse, but, on the other hand, a full and generous recognition of all the praiseworthy things which the white people of Tuskegee and the South had done to help in starting the school. In this address, as in all others which he made, he was guided by a few fixed principles, which were imbedded in deep-seated convictions, and from which he never deviated. These principles, stated briefly, were a determination to say nothing at any time that he did not feel from the bottom of his heart to be true and right, never to say anything in an address in the North that he would not be willing to say in the South, and an earnest desire to say something that would cement the friendship of the races and bring about hearty co-operation between them.

In many respects, his greatest address before the National Education Association was delivered in 1900 at the Charleston meeting. On that occasion an unusual audience assembled under unusual conditions. The great hall in which the meeting was held had been built a short time before to accommodate the reunion of Confederate veterans. Of the eight thousand persons in attendance, at least one-third were colored people. Seated on the same platform were the speaker of the evening and other representatives of the colored race, who, a few decades before, had been slaves, and some of the most prominent white citizens of the South, who had formerly owned slaves. To the credit of the founder of the great educational institution at Tuskegee, he felt that night, in an unusual manner and to an unusual degree, the weight of the heavy responsibility resting upon him. Only those who were near him in that trying hour can comprehend the anxiety which burdened his soul and which manifested itself all too plainly in his trembling body and embarrassed manner. How well he met that responsibility and measured up to the opportunity which came with it, all who heard him will always remember. In an address of remarkable power, replete with humor and pathos and abounding in statements of fundamental significance to both races, driven home by unanswerable logic, and withal tactfully and eloquently phrased, this apostle of good sense made his plea for the education of his race and their right to receive such recognition as their honest efforts to attain respectability and win success might merit.

To the credit and honor of the citizens of Charleston and of the South will always be remembered the cordial reception and hearing accorded to the speaker, and the uniform courtesy shown to him and the members of his race at that memorable meeting.

Any just appreciation of the life and work of Booker T. Washington must emphasize the high regard in which he is held by the white people of all sections of our united country. When asked what he regarded as the most important result of his work, he replied:

I do not know which to put first, the effect of Tuskegee's work on the Negro, or the effect on the attitude of the white man to the Negro.

In his large and constructive task of winning the approval of all thoughtful southern white men and the cordial support of southern public opinion, he succeeded, not by hard work alone, but by hard work directed by the rarest common-sense and the highest practical wisdom. In his many public addresses and published articles, there cannot be found a single unwise statement or untimely remark.

In no one of his addresses, however, did he rise to a higher plane of thought and expression than in his first great address before the people of the South at the Atlanta Exposition in 1895—an address which Clark Howell, the successor to the lamented and loved Henry Grady, declared to be "the beginning of a moral revolution in America." It was in this address that he used the historic sentence which revealed to his refined and cultured audience of southern citizens his rare sense and sound judgment, and which at once won for him the hearty sympathy and cordial support of the white people who heard him then for the first time. It is impossible to imagine or describe the scene which followed, when this, up to that hour, comparatively unknown leader, held his dusky hand high above his head, with the fingers stretched wide apart, and said:

In all things that are purely social we can be as separate as the fingers, yet one as the hand in all things essential to mutual progress.

This address was a revelation to all who heard it or read it, and marks the beginning of a newly awakened and more sympathetic interest in the education and uplift of the colored race, and also of a better understanding of that relation between the races which is so essential to their mutual progress.

Of the many estimates of the character and work of Booker T. Washington which have been given, two have been selected for record in this appreciation. The first is by a leading representative of the white race, Walter H. Page, our ambassador to England. In his fine introduction to the latest edition of *Up from Slavery* published in 1914, he says:

It is well for our common country that the day is come when he and his work are regarded as highly in the South as in any section of the Union. I think that no man of this generation has a more noteworthy achievement to his credit than this, and it is the achievement of the moral earnestness of the strong character of a man who has done a great national service.

The second is from a member of his own race, Emmet J. Scott, who so loyally served his principal for so many years as his private secretary:

The glory of his life was its dedication to the service of both races, North and South. He will be remembered as an educational enthusiast whose sympathies and activities were broad enough to include all races and movements looking to the betterment of mankind.

In years, as measured by the calendar, Booker T. Washington's life was brief indeed. He did not live out man's allotted time on earth. In that brief life, however, he traveled the long journey which marks the distance between the birth of a slave boy and the death of an acknowledged leader of his race, of an educator of international fame, and of a benefactor of mankind. Measured by deeds of heroic self-sacrificing service for others, his life is limitless in its length and breadth and depth.

Mark Hopkins, the great college president, the teacher and inspirer of Samuel C. Armstrong; Samuel C. Armstrong, the great principal of the school at Hampton, the teacher and inspirer of Booker T. Washington; Booker T. Washington, the great founder and principal of Tuskegee, the teacher and inspirer of thousands of men and women who today mourn his death and revere his memory: these are three of the immortals in the world of education, the influence of whose living and teaching will forever remain to bless humanity and to encourage and to inspire all who teach.

HIGH POINTS IN THE LOS ANGELES PLAN

J. H. FRANCIS, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, LOS ANGELES, CAL.

The first high point of the Los Angeles public schools I shall mention is the high cost of living, the high cost of educational living. Those of us who have read the reports of the survey of the Cleveland schools have discovered that we occupy the unique position of being among the cities which rank first, if we are not the first of them all, in respect of average cost per pupil; and as regards this element of cost the report also declares that we rank first in the cost of teachers' salaries. We pay, as I recall it now, on a basis of average daily attendance something like \$54 per pupil per year for the elementary schools, \$87 for the intermediate, and \$130 for the high schools.

We are trying to build well in the material phases of education, not because the public can see the brick and mortar that goes into a building and we can take our visitors around and show them what we have done in the way of building, but because it adds somewhat to the efficiency of the school. But I think that we are approaching the time when we will be able to get along with less of the luxuries in buildings and equipment and expend a larger proportion of our funds upon the intellect and the spirit of education.

This cost has increased for two reasons: (1) We have reduced the number of pupils per teacher; (2) we furnish more special teachers.

It is quite simple for a superintendent to lessen the cost of his system by adding to the enrolment per teacher, but it is a tremendously expensive thing in the development of the individual child. We do not believe that it is possible for a teacher to face forty different little personalities and individualities, and assume the responsibility for their mental, spiritual, and physical development, and do it successfully. It is beyond human power. Education does not consist in passing a child thru a course of study of the minimum essentials, and stamping him as having completed that course to the satisfaction of his teacher or teachers. It consists rather in creating an atmosphere that is free, that is intelligent, and that can understand and talk to each child.

As has been said, we furnish more teachers for special teaching, supplying special teachers for the larger buildings and for groups of smaller ones, for music, drawing, cookery, gardening, and sometimes for sewing, sloyd, social work, home work, Batavia work, and so forth.

I have been asked what our regular teachers do while these special teachers have charge of the pupils. I do not know. Really I do not care much more about it than that, for I know the real teacher will use this time profitably, and the time-serving teacher is worthless anyhow with her time. There are a hundred ways in which the teacher may fit into a large elementary or high school, where she can use her time to the greatest profit in handling individual problems while these special teachers are handling the problems of their departments.

The rock toward which the educational ship is drifting is the financial one. You and I must educate the people to believe that it is better to save a child to himself before he runs into the reefs of his life than it is to expend money on police courts, jails, and juvenile courts trying to patch him up and protect society from him after he has been wrecked. The public must recognize that the greatest asset of a nation is her boys and her girls, and that instead of spending too much money today on offering these boys and girls a chance at their better and bigger selves we are spending all too little.

The second point in our work is an attempt upon the part of our schools to lengthen the school day by offering shopwork, home economics work, and work in music, drawing, art, and playground activities before and after school. To be sure, that attempt has been very seriously crippled this year on account of lack of funds and for other reasons, but we have made a fairly good start along a very significant line.

Someone has said: "Give me control of the leisure time of our boys and girls, and you may have them all the rest of the time," and it is coming to be tremendously true. The greatest danger this nation faces today comes from the unoccupied time of her boys and her girls, and the reason

that countless thousands of them "go bad," as we call it, is not because they wish to but because there is no place to "go good."

The solution of the problem lies in having the public schools offer them something to do that is worth their doing and that will occupy them more than three or four hours a day out of twenty-four, and more than 180 days out of the 365.

In the large cities of the nation the moving picture, one of the greatest instrumentalities for education in modern times, has been allowed by us to be commercialized; and yet for the last ten years it has been the most powerful single instrumentality in the education of the American youth. The result for the coming generation cannot be measured. The fault lies not with the moving picture, but it lies with you and with me who are professed educators, because we did not gather it up fifteen or twenty years ago, and take it into our schoolhouses and into our churches, controlling the character of the pictures put on the film, and turning it toward an educational development and the solution of educational problems. I have yet to see the boy who wouldn't rather do something worth doing than something that is dissipating and degenerating, and when he does not do such things it is because there is no chance for him. Take a great city like Detroit, and other cities of the nation: what can your boy and mine do before school and after school, on Saturdays and during the long summer months? Opportunities must be offered him in school shops, on school farms, in drawing centers, music centers, dramatic centers, in school printing presses, and in other things that might be offered by the schools to take up the slack of his leisure time.

We are measuring the boy's experience with our experience as a boy, forgetting, however, that great social and economic changes have made his life wholly different from the one we lived. When we were boys, there was something to do and we had to do it. In the great cities today there is nothing to do, and the public schools must put into the lives of boys and girls something that modern civilization has taken out of their lives. We cannot expect the kind of men and women that will keep our nation continuously growing in greatness unless we prepare our boys and girls for their responsibilities in life.

The third point is diversity. You have been hearing a great deal these days about uniformity. This is about diversity. I have a theory that children do differ. As I look at the little fellows, and know that they have different heredities, different environments, and different sets of experiences, I am quite convinced that they themselves have certain points of difference, and that the most striking feature of humanity is its differences rather than its likenesses, and that the attempt to make all alike is working against nature and will not succeed. So we have diversified both in courses of study and in organization of schools, and this has cost money. In school activities, we have diversified in the way of nature-studies, taking children

out into the country and down to the beaches, having picnics, intellectual picnics, and taking them into places of amusement, and getting them to look at things as they are. You say you cannot do that without scientific background; but really some of the science of these boys who learn to handle snakes and to become familiar with plants is almost equal to that of the laboratory expert who has given his life to studying the thing theoretically. At all events it is refreshing, and it has in it the elements of life. And we take our pupils three or four times a year out on the hills. Of course, you couldn't do that here. And we take them to the mountains, and down to the beaches, where they wander with their teachers, talking with their teachers, and learning with their teachers.

We achieve diversity in the way of home gardening; diversity in the way of additional shop work; diversity in the way of additional music, with an elementary-school orchestra organized four years ago, with twelve hundred little folks playing in it. The parents declare that these little people are anxious to learn their private music lessons in order to get into the orchestra. It is a center of life, a stimulation of activity and hopefulness for the future. If this nation is ever to be a musical nation, it will not be because we have the great stars of the world play for us and sing for us. It will be because we get the largest number of our boys and our girls interested in music.

They say that we are crowding the courses of study. Surely we are. Yet we are giving 85 per cent of our money, and 85 per cent of our time, to the so-called academic studies, the "essentials" of education. We might extend the school day, for that is too much time and too much money to give to what we term the essentials of education. After all, what are the essentials of education? A certain group of studies, a certain amount of each of the studies of this group, given at a certain time. We take a little fellow at six years of age in the first grade. We expect him to read with a certain degree of efficiency and cover a certain amount of territory. If he does not, we say he is a failure. We send word home to his parents that he is a failure. It is a crime against childhood. A little child cannot fail. What if he doesn't read as well as this boy by the side of him? Give him time. His mother doesn't worry if she has three boys and they do not all talk at the same age or walk at the same age; and yet we great psychologists and philosophers get the little fellow, set him down in front of us, and ask him to sit down and fold his hands and look up to us as if he really loved us, and read with the same degree of efficiency as the child at the side of him who may have a different development and a different set of experiences.

The time is coming when we will desist from this barbarity of school reports, and just follow that child in his tendencies and his developments. We have now no definite information by which to tell the parent of the child what his tendencies are. Under the new system, we will follow that

child carefully, watch his tendencies, and then, by the time he gets into the seventh grade, we will be able to say: "His school history indicates that possibly this line of activity would be best for him, but not surely." After he gets into that grade we will give him a chance to confirm it himself, and, when he gets to the high school, we may be able to give definite information that will help the parent and the boy, and say: "We think your ability lies along the line of literature, or art, or science, or mechanics or agriculture, or something else."

We have diversified the school also. I am going to give you a brief illustration of what we call the "Neighborhood School," where the school is organized to meet the needs of the neighborhood. It has a penny lunch-room where we feed the children; and lunch for the child if he does not have his penny. If he does not, the teacher is in touch with the home and knows whether or not he ought to have the penny. In the last six or seven years, the penny lunch alone has revolutionized the school.

The next high point is the intermediate school. I have learned a lot of things about the intermediate schools that I did not know before, and that I do not now believe. I have heard that the high school has no right to take the children from the elementary school, as if the children belonged to the grade, instead of the grade belonging to the children. I have heard that the intermediate school is directing the child toward a definite vocation in life. My conception of it is that the intermediate school is only widening just a little the opportunities of the child to find himself somewhere. I have heard that the same thing can be done in the elementary schools. It is a question of numbers. There are no elementary schools in the country that I know of that have a large enough number of seventh-, eighth-, and ninth-grade children to offer them any very wide course of study or wide area of activities.

I have heard that our democracy is in imminent danger because we are taking the child and throwing him into castes. What about this universal democracy of which we boast? Do we have it now? Those of us who would concede it would have to confess that there are few civilized nations in the world today fundamentally less democratic than we are. This is due to the fact of a lack of mingling among boys and girls who have different aptitudes and following different lines of work. It is because the rich man doesn't understand the poor man and the poor man doesn't understand the rich man; because the scholar doesn't understand the workman and the workman doesn't understand the scholar. If we are going to have democracy, it will be by the efforts of those who understand each other and because all of us have a chance to develop ourselves into efficiency along lines in which we are working.

We have six intermediate high schools with seven thousand pupils, and so far we have accomplished this: one option in the seventh grade, two options in the eighth grade, and more in the ninth grade. There is no

attempt at shaping of the boys and girls into any definite thing at all. We have succeeded so far in bridging the gap between the eighth and ninth grades, and, where we have had thousands of boys and girls dropping out of the ninth grade, we now have from 85 per cent to 87 per cent of them going thru the ninth grade of the intermediate school into the tenth grade. Where we had a large number of boys and girls falling out of the eighth grade at the end of the eighth grade in the regular elementary schools, we now carry 85 per cent to 86 per cent from the eighth grade in the intermediate schools into the ninth grade, carrying a larger number of boys and girls one year longer at least. We have not only done that, but we have saved a half-year.

We have brought together a thousand boys and girls of the same age, of the same aptitudes, of the same hopes, and put them together where they can work out the same problems.

There should be diversity in the elementary schools, but the kind of diversity that comes in the eighth and ninth grades, and the seventh grade too, must be conceded to be a little different from the diversity of those elementary schools. You cannot get together, in the seventh and eighth grades of the average school system, enough pupils of the same age and grade to give a chance for this diversity that is needed. There has been a lot of talk about the change of the child. It is really a problem of mathematics. It is a problem of offering at the right time the thing that could not possibly be offered under the old administration.

These intermediate schools have practically eliminated failures from the ninth grade. They have carried the children into the second year of the tenth grade. They have saved the city a half-year of expenditure, and they are working out the same problems, in the same way, that the high schools are working out.

Our city established the intermediate school for the sake of the seventh- and eighth-grade boys and girls, and not for the sake of the high schools. We have told the high schools time and again that it is not the business of the elementary schools to prepare children for the high schools, any more than it is the business of the high schools to prepare boys and girls for the colleges. Neither is it the business of the first grade to prepare boys and girls for the second grade. It is the business of the first grade to have the fullest, freest, and deepest development of the first grade possible. If that does not meet the needs of the second grade, let the second grade change to meet the situation; and, if the elementary schools are developing the boys and girls as they ought to, and if the high schools are not satisfied, let the high schools change their demands.

What we need is the right kind of life for boys and girls.

SIGNIFICANT DEVELOPMENTS IN EDUCATIONAL SURVEYING

LEONARD P. AYRES, DIRECTOR, DIVISION OF EDUCATION, RUSSELL SAGE FOUNDATION, NEW YORK, N.Y.

Two important conditions are shaping the school-survey movement. The first is that school surveys are rapidly increasing in number. At the present time, there are under way or definitely projected more school surveys than all those combined that have so far been completed. That the movement is rapidly spreading is certain. It is here because the public want to know the facts about their schools, and the school survey is the most efficient means yet discovered for finding them out and making them known.

The second significant fact about school surveys is that they are steadily improving in quality. It is almost literally true that every survey report that has been published has in one or more conspicuous respects been superior to all its predecessors. This is because we began to make surveys without knowing how and have been learning as we went along.

The school survey differs from other reports on school systems in its fundamental philosophy and basic methods. The purpose of the survey is to educate the public. Its object is to tell the people in simple terms all the salient facts about their public schools and then to rely on the common sense, the common insight, and the common purpose of the people as the first great resource in working out their problem. If we regard the survey in this broader way as an implement for social progress rather than a mere method of educational investigation, we shall realize that complete survey work involves three steps.

The first step is a competently conducted study of the situation. The second is the education of the public in the findings of the study. The third is doing something about it. This means utilizing the newly found fact basis for the purpose of constructive action designed to improve the situation. It is in the second of these three steps that the most important developments are now being made in survey methods. The survey has begun to find out how to educate the public. It has begun to bridge the gap between knowing and doing.

Almost a year ago the city of Cleveland undertook a thoro study of its educational problems. The work began last April as an educational survey which includes the problems of industrial education as well as those of the regular school work, and which looks into the future as well as studies the present. This survey is being carried on under the auspices of the Cleveland Foundation and with the co-operation of the Board of Education. Some twenty-five specialists have been engaged in the work for varying lengths of time and the entire expense will be about \$35,000.

The reports of the Cleveland work are being published in twenty-five volumes. This does not mean, however, that the report is to be so formid-

able as might appear from the mere statement of the number of volumes. It means that the Cleveland Survey has developed a form of publication quite comparable to the sectional-unit idea in office furniture or modern bookcases. In Cleveland the entire survey work has been divided into relatively small sections and a complete and independent treatise is being prepared on each section.

There are many advantages resulting from this form of publication and most of them relate to securing superior results in educating the public; in bridging the gap between knowing and doing. The typical procedure is as follows: The specialist employed to study one feature of the work submits his report. It may have to do with health work, or provisions for exceptional children, or school buildings, or the teaching force, or any other phase of the educational work of the city.

After the report is submitted, the director of the survey and other members of the staff work over it with the author to make sure that its findings are accurate and that its recommendations are in harmony with those of the other sections. The report is then put into what the office force has come to term "tentative final form" and some twenty copies of it are made by the mimeograph process. These copies are then submitted to the members of the survey committee, the members of the board of education, the superintendent of schools, and such interested school officials as the board or the superintendent may designate.

For example, a manuscript dealing with health work is submitted to the chief medical inspector, while one having to do with buildings is submitted to the architect and the business director, and a meeting is held of all those persons to whom the manuscript has been submitted. At this meeting, criticisms, corrections, and suggestions are discussed at great length and in great detail. In addition to the verbal discussions, all of the members are invited to submit written memoranda.

These conferences result in clearing up before publication questions of fact and questions of form. They do not clear away all the differences of opinion with respect to interpretation and recommendation. In these matters the final decision is left in the hands of the survey director. This process of conference has resulted in mature deliberation concerning each fact presented and each recommendation offered. Some of the reports have been rewritten as many as five times before being finally sent to the printer. The representations of the members of the board of education and the school officials have resulted in some changes in every volume and in scores of changes in some of them. In the aggregate, some hundreds of alterations have been made as a result of the representations and arguments of the school people.

After the report has gone thru this searching process of revision, it is printed in the form of a small bound monograph of anywhere from 60 to 300 pages in length and usually having many diagrams, tables, and illustrations.

Each monograph, as it comes from the printer, is given to the public and to the newspapers at a public luncheon given in one of the leading hotels. The director of the survey or the author of the monograph gives a talk of a little more than a half-hour's duration presenting the gist of the report published that week. Moreover, the reports are placed on sale at the time of the meeting. A uniform charge of twenty-five cents is made for the volumes altho it costs more than that to publish them. During the first few months of the work, the methods and problems of the survey were discussed at these luncheons, and during the last few weeks the findings have been discussed in the manner just described.

Altho this work has now been going on for more than ten months, the weekly audiences have always comfortably filled the hall, and recently they have been growing so large that the hotel accommodations have been entirely inadequate to care for them.

As the weekly luncheons have increased in popularity, the newspapers of the city have given increasing amounts of space to the consideration of educational problems and the discussion of the weekly reports. On more than one occasion, the report of the weekly educational luncheon has backed everything else off the front page except the date and the weather.

This laborious process constitutes a new development in educational practice and in the technique of the school survey. We may call it bridging the gap between knowing and doing, or we may term it a process of carrying the community. It is a method of educating the public concerning its educational problems. Its object is to make the entire school system pass in complete review before the public eye. It makes the schools and the public pay attention to each other. It presents the past, the present, and the possible. Its aim is to place before the citizens a picture of the schools—a picture so accurate that it cannot mislead, so simple that it cannot be misunderstood, and so significant that it cannot be disregarded. The Cleveland experience demonstrates that it is entirely possible to arouse the public to this sort of interest in their school problems and then to sustain that interest.

There are some developments in the character of the findings of the Cleveland Survey that have come as a result of these new methods of bringing the school people and the public into the survey work. Since each section of the report is a separate volume, it must be sufficiently complete to stand on its own legs. In order to meet this requirement, the different specialists have been compelled to delve deeply into the fundamental factors conditioning their problems. Moreover, the Cleveland work has been conducted under specially favorable circumstances. The workers have had ample time and there has been ample financial support. The work has enjoyed the co-operation of the school authorities and the reports have profited by the searching criticism to which they have been subjected. As a result of these conditions, the findings of the Cleveland Survey deal in

the main with fundamental problems rather than with details; with the essential rather than with the contingent; and with what to do rather than how to do it.

This newest sort of school survey work is illustrated by the section of the Cleveland Survey devoted to measuring the quality of classroom instruction carried on under the direction of Charles H. Judd, of Chicago. At the outset, we decided that in measuring classroom processes and products it was not so important to find out how the work in Cleveland compared with that in Detroit, Boston, New York, and a dozen other cities, as it was to find out how the work in Cleveland compared with the Cleveland standard. We decided that the important thing was to find out what kind of progress was being made thruout the system, grade after grade, and how the achievements of different grades and schools compared with those of other grades and schools. The work proceeded, moreover, on the theory that it was vastly more important to leave in the city a corps of teachers, principals, and supervisory officers understanding the use of testing methods and trained in the giving of the tests than it was merely to find out how the work compared in excellence with that done somewhere else.

As a result of these decisions, some very interesting methods have been developed for discovering the factors affecting progress and achievement in the basic school subjects. For example, the Survey has discovered and mapped out the neutral ground between speed and quality in handwriting. In general, children who write rapidly write poorly and those who write well write slowly. Nevertheless there is a point to which quality may be developed without reducing speed and a point to which speed may be increased without hurting quality. The Cleveland Survey has discovered these points for that city for each grade.

Moreover, a method has been developed by which to measure and record for each school the progress made from grade to grade on both speed and quality combined. Again, several hundred teachers have been trained in the use of the handwriting scale. In short, the methods of measuring achievement in handwriting are no longer mere scientific curiosities; they have become valuable instruments of teaching and of supervision.

The tests in spelling comprised more than 2,100,000 individual spellings. The tests were made up from tests that had previously been given to children in eighty-four other cities. In Cleveland two series of tests were given—one with the words arranged in lists and the other with the words arranged in sentences. There has long been an active controversy as to the effects of the two methods on the accuracy of the results. In Cleveland the outcome will not give comfort to either party in this controversy, for the results showed that the children spelled the words just as well in the sentences as in the lists and just as well in the lists as in the sentences. Valuable data were produced showing improvement from grade to grade and the comparisons between different schools.

It is more important, however, from the point of view of school administration, that these tests resulted in finding definite standards of progress from grade to grade, from the third thru the eighth, in every fundamental operation in arithmetic.

Children in all the grades were tested in oral and silent reading. The studies not only resulted in showing how much the children could read out loud or silently in a given period of time, but they developed a method for measuring how much the children comprehended and retained of what they had read.

Two striking results stand out as products of these reading-tests. The first is that children read very much more rapidly to themselves than they do aloud. The second and much more important showing is that in general the fastest readers are the best readers and the slowest readers are the poorest readers. That is to say, the child who reads rapidly is apt to be the one who retains and produces best what he has read, while the one who reads in a slow and stumbling manner is apt to retain but little of the meaning.

Turning now from educational to administrative problems, the findings again have for their object the analysis of the situation, rather than the weighing of it in the balance. Cleveland, like most other rapidly growing cities, has many overcrowded school buildings. The pressure for school accommodations is powerful while the shortage of funds is painful. In every city in the land where these conditions obtain, attention has been directed toward the administrative methods in use at Gary, Ind., by means of which increased numbers of children are accommodated in the school buildings.

During the past few years, Superintendent Shattuck O. Hartwell, formerly of Kalamazoo and now of Muskegon, Mich., has been carrying thru an important series of experiments to determine how far the Gary idea may be applied to the existing school buildings of a school system established and running along conventional lines. He has developed some very important answers to these questions and put them into practical and successful application in the city of Kalamazoo. One of the most interesting reports of the Cleveland Survey is the book by Superintendent Hartwell on the platoon plan, which is the name applied to the Gary idea as he has modified it for use in existing school systems.

The study of the school and the immigrant has brought to light the fact that Cleveland, like other modern industrial cities, really has three great systems of education all simultaneously active. The first of these is the public school system. The second is the parochial school system. The third is a system about which we know little but which is of great social import. It is the system of schools and classes conducted in the afternoon, in the evening, and on Sundays by the different nationality groups for the purpose of instructing their children in their native languages. Thousands of children in the city of Cleveland are enrolled in these classes

and are doing this most arduous school work in addition to that of the regular schools.

Some of the findings of the Survey are social rather than educational or administrative in nature, but they have important educational implications. For example, in the study of commercial work, an analysis of some thousands of office positions held by men and women, and boys and girls, demonstrates with great clearness that the modern commercial work of men is an entirely different thing from the commercial work of women. With perfect definiteness the records show that the requirements of the work, the lines of promotion, and the necessary preparation are of one sort for the boys and men and of another and entirely different sort for the girls and women. These are facts which no city can afford to overlook in planning its high-school courses in commercial work.

The studies of the educational provisions for exceptional children have brought to light the fundamental condition that these children consist of two great groups who may be designated as the socially competent and the socially incompetent. The socially competent consist of all those who are of normal mentality and who will spend their lives in association with normal people. They are the backward, the blind, the deaf, the crippled, the foreign, and the children of the open-air schools. Since they are socially competent and are to spend their lives in competition with the rest of us, they should be educated in special classes in regular schools and have at least part of their work in the regular classes with the normal children.

The socially incompetent children consist of the feeble-minded and the epileptics who may be cared for during their younger years by the public schools but who are so deficient that they must eventually be placed in institutions. The duty of the school system is to prepare these children for self-support in institutional life, and the most reasonable way of doing this in large cities is to segregate them in special schools.

In the field of industrial education, eight special studies covering the most important industrial activities of the city are being conducted. Each study has three objects. It attempts to describe the industry in simple terms, not only portraying the nature of the work, but giving information concerning wages, unemployment, and health conditions. Secondly, it tells how people may get into the industry and what the prospects of promotion are after they get in. In the third place, each study discusses education for the industry, both before entering it and afterward.

These industrial studies have brought to light some interesting and important discoveries. In the past few years, we have heard a great deal of criticism directed toward the public schools because they were educating large numbers of pupils for commercial and professional work and very few for industrial work. These criticisms have been accompanied by impressive figures showing that there are a great many people engaged in industrial work and very few in professional work. One thing that has

been entirely overlooked in making these comparisons is that most of our industrial work is done by people of foreign birth, while our professional positions are held by people of native birth. Our school children are almost entirely of native birth altho many of them are of foreign parentage. When we talk about their vocational destinations, we should remember that we are in the main discussing American-born people and that we must base our considerations on figures showing what American-born people are doing. For Cleveland such a comparison indicates that for American-born boys the chance of becoming a lawyer is greater than the chance of becoming a mason, and the chance of becoming a doctor is greater than that of becoming a tinsmith. Similar facts affect each consideration of vocational education for men and for women and for every sort of vocational career.

There is another most important consideration conditioning every plan for the organization of industrial education. This is the consideration of the community's capacity to absorb workmen trained for any given occupation. In Cleveland about four thousand boys leave the public schools each year. Most of them range in age from fourteen to eighteen and in school advancement from the sixth grade to the last high-school class. They represent a cross-section of the city's adult manhood of a few years hence.

Now the census figures tell us that if present conditions maintain in the future only about 25 in each 1,000 of these boys will be carpenters. Since about 4,000 boys leave school each year, it is probably true that there are about 100 future carpenters among them. Now Cleveland has more than 100 elementary schools and 11 high schools and these 100 future carpenters are widely scattered among them. Most of them are in the elementary schools, for few high-school boys become carpenters. Even if we knew which boys were destined to become carpenters and even if we knew when they would leave school and even if we should decide to give them all trade preparatory education for the last two years of their school life, we should still have an average trade class in carpentry of only two boys in each elementary school. This is administratively and educationally impossible. It indicates something of the difficulties involved in the organization of preparatory industrial education and illustrates the importance of analyzing the social factors controlling the situation.

To summarize: Among the recent developments in the methods of school surveying there may be distinguished two trends which are specially significant. One of these is the attempt of contemporaneous surveys to analyze the fundamental factors which constitute the real educational problems. The second is the development of a new survey technic which spends time, uses energy, consumes money, and directs attention toward educating the community in the problems and tasks of their educational system, as well as in discovering and formulating the conditions themselves.

This is the process of making the schools and the public pay attention to each other. It is the process of bridging the gap between knowing and doing. It is the method of carrying the community.

These newer developments in educational surveying are strange and novel now, but next year or the year after that they will be familiar and even commonplace. They will soon be a part of the modern scientific method in education which was only emerging from theory and experiment a scant ten years ago but which is profoundly reshaping our educational systems today. Thus progress plods along from paradox to platitude.

THE THIRTIETH MAN

JOHN H. FINLEY, PRESIDENT, UNIVERSITY OF THE STATE OF NEW YORK,
ALBANY, N.Y.

[After contrasting the unorganized public life of the frontier democracy of forty years ago on the prairies of Illinois, as he remembered it, with the present public life of our great commonwealths, President Finley gave a description of a little one-room schoolhouse where he had gone to school. He said in part:]

The schoolmaster was the only paid representative of the community, of society, of the state, within my horizon, for there was no postmaster, no policeman, no constable, no rural free delivery, and, so far as I know, no assessor, supervisor, or overseer of the poor.

The pupils were of little public concern, quite in contrast to the immigrant child coming to this democracy. They are guarded by many anxious ordinances and laws, in which public provision is made that his eyes shall be properly opened; that he shall have a certain cubic footage of air space; that contagious diseases shall be kept out of his path. They sterilize his milk; filter his water; forbid his taking old-fashioned cough medicines or soothing syrups prepared by secret formulae; remove his adenoids and tonsils; vaccinate him; tell him how to avoid tuberculosis and to correct his astigmatism or strabismus. They follow him with antitoxin and disinfectants; label poisons and put them out of his easy reach; label education and compel him to literacy; police his ways; take him in an ambulance to a public hospital, if he is injured, and try to preserve the spark of life in him as long as possible before his name is added to the mortality column.

Forty years after this early experience with the crudities of pioneer administration, I made an estimate of the number of persons giving service to the state, either directly or thru some municipality. As nearly as I could determine then, one person in every thirty adults, at any rate in the most thickly settled communities, was a public servant.

I then said that since the activity of the state was increasing (in that very year 104 new boards and commissions had been voted in the various

states), it would not be long before society found 1 in 30 too few. I have just had a new estimate made, and I find that for the state of New York the ratio even now is perhaps 1 in 28; it may be even 1 in 27 or 25.

Think who this thirtieth man is. He sweeps the streets of the city and starts the fires in the schoolhouse. He is pontifex of the country roads. He lights the lamps when the great lamp of heaven goes out, and extinguishes the fires of the earth. With one hand he gathers our letters, and with the other he distributes them in the remotest cabins on the mountains. He weighs the wind, reads the portents of the clouds, gives augury of the heat and cold. He makes wells in the valleys among the hills, he fills the pools with water, and carries it from those distant hills to the city. He tastes the milk before a city child may drink it; he tests and labels the food in the stores and shops; he corrects false balances and short measures. He keeps watch over forest and stream; gives warning of rocks and shoals to men at sea, and of plague and poison to those on land. He is warden of fish and bird and wild beast; he is host to the homeless and shelterless; he is guardian and nurse to the child who comes friendless into the world and chaplain at the burial of the man who goes friendless out of it. He is assessor and collector of taxes—treasurer and comptroller; he is the teacher of seventeen million children, youths, men, and women; he is public librarian and maker of books, for the blind even; overseer of the poor, and supervisor; superintendent, doctor, nurse, and guard in hospital, prison, and almshouse; coroner, and keeper of the potter's field. He is mayor, judge, public prosecutor, and sheriff. He is a soldier in the army and a sailor in the navy, general and admiral, legislator, justice, member of the cabinet, governor, and president.

In addition to this he is a member of numberless public commissions and boards, paid and unpaid, industrial and educational, scientific, philanthropic, administrative, with functions ranging all the way from the inspection of terrapin in one state and scythe stones in another state, to the regency of a state university.

I have thought that if one who saw the real significance of the list of these thirtieth men could express it, he would find in this list more vital stuff than that out of which the classics of literature have been written—a poem of men fighting fires in the forests and in the tenements; of men and women fighting pathogenic bacteria in the air, earth, and water; of men fighting flood and drought; of men and women fighting ignorance and sloth and passion in thousands of schoolrooms; of millions of public servants fighting uncleanness, and corruption, and disease, and waste, with broom and statistics, with lens and meter and test tube and scalpel, and honest and expert eyes and clean and skilful hands.

Who should not be proud to be a public servant!

The *New York Sun* a few months ago credited me with a contribution to folk-lore in the creation of a mythical character, "the happy taxpayer."

The intimation of the editor was that three conditions were necessary to give this imagined person an almost real existence: that the taxes should be equal; that they should be economically spent for the public good; and, above all, that they should be low.

I agree as to the first two incarnating qualities, but I think that the third is not essential to the transmutation; for the three words potent to transform the demi-sprite into a happy human citizen are *equality*, *economy*, and *exaltation* or *glorification*.

If we could but see our taxes touching with a healing hand the sick, or the eyes of the blind, or the ears of the deaf, or touching with illuminating hope those who sit in despair, if we could but see taxes transforming, protecting, teaching, carrying the community to a service greater than all who pay them could give if they labored individually, we should pay taxes as gladly as we give and labor and suffer for those who are dearest to us.

There are soldiers who are happy in exposing their lives for a country; there are men who are happy in offering their hard-earned fortune for a cause; there are fathers who are happy in their self-denial for the sake of a son's education; there are mothers who are happy in the very suffering that makes other life possible. And there are citizens even now living in New York (not alone in my imagination) who are happy in paying taxes for a common good higher than their own.

The first book which I had a part in writing was a treatise on taxation. I should like to prepare another book on the same subject now. I should have, of course, to devote chapters to the incidence, to the equalization, to the economic expenditure of taxes. But I should make the culminating chapter one on the "hallowing" of taxes, on "How to Make People Happy in Paying Taxes."

I would show, for example, how the public tax had been converted into the training of a New York East Side boy, named Goethals, who would some day dig the Panama Canal. I would show how taxes had been transmuted into the skill of a certain doctor who had saved thousands of lives, and of a brother who had organized the weather bureau. I would show how taxes had taken an Italian boy, trained him, and then sent him to Cuba to expose his life in discovering how the yellow-fever germ is carried.

So I propose, wherever I go, the organization of local societies of "The Happy Taxpayers," with the motto "Equality, Economy, and Exaltation," and for working capital this purpose: millions for making the people of the state happier, better, but not one dollar for avoidable incompetence or sloth or dishonesty in public service.

And what we are spending for education is a pittance by the side of what we are spending for war. The people of Europe are spending each week for war more than we spend in a year for education. And shall we say that any sacrifice less than that which they are yonder making for their

country is too much for us to make for our children—since the children of today are tomorrow's state? What we do for their right training we do for their defense.

DEFINITENESS AND COMPULSION IN EDUCATION

A. DUNCAN YOCUM, PROFESSOR OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH AND PRACTICE,
UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA, PHILADELPHIA, PA.

Somewhere or other in his career, every radical, from some point of view or other, becomes a conservative. Sometimes it is because his propaganda has been well established and in turn is being attacked; more rarely it is because he comes to realize that even his most cherished aims are in danger of being carried too far. Anyone who happens to be familiar with my own viewpoint knows that I believe in an education for efficiency in which practical preparation for everyday life plays a conspicuous part. But as I have listened to recent discussions, I am beginning to believe that we still need, tho in a new sense, the old watchword of W. T. Harris: "Does it train the mind?" The recent tributes to his memory in the *Journal of Education* have recalled for many of us his persistent attempt to exclude manual training and physical culture from the public school, because he was so long unconvinced that they developed the intellect, and his eager welcome of the kindergarten when he became convinced that it did. My only reason for taking part in this program is an equally firm belief that even tho there are no mental faculties in the old sense of a memory or an intellect that can be trained into general usefulness, *general mental training still survives in forms not only as truly practical as vocational guidance and as natural as Montessorianism, but essential to the efficiency of each.*

In the complete educational readjustment now under way, practical education and adaptation to child nature are temporarily the chief factors, because they are substituting definite and immediate forms of usefulness, which the common citizen can see for himself, for the hocuspocus of an academic training which pretended to transform a knowledge of participial adjectives, pons asinorum, and the pancreatic fluid, into good citizenship, business efficiency, and healthful living. Every stage of public education is being socialized. It is not so surprising to see teachers of history, who have been trained in sociology and economics, neglectful of material that is unrelated to modern affairs, but teachers of Latin are busying themselves in listing the uses to which Latin can be put in everyday life, while even the International Commission on the Teaching of Mathematics justifies the teaching of geometry to the ordinary student on the ground that it is essential to the making of tessellated pavements and stained-glass windows. No wonder that one of the most distinguished among my own critics, fearful for his literary ideals, protested that professors of pedagogy seemed to think that "The Ancient Mariner" was written for no other purpose than the

teaching of kindness to animals. The recent advance of the kindergarten upon the first grade, and its consequent rescue from arrested development, tho partly due to the Montessorian popularizing of adaptation to child nature, is being made easier by the fact that the training of the primary school is becoming practical and social.

Even the genetic movement as a whole, seizing upon immediate practical usefulness as the only natural incentive to study, is for the time being little more than a phase of the panic toward the specific. Children are learning to spell, not because they have been taught to love spelling, have pride in their skill, or have formed the habit of noting the spelling of new words, but in order to write a letter to the mayor or to make a list of manual-training materials. Enough practical or specifically useful material must be included in the course of study to teach adequately every essential phase of morality, health, industrial efficiency, citizenship, social service, social intercourse, and individual leisure. But this is a very different thing from including every fact that is practical without regard to whether it is necessary to these essential ends, or excluding all other incentives and kinds of material, regardless of other forms of usefulness, and of relative educational values.

It is unnecessary that the just emphasis of the practical should blind the eyes of teachers, parents, and pupils alike to the usefulness of the general. If the new gospel of definiteness is rightly taught, the common citizen and the ordinary teacher will perceive the usefulness of the general as readily as that of the specific. Its fundamental principle is not that every fact or idea must have a specific or practical usefulness, but that it must have a definite usefulness. Every fact that is taught need not immediately result in knowing a good cut of beef, or ability to qualify for a primary election, but it must as definitely suggest some equally apparent form of usefulness. As compared with the general, the specifically useful has the advantage of being self-apparent. It has to be definite and obvious. It is useful or harmful in itself. If it is not definite, it is not specific. The recent picture-play, *The Birth of a Nation*, for example, is certain to teach the Ku Klux Klan so that it definitely suggests mob law and race prejudice, while under right instruction it can be made to teach even more certainly the necessity for an impartial judiciary and just laws. It is some such definite association with life that makes it specific. If it is just listed in the school textbook as a secret conspiracy against northern rule, it becomes an academic fact with no specific value whatever. Mere possibility of practical usefulness without the definite association which suggests it is not practical or specific. The discovery of coal in Pennsylvania is merely a bit of isolated information until it is definitely associated in the understanding and memory of the learner with the possibility of manufactures wherever coal can be cheaply enough transported.

Without equal definiteness of suggestion for generally useful facts, their possible usefulness is highly improbable. But if they are definitely

associated with the two or three ideas that make them useful, the usefulness of generally useful facts can be made as probable and obvious as that of the specific and immediately practical. My favorite illustration is the introduction of the steamboat on the Ohio and Mississippi. It is put into the textbook on account of its high degree of possible usefulness. But if it is merely listed in Madison's administration or under 1811, its usefulness is wholly a matter of chance. Associated with the opening of the Mississippi to trade and settlement, it is useful only to the extent of arousing the mental satisfaction which always comes from associating an effect with its cause. But if it is used definitely and certainly to associate lessened time in transportation with increased trade and population, it not only explains the opening of the West and the building of transcontinental railroad lines, but the effect of every shortened commercial route from the discovery of new ways to the Indies to the opening of the Panama Canal.

This definiteness of suggested usefulness for what is generally useful is not self-apparent, as in the case of teaching the effect of poor ventilation or other specifically useful facts, but it can be made as apparent. And if general usefulness is not made apparent enough for the common citizen and ordinary teacher to see it, it is unlikely that possibly useful facts will ever be generally useful to the pupils to whom they are taught. It is just as easy to teach the definite association which multiplies usefulness by making it general, as the specifically useful associations that must be added one by one. Every teacher drills upon the meaning of circumference because it is practical. It is just as easy to drill upon the fact that *circum* means around in a great group of words—a suggestive association that does not result in good citizenship but that multiplies vocabulary.

Surely no ordinary teacher would persist in having pupils waste time memorizing lists of products for each country they study when she has pointed out to her the fact that in infinitely less time they can permanently associate with product in general such ideas as necessary natural conditions, localities, processes, uses, and markets, which with each new product will suggest a multitude of new information. In the one case the pupils vainly try to remember a multitude of specifically useful details. In the other they surely remember a few generally useful ideas that will suggest and help in retaining a thousand more.

Even more apparent is the high relative value of generally useful habits. The common citizen and the ordinary teacher see their superiority of usefulness without its being pointed out by illustrations. But if mathematics and the languages, long the sole means to general discipline, are to be thrown on the scrap-heap; if industry, concentration, perseverance, observation, inference, and cumulative reasoning are to be realized thru practical portions of all subjects, and if teachers of every branch are to be held responsible for all generally useful discipline, what is everybody's business is in grave danger of becoming nobody's business.

The material within each branch best adapted to the teaching of each habit must be specified and the formation of the general habit and the associated conditions favorable to its transfer must become a conscious aim for the teacher and a definite demand of supervisory authority. The definite associations favorable to the general application of every highly useful idea and habit are as essential to efficiency as the fundamental operations to number.

If definiteness is thus essential to efficiency, it inexorably follows that the compulsion possible only thru repetition in the sense of drill is equally essential. The Herbartian injunction continually to teach old facts in new relationships defeats its own end if old facts are not also repeated in the definite association that makes them most useful. Even the general many-sidedness sought by the fifth of the "formal steps" is retarded, if associations that just happen to come to teachers or pupils are added one by one, in place of multiplying associations a thousandfold by certainly memorizing the few which will make the most general ideas definitely suggestive in the greatest possible variety of ways. The type study is ineffective if the few general associations that make it a type are not certainly memorized, together with the associations thru which their application and transfer are made probable.

More than this, no matter how general the multiplication of associations may make the application of some practical fact, it will not remain practical if it is not memorized and remembered in the associations that make it practical. Lincoln's birthday exercises may emotionalize the name of Lincoln and multiply its associations and yet contribute only incidentally to religion or good citizenship, unless it has associated with it such practical ideas as faith in divine providence and equality of human rights.

I have come to believe that if we are about to enter upon a period of national preparedness for defensive war, every heroic achievement of our patriotic past and every war in which our forefathers nobly fought must be so taught as definitely and surely to suggest not only the need for self-sacrifice and mighty deeds, but every resulting form of horror and misery, thru an emotional appeal that, in spite of military pageants and schoolboy drills, will be strong enough to keep us, thruout all our future history as we are today, haters of conquest and lovers of peace.

It is not mere names and facts, but names and facts in the definite associations on which their usefulness depends that should be emotionalized and made many-sided. And when they are found with high emotional usefulness for the learner in a particular period of development, thru their recurrence in his experience or what they will transform for him into experience, they must be memorized and taught, no matter how unnatural they seem to be or how much more naturally they may be developed at some later time. The analogy of education and growth has been carried too far. It is only the brain that grows in the sense of developing what is already

there. The mind grows thru the definitely suggestive associations that are planted in it. The mind of childhood is a kindergarten constituting in itself a favorable or unfavorable environment for the growth of ideas. Education is as dependent upon the definite associations in which ideas are planted in the human mind as upon the racial inheritance, heredity, and individuality which they will find there to condition their growth. And after all is said and done, no racial tendency or individual idiosyncrasy is more natural than the human memory.

The most formidable obstacle to a movement having definiteness and compulsion for its end is the fact that they are not as dramatic as they are obvious. If they could be given the popular appeal of industrial training or Montessorianism, they would contribute more than any other single factor to hastening the day when education will be not only practical and natural but efficient and controlling.

After all, there is something dramatic in the definiteness that means multiplying usefulness and raising it to the *n*th power in place of adding useful facts one by one; that compels each frequently recurring idea to suggest its most useful associations; and that summons up for the generally useful habit the geni of favorable conditions that can make it a wish come true for any field of experience and any realm of thought. If instruction can put Aladdin's lamp within the learner's grasp, why should we scorn the slavish drill that teaches him how to rub!

MANNERS AND MORALS—OUR PROBLEM

ALICE M. CARMALT, ASSISTANT PROFESSOR OF EDUCATION, UNIVERSITY OF PITTSBURGH, PITTSBURGH, PA.

In a recent address given by G. Stanley Hall at the University of Pittsburgh on "The Great Philosophies of the World," he made use of the profoundly significant thought that neither philosophy nor civilization nor even religion itself has been able to avert this terrible calamity that is devastating Europe today. Then he made an appeal to all educators that we in America see to it that war does not appear in the eyes of our boys as a glorious and thrilling adventure, but that they should see it as it really is, in all its cost and horror.

In what way have our boys been trained to meet serious and ethical questions that may and do arise every day, individually and nationally? This is a timely and significant thought for us all at this time, when a crisis seems approaching. George Eliot has said: "To every man comes a crisis when in a moment, without chance for reflection, he must decide and act instantly. What determines his decision? His whole past, the daily choices between good and evil that he has made thruout his previous years—these determine his decision." What training have we given our

boys and girls that they may be prepared for these momentous decisions?

About fifteen years ago, I was deeply impressed by a statement of a prominent lecturer that we are not training our boys and girls in manners and morals; that, as a consequence, our young men and women, as a general rule, are neither well behaved nor moral in their reactions. I then determined that I would begin a careful study of the subject. I would select boys and girls of middle teens, as at that period altruism blossoms. I would observe them in public places, when they were not under supervision and not on the playground, where some license is allowed. For fifteen years I have kept records and am being forced to certain conclusions. I am able to say that some of our youth are being trained to be considerate for others and to base their decisions on the fundamental ethics of community life. By far the greater number, however, have shown a lack of both manners and morals, ranging all the way from thoughtlessness to positive rudeness and heartlessness. Some actions were so significant as to be startling.

Three lads of about eighteen, apparently from good homes, entered the street cars and sat near me. They began to discuss in audible tones their recent experiences in wage-earning, chuckling gleefully over the opportunities they had found and improved to pad their expense list, publicly proclaiming themselves swindlers, and they did not know it. The alarming thing about it to me was that boys of their apparent opportunities should not have been trained in the fundamental ethics of business relations.

There is, also, a lack of chivalry toward the weak, the old, and the helpless. The three great influences in our children's lives—the home, the church, and the school—have failed to make that lasting impression to which they have a right. In almost every instance that I have tabulated, the offenders did not realize that they were violating any rules of conduct. They had not been trained in the fundamental principles of right living nor the daily application of the Golden Rule.

I also observed and made records concerning the behavior and apparent standards of our young men and women, for the boys and girls of yesterday are the young men and women of tomorrow. The conclusion is forced in upon me that among reputable young people today there are two classes: those who act upon principles carefully thought out beforehand, and those who act upon impulse, deciding questions that may arise largely upon the basis of preference for one course rather than another.

An experience, some years ago, illustrates the former class. A fellow-teacher and I were taking a short trip together and, busily engaged in conversation, we did not notice that the conductor had not taken up our tickets. I asked my friend what she should do about it, and she said, glancing around: "I suppose they have receptacles for rubbish." She tore up her ticket and later dropped the pieces into a wastebasket. Curious to learn her reactions, I asked her what a ticket meant to her. She thought a moment

and then said slowly and thoughtfully: "I suppose it is a sort of receipt; I enter into an agreement with a railroad company that for a sum of money it shall carry me a certain distance, and it gives me the ticket so I can show it to the conductor in case he challenges my right to ride. I have ridden unchallenged so the ticket has no further value." I have asked many persons since then what they would have done under such circumstances and they have replied: "Do? I would have ridden it out the next chance I had. What do you suppose I care for the railroad company!" She didn't care anything for the railroad company, but she did care for herself and her own standards and she could not violate them for even an extra ticket.

This incident and many others have impressed me with the truth that there are two ends to any moral act—the one, affecting the external world, is the objective end; the other, affecting the person himself, is fastened to his own moral nature and is subjective. It is vitally necessary that each one of us shall every day live up to our own standards, recognizing what they are, and thereby growing to higher and nobler possibilities.

The problem of training our boys and girls aright is a complex one altogether too big for any single or simple treatment. The necessity for character as the supreme product of our schools has been recognized by every speaker that I have heard from this platform this week. The world of business and the professional world alike need standards and the encouraging side of the present situation is that the standards are already in the process of formation. The profession of medicine has so sharply defined what a physician may and may not do that it is easy to separate the reputable physicians from the quacks. The legal-aid societies are for the safeguarding of the legal profession. Even the standards of university men are deservedly high, worked out by the upperclassmen themselves.

But how about the teaching profession? Is it easy to separate our real teachers from our false? Do we make our standards so clear that those in training for the most responsible of the professions know definitely just what they may and may not do?

The first and immediate step to be taken is clear. We must become conscious of our standards. How can we make that deep impression on our boys and girls for which we hope and pray, if we have not definitely in mind the end for which we are working? The country is full of noble actions, unselfish deeds, and characters that would be a model for our youth if only they understood them and could consciously make use of them.

In the light of this thought, it is significant to note the nation-wide movement to be explained to us later—a movement already undertaken to find out what are the standards of our best people. But need we wait a year to find out their conclusions? We can begin at once. The supervisors here in this hall should begin immediately to arouse the teachers

under their supervision to debate and discussion and to try to work definitely toward a solution.

The world, old and young, thrills to noble deeds and at the statement of fundamentals of virtue and unselfish service for others. On the sixth of last September, in the Court of the Universe, at the San Francisco Exposition, a vast crowd had gathered to do honor to Goethals, the builder of the Panama Canal. The chairman of the day, in introducing the guest of honor, made a statement that aroused great enthusiasm in the audience. He said that while all admitted the greatness of the achievement in building the Canal, there is an even greater service that Goethals has done for the country in his action in refusing an honorarium from the United States as a reward for his services on the Canal. Goethals gave as his reason for refusing that he had been called upon by his country to serve her; he had responded and had done his best; he had but done his duty as thousands of others are doing every day; he had been generously rewarded as to salary, and the incident was closed. A prolonged and enthusiastic response from all that immense crowd showed how ready we are to recognize the fundamental right thought when once it is voiced before us.

Today, the words duty and honor are more rarely heard than when the gentleman and gentlewoman of the old school were among us. They should be household words. We should not ask that life be made easy for our children but that the children be made strong to meet it.

Dr. Storrs, late of Brooklyn, who was settled for sixty years over one parish, preached wonderful sermons, and one that I had the great good fortune to hear made a deep impression on me. He was speaking of the church militant and he closed with these thoughts: Every nation has had its own mission to fulfil: the Hebrew nation, thru all the dark ages, kept alive the idea of the one God—the Hebrews had a genius for religion; the Roman nation worked out a system of laws and government, and under its protection the wonderful Spirit was born of the old Jewish race that was to give to Mosaic law a spiritual interpretation; the Grecian nation developed a language of such beauty that it could be used to record the history of that wonderful life; the teachings of that great Spirit finally inspired a small band of religionists to leave home and friends to seek a far-off land, where the greatest extent of fertile soil and temperate climate on the whole earth were awaiting them, where they were to help build the mightiest nation of all, because here was to be a nation that was to have for its fundamental purpose to make *men*.

It is in this nation that our work is to be done. Our work then is to make men and women, and character-building is the fundamental, the all-important part of this work.

SCOUTING AS AN EDUCATIONAL ASSET

JAMES E. WEST, CHIEF SCOUT EXECUTIVE, BOY SCOUTS OF AMERICA,
NEW YORK, N.Y.

I am here today on behalf of the Boy Scouts of America—182,622 men and boys—143,782 boys under instruction as tenderfoot, second-class, and first-class scouts, and 38,840 carefully selected clean men of strong character giving leadership without compensation, as members of local councils, troop committees, and scout commissioners, scoutmasters, or assistant scoutmasters—to ask you as representative educators of our country to accept the program of scouting as an educational asset.

Not only do we desire your attention to what can be said in support of the claims that scouting is an educational asset, so that it may fully justify a place in your program, but we earnestly hope that the possibilities of this movement as an asset in the work to which you have committed your lives will be made so clear that each of you here will become personally interested in the proper development of the movement, so that, thru the resources which you command, it may become more largely available to the boys of our country.

I hope that I shall not give offense by claiming that the inadequacy of our public-school system to meet the full needs of the growing boy makes necessary the boy-scout scheme or something similar to cope with present-day conditions. The school is handicapped by its traditions and by its limited opportunity for control and influence in the life of the average boy. Even under favorable conditions, the school provides leadership for only about one thousand of the five thousand hours a year a boy has for activity. It is seldom that the school exerts such a hold on the boy as to furnish him with a motive or anything like a program for his activities after he is released from the schoolroom for the day, or for his vacation period.

The complex conditions of present-day civilization add to the problem. Unfortunately the home and the church also fail to provide adequate leadership or a definite program for the time of the boy outside of the schoolroom. Modern invention and improved living facilities decrease the demand upon the time of the boy for chores about the home. Generally speaking, the boy has no opportunity to choose how he will spend his leisure time. This is largely a matter of chance, governed by environment. With the coming and going of the various seasons, his interest passes without definite program or any direction in the games and activities of the boys in his neighborhood.

Too often the value of the schoolroom instruction and discipline is seriously affected by reason of the undirected activity of the boy outside of the school. The results of these conditions are shown in the continuance of the necessity for the state and municipality to provide increasing sums

each year for police supervision and for institutions to deal with inefficient citizenship.

Because of a lack of education in character, too many of our boys and young men show an absence of self-discipline by indifference to a higher conscience.

Another element which contributes to the unsatisfactory results of our public-school system is the fact that the program and method within the school itself fails to give the boy early enough in life a chance to discover the things he is by temperament and native ability best fitted to do—in other words, a chance to discover himself.

In the city of New York, of the forty thousand boys and girls who have not passed beyond the grammar school, and yet receive their working papers each year, but a very small percentage even attempt to seek their first employment because of any particular desire to follow a given line of work, or because of any special training or ability to do any one thing efficiently. The great proportion are willing to accept any opportunity for earning a fair wage. A small proportion of these are ambitious enough to accept the opportunity of the night high schools to fit themselves along special lines, but the great proportion engage in blind-alley occupations and too many become mere drifters and thus add to the burden of the community.

Indeed, it was the definite evidence of the inadequacy of public-school instruction in England that led Robert S. S. Baden-Powell to develop plans for the training of the young men who were sent to him from the large cities of England, and finally led to the development of the boy-scout scheme. As he has expressed it, the great proportion of these young men who were sent to him for service in South Africa as recruits were so dependent upon the conveniences of modern civilization that they virtually expected to be tucked in at night. They lacked discipline, resourcefulness, initiative, as well as practical knowledge of how to care for themselves.

Unfortunately, as all who are familiar with the facts know, a somewhat similar condition was found among the young men who were enlisted for service in the Spanish-American War. The lack of practical knowledge on the part of the enlisted men, as well as the lack of leadership, has cost this country very dearly.

In order to meet the condition as he found it, Baden-Powell, instead of giving the ordinary military training to the group of recruits, worked out plans for giving them what he called "stunts in scouting." Men were sent off in small groups and compelled to shift for themselves in the woods and forests. Every effort was made to give these young men experiences similar to those which were common to the young man living in the rural communities.

Upon returning to England, Baden-Powell was surprised to find that the principles involved in his plans for dealing with men had been applied in boys' schools. Eventually he responded to the many invitations pressed

upon him and set himself to the task of working out a program for boys. As a result we have the wonderful movement known thruout the civilized world as the scouting program.

Baden-Powell insists that he should not be given credit for what it involves, because, as he says, he helped himself freely to all that was available, in this and other countries, in the way of programs of work with boys. Notwithstanding what he has to say, however, it is a fact that the plan of organization and psychology involved in the scouting program was distinctly new. Particularly is this so with reference to the idea of service which is a cardinal principle in the scouting program.

The appeal to the boy's imagination thru the word "scout," the recognition of the principle of self-government, and the placing of a boy on his honor, have all been very effective. Likewise the total absence of the use of the word "don't" or anything of a negative character has been effectively cared for by placing emphasis upon "do."

As a scout, the boy willingly adopts as real and vital the universally accepted principles of life as set forth in the scout oath and law. This effectively influences the boy's nature and character so as better to prepare him for that work which the church can best do.

A scout promises upon his honor to do his duty to God and to his country, to obey the scout law, to help other people at all times, and to keep himself physically strong, mentally awake, and morally straight.

The scout law, covering twelve fundamental principles of life, requires a scout first of all to be trustworthy. That means he must not tell a lie, cheat, or deceive, but must keep every trust sacred. A scout is loyal to all to whom loyalty is due, including his scout leader, his home, his parents, and his country. A scout is helpful, that is, he is prepared, thru the special program of scouting activities, to save life, help injured persons, and to do at least one worthwhile good turn daily. A scout is friendly to all, a brother to every other scout. A scout is courteous, especially to women, children, and old people, and he must not take any pay for his acts of courtesy or kindness. A scout is kind to animals and will not kill nor hurt any living creature needlessly. A scout is obedient; a scout is cheerful even when facing hardship and drudgery. A scout is thrifty; he not only recognizes his obligation to pay his own way, but realizes his duty to help carry the burden of worthy causes, and the needs of his country. A scout is brave and does what he knows is right in spite of jeers and threats. A scout is clean in body and thought, stands for clean speech, clean sport, clean habits, and travels with a clean crowd. Finally, a scout is reverent toward God; not only is he faithful in his own religious duties, but he respects the convictions of others in matters of custom and religion.

Every step in the scouting program is for character development and good citizenship. The variety and interest, as well as the practical knowledge insured by the tenderfoot, second-class, first-class, and various merit

badge tests, are, after all, but a means for holding the interest of the boy, pledged to the scout oath and law, under such leadership as will bring about character development. The form of troop organization, the scoutmaster and his assistants, the local council, and, indeed, the National Council and all its officers, are but a means to this end. This character development manifests itself in health, efficiency, chivalry, loyalty, patriotism, good citizenship, and joyous living. Time will not permit a detailed description of the plan of organization and methods of procedure, but in order that all interested may be accurately informed we are placing in your hands with our compliments a copy of the official *Handbook* giving all of this information.

We want you to look upon the boy-scout idea as a movement rather than an organization, and to realize that we are merely seeking to supplement existing agencies for the education of the boy. The scout movement makes available a carefully selected leadership for the boy's leisure time and endeavors to supply the required environment and ambitions thru games and out-door activities which lead a boy to become a better man and worthwhile citizen.

We want to help boys on leaving school to escape the evils of blind-alley occupations—that is, such work as gives the boy a mere wage for the moment, but leaves him stranded without any trade or handicraft to pursue when he is a man and so sends him as a recruit to the great army of unemployed, and what is often worse, the unemployable. Doing is learning, and when a scout in the formative stage of his life has this lesson thoroly impressed upon his mind, he has learned to be resourceful. The simple self-help experience which a scout receives in his impressionable years prepares him to meet emergencies covering the entire range of experience which may develop later in his life.

Please keep it clear in mind that the scout movement is not seeking to displace established educational agencies, nor does it undervalue the absolute necessity of schoolroom instruction for all boys just as long as practicable.

Scoutcraft includes instruction in first aid, life-saving, tracking, signaling, cycling, nature-study, seamanship, campcraft, woodcraft, chivalry, and all of the handicrafts.

In scouting the boy does not stand still. The opportunity and incentive for progress are always at hand. He first becomes a tenderfoot, then a second-class scout, and then a first-class scout. After this the whole sphere of the scout program is made available by the boy's own application to qualify himself to pass tests for the various merit badges which cover a wide range of practical and interesting subjects.

We find that a boy takes up a hobby with the same zest with which he plays tennis or football, and that this hobby under proper leadership may lead him to the realization of the thing he is best fitted to do as a life-work.

In other words, we transfer the efforts of the boy from idle plays or harmful mischief to vital achievements.

As an organization, the boy-scout movement is not military in thought, form, or spirit, altho it does instil in boys the military virtues, such as honor, loyalty, obedience, and patriotism. It also gives boys a practical knowledge of the principles of hygiene, sanitation, and actual camping experience and physical training. The uniform, the patrol, the troop, and the limited drills are not for military purposes, they are for unity, harmony, and rhythm of spirit that help in dealing and doing things together as scouts, that boys may absorb the force and truth of the scout law which states that a scout is a friend of all and a brother of every other scout.

Scouting presents greater opportunities for the development of the boy religiously than do other movements instituted solely for boys. Its aim to develop the boy physically, mentally, and morally is being realized very widely.

The movement has been developed on such broad lines as to embrace all classes, all creeds, and at the same time to allow the greatest independence to individual organizations, officers, and boys.

The Boy Scouts of America maintain that no boy can grow into the best kind of a citizen without recognizing his obligation to God. The recognition of God as the ruling and leading power of the universe and the grateful acknowledgment of his favors and blessings are necessary to the best type of citizenship, and are a wholesome thing in the education of a growing boy. No matter what the boy may be—Catholic or Protestant or Jew—this fundamental need of good citizenship should be kept before him.

The Boy Scouts of America, as an organized body, therefore, recognizes the religious element in the training of the boy, but is absolutely non-sectarian in its attitude toward that religious training. Its policy is that the religious organization or institution with which the scout troop or the individual scout is associated should give definite attention to the boy's religious life.

In thus making available to boys of all classes a common meeting-ground where they may play and compete and learn to know that the other fellow is not much different from themselves, the boy-scout movement is performing a distinctive and important patriotic service, and again the observance of the scout law, and the tremendous cumulative value of the required daily good turn, and the creation of better feeling among millions of scouts in our own and other lands, constitute a latent but powerful and rapidly growing factor for universal good will and the brotherhood of man.

The Boy Scouts of America has just celebrated its sixth anniversary. It has troops organized in all parts of the country and in all of our possessions. During the past year there was an increase of 46 per cent in the enrolment. In every community the best type of citizenship is represented in the leadership provided. Especially is this true where there is a chartered local coun-

cil. In such cases the responsibility for the selection of the leaders of groups of boys is delegated to the local authorities. Two-thirds of our troops, however, are working in communities where local councils have not yet been organized. In these cases the responsibility for certifying to the leadership of a group of boys is a difficult problem. It gives me great pleasure on this occasion to testify to the practical service which has been given by school superintendents in our efforts to handle this problem. It is our invariable rule, wherever an application for a commission is presented without the recommendation of men who, because of the positions they hold in the community, command recognition, for us to call immediately upon the school superintendent for co-operation. We usually ask if the superintendent would be willing to intrust his own boy to the leadership of the man who seeks the commission. Ordinarily this brings about the proper investigation and a report which gives us a basis for action.

A recent study of the qualifications of 7,067 men who hold commissions as scout-masters shows that about 65 per cent of them are college men and that over 80 per cent have either a high-school or a college education; 1,655 give their occupation as clergymen, and 790 as public-school teachers; others are professional men, journalists, students, and men engaged in mechanical or mercantile pursuits. In practically every one of the 350 chartered councils, the public schools are definitely represented thru the service of the school superintendent on the executive board and in many cases the school superintendent serves as president of the council.

The value of the scout movement as an educational asset has been recognized by a number of our large universities by the definite encouragement given in developing leadership. Scout courses have been organized in the summer schools in the University of Wisconsin, University of California, University of Virginia, University of Texas, Teachers College of Columbia University, and at numerous other places.

It is with great pleasure that I can, by special permission, quote from James E. Russell, Dean of Teachers College of Columbia University, as to scouting as an educational asset. He says:

I regard the scout movement as one of the most valuable educational agencies of this generation. One lesson of the present European war is that American boys must be trained in patriotism and in those homely virtues which would make for civic order and social stability. For this purpose I know of no means so effective as those employed by the boy scouts. I hope to see the time when every American schoolboy will look forward to becoming a good scout and will be trained to incorporate the ideas of the boy scout into his life as an American citizen.

It is practically impossible to do much in the way of military training with boys under eighteen years of age. It must be taken seriously and its inclusion in the courses of our public schools should not be considered. Even Germany does not pretend to give military training to boys, but sets aside several years after school life to this man's work. Then it is taken seriously, and results in making trained soldiers. The most that can be hoped for in this country is a preparatory training for boys which should include characteristics of the later life-work and give some idea of a live interest in the process

of their later vocation. There must be a substitute and in my opinion it is before us now. This substitute is the boy-scout movement.

The movement is distinctly non-military, but it should appeal as much to the most ardent militarist as to the non-militarist. It is non-military in the same sense that manual training is non-vocational or non-professional, but it is preparatory to good citizenship and everyday service. It furnishes physical training to the boy and accustoms him to outdoor life and camping. It gives him a purpose that is suited to his age and appeals to his boyish traits. It utilizes to good advantage the gang spirit. It is remarkably appealing in teaching him keen work and instils in him high ideals. This, in a sense, is more than military training ever can do, in that it develops character, initiative, and intelligence.

Give me one million boy scouts grown into manhood and I will fear neither foreign domination nor internal social disorder. But we ought to have more than one million to fall back upon. We ought to have five millions of boy scouts in this country.

This entire movement should receive the support of the schools throuout the country.

Professor Roberts, of the Kansas State Agricultural College, in an article on school science, gives another point of view. He says:

There is just one solitary place where your boy and mine can get this real kind of fundamental training which teaches him how to be a man, how to take care of himself and others in emergencies, and that, as you know, is absolutely not in the public schools at all. It is in the organization of the boy scouts:

Contrast the methods of the scouts, for example, to the methods of the school. One is dynamic and the other is static. One develops to the maximum, encourages, indeed forces initiative; the other glorifies military subservience to routine. The one not merely asks but demands originality and resourcefulness. The other requires uniformity at all costs and exalts above individual expression the ideal of discipline and order. The one forces the boy to hammer himself into something individual; the other hammers the individuality out of the boy.

T. C. Hassell, principal of the Fair Park School, says:

The school cannot utilize all the energies of the boy. This splendid movement comes to our aid. The troublesome element is smaller since the scouts were organized. It tends to raise a higher standard among boys. Their personal appearance is better. Cigarette smoking is on the wane, because of the example of the boy scouts.

In a letter just received from Robert S. S. Baden-Powell, permit me to quote the following:

It may be some encouragement to these gentlemen to know that our educationalists over here are now recognizing that our principle of encouraging active doing on the part of the individual instead of passive reception of ideas by the mass is practical education, as opposed to theoretical instruction, and they are therefore taking a close and sympathetic interest in it.

Moreover, the value of our system is now proved by results and not merely by theory. The war has put the movement and its methods to the highest possible test; it has proved the inherent vitality of the organization; it has shown that boys so prepared can respond to a sense of responsibility and duty at a time of national crisis to an extent never before realized—which is patriotism far above ecstatic flag-waving; and in the by-product of soldier-making the foundation of character given by the scout training is found to be as valuable as it is in the making of citizens in other lines of life, whether civic, commercial, intellectual, or industrial. Indeed, in this aspect it offers visions of being able to meet in some degree the difficult question which just now is agitating America, namely, that of preparing for defense without the imposition of militarism.

All of us realize that the opinions of men are changing and that this is a critical time in the history of our country. It is the responsibility distinctively of this group of people as well as all of us engaged in work with boys to keep calm and to help in securing deliberate consideration as to the advisability of any of the many changes which are daily proposed affecting our national life and the education of the youth of our country. Those of us who are supporting the boy-scout movement firmly believe, as stated by Dr. Russell, that in the boy-scout movement can be found a program adequate to meet the needs of the growing boy in preparing him for the responsibilities of citizenship. Certainly we are making a distinctive contribution to preparedness by instilling in boys a proper conception of their responsibility to their country and by the development of the ideas of service. In so far as the scheme of scouting can be utilized in part or in whole by schools or other agencies working with boys, it is available simply for the asking, independent of the definite affiliations of the group of boys with the Boy Scouts of America. We ask, however, that no attempt be made to call them boy scouts, or have them use the official uniform and badges, unless they comply absolutely with the official regulations and meet the prescribed standards. We hope that the schools of our country will definitely accept scouting as an educational asset and will co-operate in the organization of troops locally and in guiding the movement nationally, so that, to a larger extent than ever before, the future of our nation may be benefited by the development of boys, not merely in scholastic training, but in character and social efficiency. This is true education!

THE NATIONAL MORALITY CODES COMPETITION

MILTON FAIRCHILD, CHAIRMAN, EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE, NATIONAL INSTITUTE FOR MORAL INSTRUCTION, WASHINGTON, D.C.

A business man of large experience in general affairs has come to the conclusion, on his own initiative and as the result of thoro study, that the fundamental need of the nation is the moral or character education of children and youth. He has offered a prize of \$5,000, the largest prize ever offered in an educational competition, for the best of seventy morality codes, written by selected competitors, each of whom shall endeavor to interpret intelligent public opinion as to what moral or character ideas ought to be inculcated in American children and youth by the nation's schools and homes. The conduct of the national morality codes competition is in the hands of the Executive Committee of the National Institution for Moral Instruction, Washington, D.C. One year, Washington's birthday 1916 to Washington's birthday 1917, will be allowed for this nation-wide study of public opinion, and for the formulation of the morality codes. All seventy codes will be published by some one of the schoolbook publishers

in the form of school reference books, to be called "Morality Books," which it is hoped will be placed on the teacher's desk in every schoolroom, country and city, thruout the nation, and in many homes. The price of the "Morality Books" will be as low as possible. A small royalty will be taken for the treasury of the National Institution for Moral Instruction, which will be used in research work to determine effective methods for character education in schools and homes.

The success of such an undertaking as this depends on the co-operation of many, and co-operation depends on good will. Therefore let me explain several points which superintendents of schools will wish to have information on before they give the national morality codes competition their good will and co-operation.

The National Institution for Moral Instruction is incorporated for research in character education of children and youth for no personal profit. It contemplates the organization of a small faculty of specialists in this field of education, and the development of collaboration on the part of a selected group of educators and others from the entire nation, to the end that the wisdom of experience may be organized into a body of ideas and principles which can be used as the material of instruction in the moral or character education of children and youth. It is an institution primarily for study of the problems of character education. It is not a propagandist institution to force schools to do what superintendents do not care to have them do; but a research institution to find out how superintendents can arrange to have the schools do effectively what they wish the schools to do, namely produce character as a resultant from education.

The National Institution for Moral Instruction is an inside, not an outside, organization. Its executive committee is composed, in addition to the chairman, of P. P. Claxton, Willard S. Small, William C. Ruediger, and Margaret Bell Merrill, all actively engaged in education. The president of its board of directors is David Snedden, who will soon be professor of "social education," in Teachers College, Columbia University. Its directorate is chosen from the different centers of educational research thruout the nation, with a sufficient representation from the general public to insure breadth of experience. It is regarded as essential to progress in character education that there be arrangements made for nation-wide collaboration among educators, because generalizations in matters of morality ought to rest on experience, and the experience of the individual is too narrow for certitude in this field of knowledge.

The donor of this prize for the best code of morals for instruction of children and youth is anxious that the educators should believe that he is not seeking any personal glory or indirect gain. He wishes to assist educators and others in developing this phase of education, because he believes it is neglected and needs developing for the good of the nation. He desires his name to remain unknown, but, under the title "advising treasurer,"

he wishes to work out plans for adequate financial support for the National Institution for Moral Instruction, and to have part in formulating broad plans for universal moral education of all the nation's boys and girls. I am permitted to say that he is not a resident of Washington, D.C., but of one of the cities in the nation at large.

The national morality codes competition is a study and interpretation of intelligent public opinion rather than an interesting struggle among literary people for a prize. In all but five states, the state superintendent of public instruction has accepted appointment as the co-operating educator. The full list you will find printed in the announcement circular. Each co-operating educator has chosen and appointed the state representatives who are to write the state morality codes in the competition. In states having a large population, more than one morality code writer has been chosen. The total number of code writers will be seventy.

Each of the morality code writers is to endeavor to make a thoro study of public opinion in his state regarding the moral ideas which ought to be inculcated in the minds and hearts of children and youth, and in doing this is to consult a large circle of advisers among teachers and parents. Letters of advice will be asked from all interested. The intelligent *public opinion* of the state is to be back of each morality code, not merely the individual opinions of the code writers.

There will be two "Morality Books," one for elementary schools and one for high schools, for each code is to be written in two parts, the elementary part for boys and girls between nine and fourteen, and the high-school part for youths between fourteen and eighteen years of age. The "Morality Books" will be revised from time to time, and the schools will be supplied continuously with a reference book from which any teacher and any pupil can find out what intelligent public opinion believes should be taught American boys and girls as to right and wrong in the world of boys and girls.

But what is a "code of morals"? Washington had a code; Franklin had a code; Baron Rothschild had a code; hosts of people have written out for themselves short statements of their intentions as moral beings, and lived by them thru the storm and stress of this world life. The National Institution for Moral Instruction has formulated a code covering the ethics of work, called "The Code of Successful Workers," which will make clear what a morality code is like.

THE ETHICS OF WORK

This "Code of Successful Workers" has been formulated from personal experience by many men and women who have achieved great success as workers. It presents their personal attitude toward their work, and reveals the sort of people they have striven to make of themselves. It is true and reliable. It is offered as a means by which young people can learn the requirements which success in work imposes on them. Those who work by this code will find satisfaction, honor, and a good living in the world of work.

THE CODE OF SUCCESSFUL WORKERS

RESOLUTIONS THEY MAKE FOR THEMSELVES

1. *I will respect all useful work and be courteous to the workers.* Work of all kinds is essential to the success of the world, and benefits come to many from the service rendered by each honest worker. I will respect myself, therefore, when doing any useful work, and show respect for good work done by others. I will be courteous to all workers, regard their rights, and make life more agreeable for them when I can.

2. *I will know my work and have ambition to do it well.* I will keep determined to succeed in work, to master some one line, to develop aptitude and gain skill. I will keep my mind concentrated on my work, and make work my chief interest. I will accumulate knowledge and experience.

3. *I will take the initiative and develop executive ability.* I will use business sense, have courage to make decisions and go ahead, be quick-witted, well balanced, and of good insight. I will be adaptable, and make all I can of my powers of invention.

4. *I will be industrious and willing.* I will bring enthusiasm to my work, be energetic and quick about it, and have endurance. I will be punctual, and always an attentive worker. I will be patient and persevering, and have system. I will keep myself in good health.

5. *I will be honest and truthful.* I will regard property rights, be economical of materials, and put in full time. I will be frank and honorable in my treatment of others, and preserve my personal integrity.

6. *I will educate myself into strong personality.* I will develop force of character and have some worthy purpose in life. I will use my leisure wisely. I will be well informed, self-possessed, self-controlled, self-respecting, stable, open-minded and teachable, alert, observing. I will be quick to understand, and of good memory. I will use my imagination, and be ready to take responsibilities. I will gain knowledge of human nature, show sympathy, and take an interest in people. I will be friendly, cheerful, harmonious, and always tactful.

7. *I will be faithful to my work.* I will hold to high ideals. I will be reliable, accurate, and careful. I will do my work right, for the people who need done the things I help to do. I will be thoro. I will keep my word.

8. *I will be loyal.* I will take pride in my firm or company, factory, store, or farm. I will protect its interests, and help to make work successful. I will be unselfish and obedient in my service to my superiors, and do good team work. In professional work, I will hold to the ethics of my profession. In an institution, I will be true to its purposes. I will be devoted to my home. I will be loyal to the people with whom I work.

9. *I will be a gentleman—a lady.* I will keep clean and neat, be pure and of good repute, courteous and polite to all. I will form wise personal habits.

The world does not owe me a living, but I am proud to make a good living for myself.

Copyrighted 1914 by the National Institution for Moral Instruction, Washington, D.C.

This "Code of Successful Workers" differs from an individual's morality code in that the experience of some two hundred people is the broader foundation on which it rests for its generalizations. It has the authority of public opinion in the field of work. The "Morality Books" are to interpret the wisdom of many thousands of intelligent people. If a boy should wish to study carefully "conduct becoming a gentleman," it would be impossible for him to find a printed explanation of public opinion on this topic. There is no school in the nation which provides a chance for any

thoro study of public opinion on any of the many important phases of morality. The schools have their geographies and histories, their books of nature, their arithmetics, etc., from which pupils can learn a host of facts useful to them, but the wisdom of grown-up people as to how to live has never been formulated for children as a body of knowledge. This morality codes competition is to produce one important expression of public opinion in a field of knowledge most intimately related to the vital needs of the children.

Children force on parents the problems of moral education, and many find themselves at a loss to decide what moral ideas to inculcate. This book of morality codes will be a guide to both parents and teachers, and a basis for harmony between school and home.

Normal-school students can inform themselves by studying this book of moral codes as to what moral ideas they are expected to inculcate in the minds of their pupils when they begin teaching. Their individual ideas and experiences can be supplemented by a study of the wisdom which has come to many others thru personal experiences in the large world of human affairs.

These "Morality Books," it is believed, will be of great use to the teachers in their regular classroom and personal work with pupils, in cases of discipline, and when stimulating the moral growth of pupils. They will be of use in normal schools as a means of preparing teachers for their work as educators of character, and they will influence parents to support at home the morality which is taught at schools.

We have been making out a character chart by collaboration among several hundred people which seems to me to make clear the need of the child for a thoro character education. The items in this character chart can be regarded as the index to the "Morality Books." The character of the perfect human being would be about as follows:

Intellectual character, needed for wise thinking:

1. Earnest, not trifling
2. Sincere and open-minded, not diverted by personal interests
3. Discerning, not superficial
4. Alert, not indolent
5. Accurate, not indefinite
6. Useful, not merely interesting
7. Inventive and constructive, not lacking initiative
8. Rational and judicious, not over-emotional, hysterical, or melancholy
9. Thoro, not illogical
10. Keen in sense perceptions, not unobserving

Working character, needed for doing useful work:

1. Purposeful, not led merely by likes and dislikes
2. Teachable, not stubborn
3. Obedient, not balky
4. Cautious, not heedless
5. Ambitious, not self-satisfied

6. Persisting, not vacillating
7. Industrious and energetic, not lazy and dilatory
8. Attentive, not careless
9. Decisive, not procrastinating
10. Progressive, not opposed to change
11. Thrifty, not wasteful
12. Artistic, not slovenly
13. Adaptable, not slow to fit into new surroundings
14. Executive, not haphazard

Personal character, needed for doing right by oneself:

1. Thoughtful, not merely impulsive
2. Influenced by high ideals, not content with low standards
3. Conscientious, not lawless
4. Independent, not suggestible
5. Self-controlled, not weak
6. Refined, not coarse
7. Self-respecting, not dissipated

Social character, needed for doing right by others:

1. Genuine, not affected
2. Honest, not thieving nor disposed to cheat
3. Truthful, not given to lying and deceiving
4. Honorable, not sneaking
5. Just, not unfair
6. Harmonious, not wrangling
7. Forgiving, not vindictive
8. Disposed to trust others, not suspicious
9. Sociable, not exclusive nor snobbish
10. Loyal, not treacherous
11. Pure, not lewd
12. Courteous, not rude
13. Tactful, not brusque nor priggish
14. Generous and sportsmanlike, not stingy nor jealous
15. Public-spirited and patriotic, not selfish
16. Respectful, not impudent nor flippant

Emotional character, needed for the joy of living:

1. Courageous, not timid
2. Capable of true love, not cold-hearted
3. Kindly, not cruel nor hateful
4. Sympathetic, not self-centered
5. Congenial, not repulsive
6. Responsive to the beautiful, not indifferent
7. Alive to truth, not uninterested
8. Devoted to righteousness, not inclined to evil
9. Humble, not conceited
10. Patient, not irritable
11. Tolerant and with a sense of humor, not angry over differences of opinion
12. Hopeful, not pessimistic
13. Reverent, not irreligious

Physical character, needed as a basis for human life:

1. Well-developed body, not poorly nourished
2. High resistance to disease, not susceptible
3. Vital, not sluggish

4. Ready muscular control, not bungling
5. Endurance, not quickly tired
6. Strength, without disabilities
7. Grace of figure and carriage, not frumpy
8. Expressive face, not stolid
9. Strong, musical voice, not choked nor rasping

The "Morality Books" with some such index as this are to contain the convictions of the intelligent general public as to what is right in daily conduct for the child. These moral ideas which are the fruits of general experience should be inculcated by some effective method in schools and homes. No reference to methods or principles of moral instruction and training is to be made in the morality codes. Moral truth, the wisdom of human experience, should shine thru the code expressions. The words used should appeal to the minds of children and youth, and be useful as a basis for talks by teachers and parents, and for quotation in school and home discipline.

The code writers should strive for completeness, definiteness, and practicability of moral ideas in their application to childhood and youth, and for clearness, simplicity, and appeal in literary expression. The code receiving the award must be easy to understand, sound and fundamental in its interpretation of intelligent opinion regarding morality, and well written.

Let me plead for interest in this nation-wide study and formulation of intelligent public opinion in matters of morality. I take it that there is general agreement that the major purpose of education is to guide and stimulate each child to achieve the most perfect development of its personality. Intellectual education, vocational education, physical education, represent only important divisions of a complete education. The personal, social, and emotional life of a child also needs guidance in its development. There is a character education which each child needs. In addition to the information which schools give, they should also educate the child into the character power to live.

ROUND TABLES

ROUND TABLE OF STATE AND COUNTY SUPERINTENDENTS

HOW NOT TO TRAIN RURAL TEACHERS

EDWARD HYATT, STATE SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, SACRAMENTO, CAL.

I feel some diffidence at expressing my notions on preparing rural teachers before people representing so widespread and vast a continent as this. I only know our own conditions, and we are only one phase of the problem, a faraway phase, hanging on the extreme western fringe of the nation. You will understand that I am only undertaking to speak according to my own lights, and that these may not serve very far from home, may be entirely unsuitable for other regions in this great commonwealth.

In our part of the country, the great agency for producing rural teachers is the state normal school. We have at present eight splendid normal schools scattered all the way up and down the state. Every one is located in a city—one at San Francisco, one at Los Angeles, one at San Diego, one at San Jose, and so on. A normal school is an asset for a city—and only a city has enough momentum to grab it from a legislature.

Now these excellent normal schools are fully open to all the young people of the state who qualify. Theoretically, the rural people have the same rights there as others, and theoretically they prepare teachers for the rural schools in the same way as for the city schools.

But practically and in fact, what happens? What is so natural, so easy, and so cheap as for the swarms of city girls who graduate from the city high schools to enter at once a normal school right at home? They are not ready to marry, they want a little more schooling, they would like a job that pays real money—so why not? It is actually easier and cheaper for them to take the normal course than to do anything else—easier and cheaper than to stay at home. Consequently, they do take it, in larger and larger numbers, not consciously choosing the teacher's profession, but drifting into it.

How different the situation of the young people in the remote and inaccessible rural regions. When they graduate from their local schools, it is well-nigh impossible for them to go to normal school. They cannot go in any such way, with any such ease, such lack of additional expenditure, as the city girls do. They must tear up their old associations, they must buy new clothes, must have money for transportation, must leave the home nest, must have cash in hand for every little act of life. They cannot do it. They have not the money. They cannot leave their homes. Only the occasional one, the one with the fixed ambition to be a teacher, can overcome the inertia necessary to break away and go to the city in order to enter the normal school.

Consequently, the great body of normal graduates are girls who are raised in the cities where the normal schools are located. The great body of normal graduates go out to teach first in the rural schools. In two years' time, if they are good, they may secure employment in the city.

The final result, the result in the large way, the naturally to-be-expected result is that the rural schools are taught by a body of young women who have never been in the country before, who scream at a cow, who take a fit at a horse, who cannot get up for breakfast, who cannot sleep for lonesomeness because everything is so still. These are good, honest, well-meaning girls, doing the best they can, remember.

But what can they do for rural children? What influences do they exert toward making them happy in their rural environment, toward teaching them to appreciate and enjoy rural pleasures, toward inducing them to stay on the farm? These teachers cannot do it. They are not built that way. It is as impossible as for the Ethiop to change his skin. Their lives have been spent in the city. Their friends and pleasures are all there. There is the heaven to which they will return as soon as they can finish their two years of purgatory.

"Out of the fulness of the heart the mouth speaketh." In what direction, think you, will be the whole trend of such a teacher's unconscious influence upon the children with whom she associates for a year or two? Where, to them, will lie the great things, the attractive things, the desirable things of life? Where will they really desire to go as soon as they can? What will they dream about? Where will they expect to seek their fortunes?

Even the ambitious country-bred teacher, who does break thru difficulty, overcome inertia, and go away to a normal school or college for a period of years, has his heart and head full of the city. Naturally so. His own adventures and successes have been there, and he looks forward there to his future successes and adventures.

Ergo—I should say, that one of the ways certainly not to train rural teachers is by the agency of a normal school located in and dominated by a city.

I often hear the consolidated school, the centralized school, urged as the great panacea for the ills of the rural children. Indeed, I have often urged it myself. It is a fascinating and inspiring idea—a strong populous school, with an enterprising, ambitious man for principal. What possibilities it would have! How it could organize, how inspire the young people! How it could have debating teams, literary societies, sports, athletics, student government, contests, clubs! How it could become the center of the civic life, and fill the community with wholesome enthusiasm! The picture is so attractive and so feasible that I have sometimes almost, but not quite, resigned my job, in order to work it out myself in some fortunate neighborhood!

But let us hold our horses long enough to inquire as to the real influence of the centralized school upon the rural children, its power to create rural ideals, to build rural inclinations, rural tendencies.

However it may be elsewhere, in our country it somehow nearly always happens that the centralized school is located in the largest town in the neighborhood. The children are transported, yes, from the country to the town! and their minds are transported no less than their bodies! Their most impressionable years are spent away from the country, in absorbing the things that will fit them for life in the city, and that will probably unfit them for happiness, content, and success in the country.

The very best teachers now alive—those that get credit and renown, and money, and advancement—are those who can most skilfully and efficiently inspire their pupils and point them toward and train them for the great things of life—in the city! Really, they cannot do anything else. That is what they are trained for, that is their tradition, that is what they know, that is what is expected of them, that is what they are paid to do.

Very many wise and earnest men and women—the greatest and most famous of our time—are now thinking and talking and writing about improving the conditions of rural life. They see it as a vital necessity for the future power and prosperity of the nation. They see that the people who possess the land and till it are really those upon whom our country must depend, and that it is placing the nation in jeopardy to let the land pass into the hands of indigestible aliens or ignorant, brutalized peasants. They see it as a necessity for our future to have our land owned and worked by solid, happy, intelligent American citizens, and not at all by absentee landlords and their serfs. They perceive danger to our institutions when the newly arrived Japanese or Italian is so efficient, so adapted to conditions, that he can drive the American off the farm and take possession of the soil.

These wise ones are pretty unanimous in loading a redirecting of rural thought and rural life upon that patient and suffering camel, the public school. They frankly confess their inability to teach new tricks to old dogs, and ask the schools to raise an altogether new breed of pups. But to do so we must evolve a new breed of schools and a new breed of teachers to put into those schools. It is not merely a matter of education; it is a matter of thinking, of feeling, of hoping, of believing.

We cannot check the exodus from the country by something superficially applied from the outside. There must be something born in the children, some change in the atmosphere they breathe, some alteration of their ambitions and aspirations. As it is, nearly everybody wants to go to the city—really hopes and desires to go, sometime. The lonesome housewife doomed to drudgery; the mother, who sees the druggist's children and the doctor's offspring better off than hers; the farmer, working long hours, without the good clothes and smug appearance of the banker and lawyer; the girl dreaming of the fairy prince; the boy tired of the everlasting chores—they all want and hope and desire to go to the city—and sooner or later they go. For that matter, you went, didn't you? So did I. But we do not want the others to go.

Giving the rural people greater profits, greater prosperity, will not do. Isn't it the prosperous farmers who are the greatest sinners? Do they not lease their fine farms to

immigrants, and buy a place in town, so that their children may have "advantages," so they will not have to work so hard?

The results of the exodus are not only bad in a large way for the farming country, but also in a large way for the people who move. On the farm, children are an asset; in the city, a liability. The poor man who leaves the farm dooms his family, present and prospective, to extinction. The expense of keeping it, the difficulty of securing plenty of wholesome food, abundance of wholesome air, exercise, and good growing conditions for it will sooner or later wipe it out.

The rich man who leaves the farm for greater "disadvantages" in town is not much better. His children have no spur toward effort. They fritter themselves away on society, dissipation, sport, and what not. They, too, scatter and disappear from the earth in a generation or two. The city is always an extinguisher of the family in every way.

Now if the sovereign people of this nation, with patriotic vision of the future, really propose to change these conditions, to turn the cityward tide, and if they really propose to lay the responsibility of effecting the change upon us school people, we undertake a very vital and serious task—the task of making over a nation, of changing the heart of a people, of making them appreciate and love and desire the things they do not, of giving them hopes and pleasures and aspirations that now they have not.

The teachers who can do this are not yet bred; and to return to my text, the way not to prepare them is any of the ways in which we have been preparing teachers. We have been preparing them in exactly the opposite direction—to encourage, and stimulate, and spur on the procession to the city, not to stem or check or turn it!

The rural-mindedness so necessary to rural life cannot be produced in our old way, by a course. We must devise some new agency to do it with—automobiles, or aeroplanes, or high powers, or submarines, or something! Isn't that the way of the rest of the world?

RURAL SUPERVISION IN THE MOUNTAINS OF THE SOUTH

JENNIE BURKES, COUNTY SUPERINTENDENT OF CLAIBORNE COUNTY, CUMBERLAND GAP, TENN.

When the subject of rural supervision in the mountain sections of the South was chosen, it was my plan to tell true stories of actual experiences as told or written to me by various county superintendents and supervisors whose everyday work is confined to the rural schools in the mountains. But I soon found that this story-telling would take too much time and that I could not enter fully into the spirit of another's story.

"For the truth which another has won from nature or from life is not our truth until we have lived it. Only that becomes real or helpful to any man which has cost the sweat of his brow, the effort of his brain, or the anguish of his soul."

This, then, is my apology for confining my subject to the narrow horizon of my own experience as superintendent of schools in the mountains of Tennessee.

Perhaps the highest type of supervision for the rural schools in the mountains is expected to come directly from the county superintendent. But his duties are so numerous that efficient supervision along any specific line becomes a physical impossibility.

If a supervisor is a person who changes a teacher from what he is to what he ought to be, we are willing to admit that much time and money have been wasted in the South on account of the lack of such ideal supervision. However, investigation shows that wherever supervisors have been employed their supervision has generally tended toward the upbuilding of our schools. It has also been found that a successful supervisor or superintendent in the mountains should be a rural-school specialist and a professional educator. He must have an exceptional degree of enthusiasm, a passion for service, the courage of the uninitiated, and the nerve of an ex-president.

Claiborne County lies in the Cumberland Mountains of eastern Tennessee. It is a typical mountain country so far as ruggedness, bad roads, and low property assessment

are concerned. Three years ago, when I became superintendent of the Claiborne County schools, I found myself confronted with every problem known to education. Our school fund was small on account of our very low assessment; our school term was only three and one-half months; our teachers were poorly paid, and likewise poorly qualified; our buildings unspeakable, our equipment nothing.

Undoubtedly our most valuable asset was a county board of education, consisting of five people who had little schooling but an abundance of common-sense, rugged honesty, wholesome spirit, and a willingness to do something for the betterment of our schools.

We learned that every board of education should have a clearly defined, definitely planned school policy, so our slogan for the first year became "Better schools and a longer school term." After a series of educational campaigns conducted in every district of the county, the court met and raised our public-school levy from thirty-five to sixty cents, which in turn lengthened our school term from three and one-half months to five months, and permitted better salaries for our teachers.

Before our schools opened, the teachers were assembled in a county institute for three weeks, where they were given special training in the public-school subjects and a little psychology.

With the courage which only the inexperienced know, we took our schools out of politics, abandoned recklessly old customs of doing things, and established a new order of administration. The last straw was when the board employed a rural supervisor of schools. The people considered this action a piece of unheard-of extravagance and questioned its legality. The court at its next session took up the matter and voted against the employment of a supervisor, by a majority of seventeen to five. When this honorable body were told that they had absolutely nothing to do with the hiring of a supervisor, they settled back with this question: "What will she do next?"

The answer came a few weeks later when the county, state, and federal governments, under the Smith-Lever bill, employed a county agricultural agent to help the farmers in their work. We hope that these agricultural object-lessons will speedily bring about an economic revolution, because it is an economic problem, fundamentally, that our mountain people have to face.

The indifference of the country people toward the schools, and the unsightly school buildings and grounds, compelled us to adopt for our slogan the second year: "A school improvement association for every school."

Appropriations from the county and state made it possible to have a very much better institute for our teachers the second year. For four weeks some of the best educators of the state gave courses, including practical psychology, public-school music, primary methods, story-telling, games and plays, agriculture, home economics, and special lectures on history, English, and sanitation. At the close of this institute, the teachers unanimously adopted the following list of specifications for standardization (in the order of adoption):

1. School graded.
2. Library and bookcase.
3. House painted; roof, doors, windows, and locks repaired.
4. School flag.
5. Drinking-fountain or water-cooler with individual drinking-cups.
6. Timepiece (clock preferred).
7. Globe, maps, good blackboard, erasers, and waste-basket.
8. Brooms, duster, and sprinkler, or oiled floors.
9. Cloakrooms or racks for hats and caps.
10. Flowers in yard, on table, or in window.
11. Neat school grounds.
12. Sanitary outhouses.
13. First-aid remedies.
14. Inventory showing everything received and added during the year.
15. Two pictures, well-framed, and an additional picture each year.
16. Call bell for class use.

17. Proper seating.
18. Proper ventilation.
19. Proper heating (stove jacketed).
20. School improvement club.
21. Activity of teacher in church and Sunday school.
22. Attendance at teachers' meetings.
23. Daily schedule posted (including daily study and recitation periods).
24. Taking and reading at least one educational journal.
25. Minimum of at least three public gatherings in school.
26. Visiting every home, or stating reason for failure.
27. No use of tobacco nor alcoholics by teacher or pupils.
28. Personal supervision of pupils at play.
29. Neat personal appearance of teacher.
30. Orderly assembling and dismissing of pupils.
31. Reading of Bible at opening exercises.
32. Neatly kept register, with daily roll-call.
33. Domestic arts in home or school; two exhibits by at least one-half of the girls.
34. Manual training in home or school; exhibit at close of school, by at least one-half of the boys.
35. School exhibit at county fair.
36. Subscription to at least one daily newspaper.

Every school that complies with 75 per cent of the items of standardization will be classed a standard school; those that comply with 85 per cent of the items will be classed as superior schools.

This was a very progressive and courageous step on the part of the teachers, when we consider that the best-equipped school in the county at that time could not measure up to half-standard. Every school made an effort toward standardization, and, thru the earnest work of teachers, patrons, and pupils, at the close of the school year, there were 29 superior schools and 52 standard schools, out of 102 schools in the county.

We know that our schools have not fulfilled their whole mission until they reflect the everyday life and activities of the country people, so our slogan for the past year became "Better education for all." Thru the volunteer service of some of our teachers, a number of moonlight schools were organized, and nearly one hundred adult illiterates were taught to read and write, while scores of men and women extended their education in subjects of their choice.

In the mountain sections, the one-teacher school is at present a necessity. As our roads become improved and our people acquire a more comprehensive idea of the true meaning of education, we may hope for consolidation in a small way, but the one-teacher school, like the poor, I fear, will always be with us. Yet, in spite of existing conditions, the board has abandoned by elimination or consolidation twelve small schools.

We believed that in our valleys consolidation was possible, roads or no roads, if the people really wanted it. We argued that if good roads will bring consolidation of schools, why won't consolidated schools bring good roads? The state and county each appropriated \$1,000 to foster the idea of consolidation, and this \$2,000 was offered to the community that would raise the largest amount toward the construction of a model consolidated school building. Today there stands in Powell's Valley, on seven acres of land, a beautiful brick building where the children from three one-teacher schools and one two-teacher school are enjoying advantages they never knew before.

At its very next session, the county court issued pike-road bonds to the amount of \$377,000, so that good roads might go hand in hand with good schools in Claiborne County!

This year our increased assessment will give us at least a six months' school term. Our teachers' salaries have been raised, so that we shall not hold a county institute but require our teachers to attend a state normal school or the summer school of the South. Another county agent has been employed under the Smith-Lever bill to organize girls' canning clubs, and to do extension work in home economics. With all the forces I have

mentioned hammering away on the same problems, we believe we have achieved a foothold in the wall of true education by which we may climb to better and higher standards. There are many counties in Tennessee and the South that have accomplished more than we have, but I know of none whose teaching force is so loyal in service, so willing to work, and so sweet about it.

By this time I hope I have proved that the rural teacher is the school. Of course, visits from supervising teachers and the superintendent may inspire the efficient teacher and may help the inefficient teacher in her work, but if these visits are not frequent, the supervision does very little good. Any supervision, however, is better than no supervision, for even that will help to keep the superintendent in closer touch with the schools than if there were none. Much will be done for education when our teachers can be brought to realize that the greatest problem we have is how to make our schools affect the community life. And how to do it is a question that can be settled only by the individual teacher working for the greatest good of her own community. Thus the problem of rural supervision in the mountains lies largely with the teachers who must, in isolated communities, become the leaders of public opinion.

THE STATUS AND NEED OF RURAL SUPERVISION

A. C. MONAHAN, SPECIALIST, THE UNITED STATES BUREAU OF EDUCATION,
WASHINGTON, D.C.

A discussion of this subject is practically a discussion of the status of the rural-school superintendents, county or district, as we seem to understand by the term "supervision" everything included in the work of the superintendent. Our conception of what constitutes supervision is constantly changing. At first it was the management of the business side of the school system, later it became management of the business side plus the direction of the educational work of the school and the methods of teaching, and now in many cases it is the direction of the educational work only. This is indicated by two expressions in very common use thruout the country, "units of organization for administration," and "units of organization for supervision." In our city systems the two units are identical. The unit is the territory under the management of a single board and also under the supervision of a single superintendent; but in rural districts the two units are identical only in the "county unit" states. In the superintendency unions of New England, each a unit of supervision, the management rests with as many separate boards as there are towns in the union; in the New York supervisory district, with as many separate boards as there are school districts in the supervisory district. In the 40 states employing county superintendents, in which the unit of supervision is therefore the county, the unit of organization for management and support in 4 is the township and in 22 the old local school district.

Let me outline briefly the various systems of rural supervision in the United States: In New England, the city or town includes everything within the township lines, all under the management of one board and under the charge of one superintendent. A large number of the city superintendents of New England therefore have charge of rural territory as well as urban territory, and rural schools as well as urban schools. In the more sparsely settled sections, two or more townships are joined together to form a "union superintendency." In management each township is independent. The superintendent divides his time among his townships in proportion to the number of schools or teachers in each. In Vermont the superintendents are all appointed by the state board of education and paid by the state. The state board determines the boundaries of the districts, following township lines but disregarding county lines. The average district contains from 100 to 120 square miles. The Massachusetts supervisory districts contain from 2 to 4 townships, with from 20 to 40 teachers. The townships retain control of the

management, engage a superintendent certified and approved by the state department of education, and receive from the state a fund equal to one-half of the superintendent's salary. This plan has been in operation for 28 years. Supervision of schools in the small towns of Connecticut dates from 1903, in which year the legislature passed an act providing that towns with less than 10 teachers might petition the state board of education for the appointment of a superintendent. The state board appointed the supervisor; the town fixed his salary, paying one-fourth of it, the state paying three-fourths. In 1907 the law was amended so that towns with as many as 20 teachers might ask for a supervisor, provision being made for the payment of the entire salary by the state. As a result there are now 93 towns in the state, in 32 supervisory districts, under 32 supervisors appointed and paid by the state, and an average of 30 teachers to each supervisor.

The average New England superintendent of a union district has 17 schools, 34 teachers, and 52 square miles of territory. Very few assistant superintendents are employed, as they are unnecessary in such small supervisory districts. Little allowance is made for traveling expenses, as but little is needed; however, very well-trained men, a great majority (83 per cent) being college graduates with successful teaching experience, are employed.

The results of this close supervision of rural schools in New England are identical with those obtained in Connecticut, as summarized by C. D. Hine, secretary of the State Board of Education, as follows:

1. Better attendance.
2. Decreased number of one-room schools thru consolidation.
3. Increased number of trained teachers employed.
4. Increase in the proportion of pupils graduating from the elementary schools and entering the high schools.
5. Increased regularity and punctuality of children.
6. Marked improvement in buildings.
7. Unmistakable evidence of greater interest in schools on the part of school officers and parents.

A study of the records of the small towns now having school supervision shows the following interesting changes since 1903-4:

1. Proportion of registered pupils attending school every day has risen from 77 per cent to 82.7 per cent.
2. The number of one-room schools in these towns has decreased from 537 to 481, or 10 per cent.
3. The number of normal graduates employed as teachers in these towns has increased from 211 to 382—an increase of 55 per cent.
4. The number of pupils attending high schools from these towns has increased from 1,131 to 2,004, or 77 per cent.

Perhaps one of the most significant results of supervision has been the elimination of waste effort and lost time in the schoolroom. The gain in efficiency by these economies is making possible the more rapid advancement of pupils. Already a reduction of the elementary-school course from the traditional nine years to eight has been effected in schools under state supervision. The gain thru economy of time and better organization of work will eventually mean the completion in the early years of the course of the necessary training in fundamental operations with numbers and in the mechanics of reading and penmanship. One or two years in the latter part of the course may be then devoted to practical studies directly helpful to pupils soon to leave school for work.

The New York system is similar to the New England system in many ways, the supervisory district corresponding closely to the New England supervisory district in size and formation. It is a development, however, from the county rather than from the township. The old county superintendents of New York were replaced January 1, 1912, by district superintendents, each county—with four exceptions—being divided into from 2 to 8 supervisory districts. There are approximately 207 supervisory districts in the state, and there are 57 counties, making an average of 4 to a county. The district boundaries coincide with the township boundaries: so the New York districts, like the New England districts, may be said to be made up of a union of townships. The superin-

tendents are selected by boards representing the townships in each supervisory district. The average number of schools to each county superintendent is 52, the number of teachers 82, the number of square miles of territory 254.

The superintendents, like those in New England in the union supervisory districts, are approved by the state department of education and are practically all college-trained men, approximately 68 per cent having two or more years' college work. The powers and duties conferred upon them are practically the same as those conferred upon the city superintendents in the states in which they are working.

In all the other states of the Union, with two exceptions, the supervision of rural schools is in the hands of county superintendents with or without assistants. These two exceptions are Virginia and Nevada. In Virginia the superintendent is a "division superintendent," the division in most cases, as far as rural schools are concerned, being a county; in several cases it is two counties. In Nevada the supervision is under five deputy state superintendents of public instruction. Arkansas might be cited as another exception, for Arkansas as yet employs county superintendents in but one-fourth of the counties of the state. In the other counties there is no supervision.

In three States—Maryland, Florida, and Louisiana—the county superintendents have under their supervision all cities in the counties, as well as the rural territory; in the other states, cities are set apart under their own supervisory officers. In at least 30 of the 40 states having county superintendents, assistant county superintendents under one title or another are employed, the number varying from that of a certain state with nearly 100 counties, one of which only employs an assistant, to that of Ohio, with 88 county superintendents and approximately 540 district superintendents. This plan is new in Ohio, being the result of the school laws passed by the legislature in January, 1914, and it is too early to know definitely what its results will be; however, it is very similar to the West Virginia plan, which has been in operation long enough to prove that it is very satisfactory. The boards of education of the West Virginia magisterial districts, civil districts corresponding to the eastern townships, employ district superintendents, or two adjacent districts may unite in employing a single superintendent. He is legally an assistant to the county superintendent. All districts have not employed such supervisors, but there are 82 altogether, enough so that one-third of the rural teachers in the state are in supervised districts. Kentucky is trying a plan somewhat similar; it has approximately 200 rural supervisors or "supervising principals," each confining his work to one of the "educational divisions" of a county. Oregon's plan is also similar. By legislative enactment of 1911, counties with more than 60 teachers were divided into supervisory districts, each district containing approximately 60 teachers, and a supervisor appointed for the district is made responsible directly to the county superintendent for all of his work. The 1915 legislature made the plan optional instead of mandatory, to be continued, however, until voted out by the school directors of the county.

These are all instances of plans where each supervisor has a definite portion of the county to which his work is confined. Other states have passed mandatory or permissive laws for assistant county superintendents working thruout the entire county from the county superintendent's office. Pennsylvania, for instance, requires every county with 200 rural teachers to employ at least one assistant, with 400 teachers at least two, etc. Wisconsin has a supervising teacher in each county. Illinois allows the county commissioners to employ assistants when they desire to do so; in Cook County they employ five. In states with the county unit, the county boards of education, as a rule, may employ as many assistants as they wish; the county boards of Maryland, for instance, have the same privilege in employing assistants to the county superintendent that the city board of Baltimore has in employing assistants to the city superintendent. In one county with 600 teachers the board employs nine assistants. In the county-unit states, probably 500 rural-school supervisors or assistant superintendents are employed.

This all sounds as if in the 40 states with county supervision there are but few county superintendents without assisting supervisors; as a matter of fact, the number with such supervisors is very small in comparison to the total. In the approximately 2,830 counties in the 40 states, approximately 18 per cent employ assistants. In 10 states none are employed; in 5, assistants are employed in 10 per cent or less than 10 per cent of the counties. Clerical assistance, in many cases only part-time, is furnished to 29 per cent of the superintendents. It is noteworthy that the majority of assistants are employed in county-unit states and relatively few or none in the district-unit states. The 10 states in which none are employed are all in the group organized for management on the "district" plan.

The efficiency of the supervision of the county superintendents who are working without assistants (82 per cent of the total) depends upon many things: the size of the territory under their supervision, the conditions of travel, the number of schools, teachers, pupils, etc., the organization for the administration of the school affairs, the legal powers and duties conferred upon them, their education, training, and experience, the length of the term of office for which they are elected or selected, and the method of election or selection.

We are making in the bureau, at the present time, a study of county supervision, and have definite data to indicate the difficulties of the county superintendent's job, if the county superintendent makes a real attempt to supervise by visiting his schools.

The average territory of the county superintendent in the United States is 1,500 square miles. In 13 states, practically all eastern states, the average for each state is less than 600 square miles; in 13 others, it is between 600 and 1,000; in 3, it is over 5,000. (The area of the state of Rhode Island is approximately 1,248 square miles.) The rural-school term in the majority of these states is so short (five to eight months) and the roads so bad that the county superintendent cannot make many visits in a year; the average county superintendent spends 36 per cent of his time visiting. In about one-half of the states, the prevailing number of visits is one per year, in almost all of the others two per year, the visits being from one-half to two hours in length. He has 84 school buildings, 77 per cent of which are one-teacher buildings, and 132 teachers. In one state, the average is 217 buildings, 354 teachers; in four other states, the average number of teachers per county is over 200.

For traveling, the county superintendents are allowed traveling expenses in practically all states, the amount, however, varying from almost nothing to about \$800. In practically all states certain allowance is made for office expenses, including salaries of assistants and traveling expenses. The salaries paid the county superintendents vary in different states, from \$3,000 paid in New Jersey to each county superintendent to an average of \$720 paid in Wyoming. There are four states in which the average salary is less than \$1,000 per year and there are three states in which the average is more than \$2,000 per year. The average of the 40 state averages is \$1,388. This sounds much better than it ought, for minimum salaries paid in individual cases are very low. Ten county superintendents in the United States receive less than \$300 per year; 24, more than \$300 but less than \$500; and 64 receive more than \$500 but less than \$700.

The legal powers and duties conferred upon the county superintendents vary very greatly. In some states they are very limited, being little more than what the county superintendent can coax the school directors to allow him to do; in other states they are very great. For instance, the county superintendent in Washington has the supervision of the work of common schools of his county, enforces the use of the course of study, enforces the rules and regulations required in the examination of teachers, and conducts the examinations, holds teachers' institutes and county meetings of school directors, suspends teachers for neglect of duty, enforces the compulsory education law, may require reports of school directors and teachers, and the plans for new school buildings must be approved by him before the building may be erected. In practice, he controls the estimate

of expenses in each district and has much influence in the selection of teachers. He also selects the county board of education, a professional board consisting of himself and four others, which is authorized to grade the eighth-grade examinations, to adopt textbooks for the entire county, to prepare teachers' manuals, courses of study, rules and regulations for governing circulating libraries, and to adopt such rules and regulations concerning the schools of the county as are not inconsistent with the state laws or the regulations of the state board of education.

Very much, of course, depends upon this superintendent's general education, training, and experience in school affairs. From our special inquiry relative to the schooling of the county superintendents, we find that 6 per cent have attended elementary schools only, 3 per cent have had one year of secondary school, 3 per cent two years of secondary school, 4 per cent three years of secondary school, 20 per cent four years of secondary-school work; 17 per cent have had one year or less than one year of higher education, 17 per cent have had two years, 6 per cent have had three years, and 22 per cent have had four years. In making this average, if we omit the county superintendents of Ohio, who are practically all college graduates, and Pennsylvania and Indiana, which have a large number of college graduates, the percentages of those with secondary education or less are much greater than just given and represent more nearly the average condition.

It is interesting to make a comparison of the general education of the county superintendents for the states where these officers are *appointed* as against the states in which they are *elected*. We divided the 40 states with county superintendents into three groups; the first, of which there are 13, being the states in which the superintendents are appointed; the second, of which there are 10, being the states in which the superintendents are elected by popular vote for four-year terms; the third, of which there are 17, the states in which the superintendents are elected by popular vote for two-year terms.

In the first group, 2.5 per cent have attended elementary schools only

In the second group, 8.4 per cent have attended elementary schools only

In the third group, 6.6 per cent have attended elementary schools only

In the first group, 5.5 per cent have had more than an elementary and less than a complete high-school course

In the second group, 18 per cent have had more than an elementary and less than a complete high-school course

In the third group, 10 per cent have had more than an elementary and less than a complete high-school course

In the first group, 12 per cent have had the equivalent of a full high-school course

In the second group, 19 per cent have had the equivalent of a full high-school course

In the third group, 25 per cent have had the equivalent of a full high-school course

In the first group, 37 per cent have had college work of from less than one year up to three full years, and 43 per cent are graduates; in the second group, 39 per cent have had college work of from less than one year up to three full years, and 12 per cent are graduates; in the third group 41 per cent have had college work of from less than one year up to three years, and 17 per cent are graduates. If we compare the two groups, one including the 13 states in which the superintendents are appointed, the other the 27 states in which the superintendents are elected, we find the following:

Amount of Schooling	First Group	Second Group
Elementary education only.....	2.5 per cent	7.2 per cent
From one to three years secondary.....	5.5 per cent	14.0 per cent
Full four years secondary.....	12.0 per cent	23.0 per cent
From one to three years higher.....	37.0 per cent	40.0 per cent
Full four years higher.....	43.0 per cent	15.0 per cent
	20 per cent	44.2 + per cent
	80 per cent	55 + per cent

This seems to prove that for county superintendents a greater number of men and women who have received more general education and training are appointed by county

boards than by popular election. It appears also that those appointed have had more teaching experience previous to selection than elected officers: the average for those appointed being 9.3 years, for those elected 8.9 years. This is an argument in favor of the appointed county superintendent. Another argument might be found in the figures showing the total number of the superintendents of the two groups who have been re-appointed or re-elected. Among the appointed superintendents, 36 per cent are serving their first terms; 29 per cent their second terms; 35 per cent their third or more than third terms. Among the elected superintendents, 63 per cent are serving their first terms; 26 per cent their second terms; and 11 per cent their third terms. The records of some of the states are interesting. One state has as high as 70 per cent of county superintendents who are serving their first terms; this, of course, is a state where the county superintendents are elected by popular vote. A study of the number of superintendents who have been in office more than eight years brings out the fact that most of these are in the group of appointed superintendents and very few in states where they are elected by popular vote. This may or may not be an argument for appointed superintendents.

It is a little off my subject to discuss the relative merits of the appointed versus the elected county superintendent. The status of this question is that in 21 states the rural superintendents are appointed, and in 27 they are elected. Of the former 21 states, 17 are east of the Mississippi River. Alabama has passed the necessary legislation, and by the addition of this state the number of states appointing their superintendents will become 22 at the expiration of the terms of her present officers.

We have found other interesting facts in our study of county supervision. There are 547 women county superintendents, or 19.4 per cent of the total number. Our figures seem to show that the women superintendents as a class have had better general education and more professional training than the men; that they devote a larger percentage of their time to visiting schools; that the prevailing number of visits to each school is greater and the length of time spent with each teacher is longer. The women county superintendents, it would seem, have fewer things outside of the regular work to engage their time.

ROUND TABLE OF SUPERINTENDENTS OF CITIES WITH A POPULATION OF OVER 250,000

A FIRST STEP IN ESTABLISHING THE SIX-THREE-THREE ORGANIZATION

HERBERT S. WEET, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, ROCHESTER, N. Y.

Last September the city of Rochester opened its first school under the six-three-three plan. This plan was chosen primarily because school authorities believed that it presented possibilities of meeting the needs of the seventh- and eighth-grade boys and girls to a far greater extent than we have been able to meet them heretofore. No one today denies the value of manual training for boys and household arts work for girls, at least in the seventh and eighth grades. There are many, however, who argue, and we believe argue soundly, that there is doubtful value in much of this work as it is usually given in the regular grammar school. In the first place, the time is insufficient. This objection is raised even more by parents than by school men. But by far the more serious objection is to the nature of the work itself. For boys it is usually general and disciplinary, is limited to simple forms of woodwork only, and lacks the purpose and motivation necessary to awaken either cultural or vocational interest. If the time element were the only one involved, it would be possible to lengthen the grammar-school days, but the expense incurred in any attempt to offer, in connection with each grammar school, the range and kind of manual-training facilities needed for these boys is absolutely prohibitive. This expense is not only for original equipment, but it is for the necessarily high per capita

cost of instruction, considering the comparatively small number of boys found in even our largest grammar schools.

Furthermore, few people doubt today that the boys and girls who are to study a foreign language ought to begin this study before the usual high-school period. Is it a fair proposition to say that at the eighth year the boy who has an interest in and an ability for language should have the opportunity of spending more of his time on this subject, while the boy who has an interest in and an ability for the industrial arts should have the opportunity of spending in this department the additional time that the former pupil spends on a foreign language? We believed that such an arrangement should be possible. But the limited numbers involved in even the largest grammar school in Rochester made this limited difference impracticable. Any attempt at it would at the best be but a makeshift. The fact is that in the last analysis the junior-high-school problem is essentially one of numbers.

Of course the value of what has been said thus far rests upon the assumption that there are needs among these seventh- and eighth-grade boys and girls that we have not been meeting under the usual grammar-grade organization. To deny this it is necessary to show that those pupils who withdrew from school, at least upon the completion of the eighth-grade work, withdrew largely because of economic pressure in the home. Our evidence is quite to the contrary. Of those who completed the eighth-year work last January under the junior-high-school organization, 94½ per cent have remained for the ninth-year work. A year ago, in exactly the same community, but under the grammar-school organization, only 51 per cent remained for ninth-year work. This unmistakably suggests that there were needs among these upper-grade pupils that were not being met, and that the present junior-high-school type of work is meeting these needs.

In this attempt, however, to meet more adequately the needs of these upper-grade pupils, there is danger of forcing or encouraging vocational selection at such an early age that it may result in the lifelong injury of the pupil. The average age of the eighth-grade graduates in the city of Rochester is fourteen and one-half years. Certainly any influence that encourages choice of a specific vocation earlier than this cannot be defended by the public school. This is an educational principle upon which there has been much discussion from time to time. This objection to what was regarded as early specialization was the one most urgently used against the extension of regular high-school courses beyond the lines of literary, pure science, and mathematics work.

On the other hand, any form of school organization that affords no opportunity for awakening vocational interests and encouraging vocational abilities before the time when vocational selection actually is made would seem to err in the other direction. We believed this to be a pronounced weakness in our former organization. Both parent and pupil were forced to make some sort of selection of decided vocational importance to the pupil at the completion of this eighth-grade work. In this particular community, nearly half of the pupils who remained for the completion of these eight years of work were withdrawing from school. With these the selection was of vital vocational importance, and yet chance rather than intelligence was to determine the outcome. The major part of these eighth-grade graduates who did continue in school, furthermore, were selecting the general or college preparatory courses of the upper high school; a smaller percentage, the trade courses for boys and girls of secondary grade. The distribution of our high-school pupils is suggestive on this point. Of the total number, 66 per cent are in the general or college preparatory courses, 27 per cent in the commercial courses, and 7 per cent in the trade courses. To the extent that the distribution of high-school pupils might be expected to reflect the vocational activities of the community, one would infer that two-thirds of all the working people of Rochester are engaged in professional vocations, while only one-third are carrying on the business and industrial enterprises of the city. Of course no one would expect or desire to find only those taking the college-preparatory courses of the upper high school who anticipate going to college and later entering upon professional

careers. There are many in this course who are there for purposes of general education and no one will deny that this is a highly defensible purpose for every pupil who has an interest in and the ability to profit by these literary, pure science, and mathematics courses. But how many of those who are actually familiar with our upper high schools would care to defend the proposition that for two-thirds of all our grammar-school graduates the general or college preparatory courses are the most helpful courses which they could possibly take during these four years of the high-school period? There is ample evidence to any person familiar with the facts that this general education only too often means aimless and ineffective education. And yet this is the traditional high-school course and consequently, in the judgment of so many parents, quite the course to take. By no means infrequently does the parent of a boy who is making a signal failure of his work in this course in high school plead that the boy be allowed to go on, because the general cultural benefits of the high-school atmosphere will be of so much help to him in later life—and this at the time in a boy's life when neither true culture nor real training can come thru any medium that does not bring forth sustained effort on the part of the individual. To the extent then that these two-thirds who are taking general or college preparatory courses represent those who will not gain results commensurate with the time and energy spent, a continuance of the system is resulting in lifelong injury to pupils quite as effectively as is the learning of any particular trade at too early an age, provided the learning of such a trade has been accomplished by hard and conscientious application.

But how are these interests and abilities to be determined? It is true that every eighth-grade teacher has watched certain of her graduates go on into the literary, pure science, and mathematics courses of the high school, knowing that they were doomed to failure in these lines. Her counsels availed little, however, when opposed by the traditional emphasis upon those high-school courses which may lead ultimately into professional life. But even in these cases the teacher has based her judgment more upon what the pupil has failed to do in courses given than upon what he has accomplished in other directions. This is obviously true because the grammar school has no facilities with which to make any adequate test along lines other than those which do lead to the general courses of the upper high school.

School authorities in Rochester believed that so long as these broader facilities for evoking the pupils' interest and abilities in the great field of manual arts were not made a reasonably adequate part of their lives before the compulsory education law had been satisfied, the steady withdrawal of such a large percentage of the eighth-grade graduates from this community and the traditional selection of the literary high-school courses on the part of so many others who would gain but meager profit from such courses would inevitably continue. The only way to guarantee these facilities was to make them a part of the pupils' school work before the compulsory attendance requirement had released its hold upon the child. The problem then lay in preserving a sensible balance between the one extreme represented by the single-teacher plan of grammar-school organization, and the other extreme of premature specialization. This could be done only by insistence that the courses for seventh- and eighth-grade pupils under the junior-high-school organization should provide so far as possible a range of activities sufficiently broad to bring out individual interests and capacities, and that they should be emphatically preparatory and prevocational. The following statement of the work given to these seventh- and eighth-grade pupils under this organization will best show how this attempt has been made.

Manual training and household arts.—A minimum of three hours per week is required of every pupil during the first two years. A maximum of twelve hours per week is allowed during the latter half of the first year and during the second year. For the boys there are the following shops, each in charge of a master mechanic: printing, sheet-metal, plumbing, gas-engine, joinery, cabinet-assembly, pattern-making, mill-work, painting, and decorating. For the girls the work includes plain sewing, millinery, dressmaking,

laundry work, and cookery. Those boys who take the minimum time for this work during these two years are given the choice of shops, so far as conditions will permit. The same principle holds with those who take the maximum amount, except that no pupil is allowed to spend more than ten weeks in any one of these shops during this period. The aim here is to test special interest and ability, to give some insight into the trade field, and to give such hand training as is consistent with the maturity of the pupil. In so far as this aim is realized, such a pupil, if obliged to leave school at the end of his eighth year, will have received some training for his work that will be comparable in value to the preparation given the boy who is to have the advantages of a full high-school course. If on the other hand he is to continue in school along trade lines, he will be much more able to select intelligently his special trade.

English, including spelling, writing, grammar, composition, and literature.—This work is required of all pupils during the first two years. Those pupils, however, who give the maximum time to the manual training and the household arts after the first half-year, spend less school time on technical grammar and literature than do the other pupils. Such pupils are required, however, to read outside of school hours a certain amount of good literature. The texts for this are assigned by the teacher, who guides and directs the reading, and who at certain intervals discusses with these pupils the significant points in the literature read. It is interesting to note how already these pupils are associating the reading of a good book with the leisure time in the home.

Arithmetic.—This subject is required of all pupils during the first two years. After the first half-year, those who are taking the maximum time in the manual training and household arts find their application of the principles in connection with this manual work. In like manner those who are interested rather in business or commercial lines find their special application in the different phases of business arithmetic.

Drawing.—This is required of all pupils during the first two years. The emphasis is put upon the mechanical or freehand drawing, according to the nature of the other work of the pupil.

Geography.—This is required of all pupils during the first year. Commercial geography is also taken during the entire second year by those who are putting special emphasis upon the business or commercial work.

United States history, civics, and current topics.—These are required of all pupils during the first two years.

Elementary science and physical education.—These are required of all pupils during the first two years.

Music.—This is required of all pupils during the first half-year; of all except those who are taking the maximum time in the manual training and household arts during the second half-year; and of those pupils only who plan to go on to the upper high school during the second year.

Foreign language, Latin, or German.—This is allowed at the beginning of the second year for those pupils who plan to enter the language courses of the upper high school.

General mathematics.—This course includes arithmetic, concrete geometry, and elementary principles in algebra. It is taken during the second year and is designed to prepare more helpfully for the specialized courses of mathematics of the upper high school.

The school day begins at 8:30 and closes at 4:15, with one and one-quarter hours for noon intermission. This gives a school day of six and one-half hours, which is an increase of more than 20 per cent over the usual length of the school day in the elementary school. This day is divided into four periods of one hour and thirty minutes each. This length of period has two advantages. In the first place it allows time for definite training in the preparation of lessons. In the second place, it makes possible a less abrupt transition from the single-teacher plan of the elementary grades to the fully departmentalized work of the upper high school, by having subject groups rather than single subjects taught by certain teachers. For example, Latin, English grammar, and composition are taught

by the same teacher, while English literature, United States history, civics, and current topics are taught by another teacher.

A review of the above requirements for the first two years of this junior high school, corresponding to the seventh and eighth grades of the regular grammar school, makes clear the following:

1. That during the first half-year all pupils are required to take the same course. This gives a half-year in which to consult the home and study the entire elementary-school record of each pupil before making any attempt to meet individual needs thru differentiated courses.

2. That during the remainder of the first year a very conservative differentiation is made. This affords a half-year in which to verify the assignment before the sharper differentiation of the second year takes place.

3. That the final choice as to course does not come until the completion of the second year. This is the time when precisely this kind of a choice must be made by the pupil who completes the grammar-grade work. At this time the pupils who have emphasized the manual-training or the household-arts work under the differentiations previously allowed are free to enter the college-preparatory courses of the upper high school if they so desire. They will not have had the foreign-language nor the general mathematics courses of the eighth year, but even so they will be quite as well prepared for this work as are the graduates of the regular grammar schools. This is not an opinion, but a statement of fact based upon five years of experience in the Rochester Shop School for Boys.

4. That aside from the foreign language of the second year all subjects are substantially those now commonly offered to seventh- and eighth-grade pupils.

5. That no specialized commercial subjects, such as shorthand and bookkeeping, are offered during the first two years. Those pupils who show special interest in the commercial work offered are simply given a preparation for later specialized commercial subjects thru a partial application of arithmetic and English, for example, to business practice. This is regarded as most helpful for the pupil whether he goes into the commercial courses of the upper high school or into the business office upon the completion of the junior high-school work.

6. That no pupil is allowed to center his interest upon any specialized trade during the first two years. The maximum time spent in this line necessitates work in at least six different shops. Such a provision is designed to bring out vocational interest, to give some insight into the trade field, and to give such elementary hand training as is consistent with the maturity of the pupil.

7. That all boys during the first two years are receiving their manual training thru the working out of practical problems in various shops. This gives a purpose or a motive to the work which is of value in awakening both vocational and cultural interests. The boys who later are to go on to the language courses of the upper high school are working in the same shops as are the boys who are to go later into the trades. They are simply spending less time in these shops, because they have less need for this work. The same principle holds with the girls in the household-arts work.

8. That in short the whole work of these two years is preparatory and prevocational. The simple attempt is made to provide a range of facilities and a sufficient amount of time to bring out special aptitudes and then to give such development of these aptitudes as is consistent. Thus when the time comes for the pupil to decide upon his high-school course or upon his course in the world he will have received some insight into the vocational sphere, whether professional, business, or industrial, in which he will later find himself.

The attempt to avoid premature specialization and yet bring out and develop individual aptitudes has not been confined to courses of study. It has been applied to the task of selecting and training teachers as well as to the methods of organizing the school.

The selection of teachers for such a school is at the same time the most important and the most difficult problem which presents itself. Assuming that teaching experience

is indispensable, the choice lies between the experienced high-school teachers with college training and the experienced grade teachers, usually without such training. The former will be strong in subject knowledge but not so strong in their knowledge of seventh- and eighth-grade boys and girls. They will furthermore be inclined to regard work in the junior high school as offering less advanced positions, even tho salary conditions are the same. The latter will be less strong in subject knowledge but stronger in their practical knowledge of upper-grade children. They will furthermore regard work in the junior high school as an advancement, and will be conscious of the need of supplementary training. This attitude of mind speaks volumes in favor of the experienced grade teachers.

Once it was decided to select experienced grade teachers, the problem of intelligent selection presented itself. Accordingly, one year before the junior high school was to open, a series of Saturday morning institutes was begun. Classes were organized in Latin, German, English, elementary science, and mathematics. These were for applicants for teaching positions in the academic course. Specially trained teachers were available for the commercial and household- and industrial-arts courses, tho Saturday morning institutes were organized and carried on thru the year in these courses also. The major emphasis in these latter was on courses of study.

To these courses every experienced grade teacher in the system who met the minimum requirements and who cared to apply was admitted. Every applicant for a position as teacher of mathematics in the junior high school was required to have had, for example, the full mathematics courses of the upper high school. To continue with this subject of mathematics as illustrative of the principle which prevailed in these institutes, three definite things were accomplished. In the first place, an opportunity was given for drawing up in outline a course of study in general mathematics for the eighth grade or second-year junior-high-school pupils of the academic course. It was exceedingly important that this should be done and that it should be done with great care, since this course was to prepare the pupil for the specialized mathematics courses of the upper high school. Furthermore, no textbook had been written to meet this particular condition. Had we confined ourselves to the arithmetic, or taken the straight high-school course in algebra, the task would have been simple. The institute was in charge of the head of the department of mathematics in the high school to which the pupils of this particular junior high school would later go. He knew the high-school needs and was naturally in a position to indicate the best line of preparation. In the institute class, on the other hand, were the experienced grade teachers with their knowledge of the capacity and limitations of upper-grade pupils. These seemed to be favorable conditions for working out courses of study. The working-out of such courses, therefore, was one important thing to be done in these institutes. In the second place, these institutes gave to the grade teachers an opportunity for subject-matter review in algebra and geometry. And, lastly, the work of the teachers in these institutes constituted one important factor in the ultimate selection of teachers. What has been said of this course in general mathematics was equally true in principle of each of the other courses.

The general organization of the school can be presented with comparative brevity. There are no departmental heads as we know them in the usual high-school organization. At the head of the school stands the principal, a strong, experienced grammar-school man. Associated with him and giving his whole time to the instructional side is a director of junior-high-school academic work. He also is an experienced grammar-school principal of exceptional ability in this particular field. His task is to relate and co-ordinate the academic work of the entire school, regardless of the department in which it is given. This makes for unity and it greatly facilitates the transfer of pupils from one course to another when there is a demonstrated need. One man is in general charge of the shops, one woman has the corresponding place in the household-arts work, and the director of commercial education for the entire system is taking immediate charge of the commercial department. The high-school departmental heads who carried thru the institute work

of last year are consulting engineers. Their interest has been pronounced and their contributions important. In fact, in the main they are coming to the school for a regular period each day, there to teach a class of eighth-grade pupils, while the regular teacher and often the director of academic work are present also to offer their contributions and assistance: such is the desire of these high-school men to know at first hand the powers and limitations of the grade pupil. This ought to contribute much to the solution of another commonly recognized problem, that of securing a closer working relation between the upper grades and the high schools.

This is an exceedingly simple type of organization and it will doubtless impress some as being too simple. On the other hand, those who are familiar with the usual departmental work of the upper high school, which only too often becomes compartmental, will find at least a partial defense for the plan outlined above. As later junior high schools are organized in Rochester, this director of academic work will extend his field as the unifying force for all, and such additional sub-directors will be assigned as experience proves desirable.

In conclusion, Rochester submits the following defense for this junior high school:

1. It has thus far increased by 15 per cent the number of pupils who have remained for eight years of work. This argues well for the reduction of eliminations from the seventh and eighth grades.

2. It has increased from 51 per cent to 94½ per cent the number of pupils who have completed the eight years of work and who are still remaining in school.

3. It has, thus far, produced a much saner distribution of high-school pupils. Whereas the distribution of all our high-school pupils is 66 per cent in the general or college-preparatory courses, 27 per cent in commercial courses, and only 7 per cent in the industrial and household-arts courses, the distribution of ninth-year pupils in the junior high school is 33 per cent in the general or college-preparatory courses, 33 per cent in the commercial courses, and 34 per cent in the industrial- and household-arts courses. We believe this to be a significant change, whether viewed from the standpoint of the distribution of vocational activities in the community or from the standpoint of a distribution that will give maximum training benefits to the pupils themselves. No one can say that this one-third in the general or college-preparatory course includes all pupils who might gain the maximum benefit from this course. On the other hand, no one familiar with the great mortality among first-year pupils in this course under the traditional distribution, and also familiar with the number of those who do remain and who seemingly fail to derive benefits commensurate with the time and energy spent in these courses, can be very apprehensive lest general culture will suffer under this changed distribution.

It would obviously be unreasonable to draw any conclusions concerning the merits of this school with less than a year of actual experience upon which to base such conclusions. Furthermore, one could not defend tracing the greatly increased number of pupils who are remaining for ninth-year work to any single cause, such, for example, as the differentiated courses. Changed economic conditions in the community may be an important factor here. The least that can be said, however, is that the experience thus far indicates that this junior high school will prove to be an educational investment that will pay abundant returns.

THE DETERMINATION OF EDUCATIONAL POLICIES

HENRY SNYDER, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, JERSEY CITY, N. J.

The prevalence of public discussion of the aims and work of the public schools, discussion, by the way, which is often needlessly virulent, is due not only to the demands of changing social and industrial conditions, as has often been observed, but to what has not always been kept in mind by school men, that is, to the wider diffusion of education

among the people and to the consequently larger body of individuals who are capable of presenting and advocating progressive educational policies.

These discussions necessarily take the form of criticism of the school policies which have been followed and of those who have approved of or presented them. It is true that in the past those who have been connected with the professional staffs, the superintendents and teachers, have been largely responsible for the policies which have governed educational departments, simply and solely because their professional knowledge and experience have led their communities to expect and require this leadership of them. A consideration of the provisions of state school codes and of the laws governing the management of school districts discloses the fact, remarkable in view of the practice which has been followed and which has been mentioned, that state school laws do not, except in a very few cases, give superintendents power to fix policies. When such power is given, it is generally bestowed by means of local rules, which can be revoked at any time. I need cite only such familiar but important illustrations as the determination and modification of courses of study, the fixing of the standard of the qualifications of teachers, and of the methods of selecting teachers. The responsibility of the superintendent may therefore be said to be one that is not imposed by law, but one that is personal and informal. In spite of this limitation of their statutory powers, and in spite of their well-known and justifiable conservatism, it is undoubtedly true that superintendents and teachers have generally responded quickly and effectively to progressive public demands, and that, where such demands have not met with favorable response, they have met irremovable financial or other obstructions, or have been opposed by the traditional views of those who remembered the details of their own training and who were influential in educational counsels. Then, too, it must be remembered that communities are not tolerant of educational mistakes, particularly if they involve financial expense. The great industrial concerns of the country and the great business houses do not hesitate to spend thousands of dollars in experimentation, involving oftentimes the relentless consignment to the scrap-heap of machinery, of devices, and plans, and schemes, all of which have been costly, which have been demonstrated by experiment to be failures, but which have also been the steps which have led to progress. No such freedom is permitted to the superintendent, nor should there be complaint that this is so, for he is dealing, not with lifeless material, but with the future lives of human beings; yet the contrast is cited here to indicate the limitation upon his opportunities for educational usefulness. His progress must necessarily be safe and slow. In view of all the circumstances, is it not a tribute to the capabilities of the superintendents and teachers of the country, and, at the same time, evidence of the confidence of the people in them, that they have been permitted to lead in fixing and maintaining educational policies?

Circumstances of their employment have forced school men to study changing conditions which surround the young, and to watch for signs which indicated the necessity of changes in policy. Consequently most of the important changes whose aim has been the linking up of school work with the practical affairs of life have been the result of their initiative. On the other hand, many of the so-called fads have found their way into the schools because of external pressure.

In the study of the formulation or determination of educational policies, there is one truth which we cannot escape. School men are not only employed and paid to instruct the young or to direct such instruction, but are required by the very terms of their employment to keep themselves accurately informed regarding the external conditions which necessitate changes in the character, extent, duration of instruction, and operation of the schools. It is as inevitable, therefore, as it is appropriate, that they should always participate in fixing school policies. On the other hand, the layman, who, tho he may be interested in the work of the schools, is deeply and vitally interested in his own personal and professional interests, has not generally the time to study educational problems, and is not and cannot be required to co-operate.

And yet, it is very desirable that the co-operation of the intelligent, observant citizen be secured. This adaptation of school work to the subsequent living and industrial conditions of the pupil, of which so much is said and which is so important, calls for a careful study of occupations, of the qualifications which parents and employers and the future careers of children demand. So diverse are occupations, and so intricate are the interrelations of industrial and professional pursuits, that it is not safe for the school man to rely wholly upon his own reasoning or observation for his conclusions. He is fortunate if he has the aid of an educational investigation or survey which has been made in a thoro and systematic way. Even in this event he cannot always feel secure, because the surveyors, whether they are experienced in teaching or supervision or not, must base their conclusions on their own standards, which are not the same in all cases, and which frequently provoke as many protests from different sources as the subjects of the investigations themselves. In such cases one is tempted to ask: "Who will survey the surveyors?" If he has not such aid, and this is usually the case, he must invoke the suggestions of interested citizens, but must be sure that those who co-operate have as broad a view of the educational field, are as enthusiastic in purpose, and as eager to secure full and accurate information, as he.

In this part of the discussion, I have had in mind largely the policies which concern matters of instruction; but there are others which concern the general operation or management of schools, in the determination of which the layman must assist. They may be national in scope, such as policies regarding compulsory school attendance, and the closely allied question of child labor—policies which are so involved in the industries and in the interests of employers, and which so affect not only the lives of children but the prices of commodities, that it is desirable that the laws regarding them should be uniform. There are others which are of state-wide application, such as the financial support of the state school system. Others still are only of local application. It is obvious that the school man cannot alone satisfactorily decide the many questions involved. It is obvious, also, that the citizens consulted in the discussion of these questions must possess widely different, but thoro qualifications.

It is not necessary for me to say that we must seek the aid of the educational theorist, whom it is as popular for the layman to decry as it is common for us to applaud him. He has always been, and still is, of incalculable value to schools and school systems. I need not cite historical illustrations. They are familiar to all. All must remember that there must be a theory before there can be a policy.

State school codes are only bundles of school policies. Most of them are accumulations, made gradually in the development and expansion of school systems, and dictated by experience. A few are the products of prolonged and deliberate study conducted by persons specially selected for the purpose, who consulted many kinds of interested individuals. In these cases the methods followed were quite similar. When I read these and at the same time remember that the method of their formulation was practically the same, I wonder why they differ in so many important respects. It may be said that the conditions in the several states concerned demanded different policies, or that there were customs or traditions which could not be obliterated. While these explanations may apply in some cases, they cannot apply in all. I fear that in many cases the policies adopted represent the preponderating views of the framers of the codes, and it may be said that this is, to some extent at least, inevitable. This consideration would lead one to the conclusion that it is hopeless to expect a uniformity in statement or application in respect even to policies in which there should be no variation. It may be said that it does not matter if there is wide difference, but there is actually much error and consequent injury to the schools. When we consider the present rapid progress in the work of the schools, the intense attention which the people are devoting to them, the spirit of inquiry which permeates them, the many thoro and profitable educational investigations which are in progress, is it too much to hope that it will be possible for a body of well-

qualified persons representing the schools and all other important interests, school men and laymen, to create a school code for the states which in general may be considered best for all, and which may make provision for exceptions demanded by local conditions and unalterable customs or traditions?

We are all familiar with the ideal schools and school systems which the imaginations of educational theorists have created, and know how impossible it has been to achieve them practically; but they have served a valuable purpose in furnishing ideals. So also a school code constructed as suggested and embodying the views and reflecting the experience, not of a single individual, but of many, would have the merit of expressing sound educational and public policy, would combine in one performance the labor and expense which otherwise would be duplicated many times, and would furnish an ideal which many might not reach, but which all would strive to approach.

At present there is an unnecessary clashing of interests and opinions. There must be some effective way of reaching correct conclusions in educational matters, of adopting sound policies, of checking up the school man's opinions and conclusions with those of the layman, the man who is directly interested, as parent or employer, in the product of the schools. Just now, where there is collision and controversy, the question is usually, "Who shall determine educational policy?" An unnecessary question! The question ought to be, "How can the efforts of all thoughtful people be so combined as to lead to reliable conclusions?"

THE EDUCATION OF FOREIGNERS FOR AMERICAN CITIZENSHIP

RAYMOND F. CRIST, DEPUTY COMMISSIONER OF NATURALIZATION, BUREAU OF NATURALIZATION, UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR, WASHINGTON, D.C.

You superintendents represent 19 cities, each of over 250,000 population. Your cities contained, at the time of the last census, 4,832,150 foreigners, while in the states including the cities there was a population of 15,561,680. Since that time, 3,000,000 foreigners have taken up permanent residence in this country. The bulk of these foreigners will be found in your cities. From this you can see that the burden of the work, judged by numbers, is upon you. The burden of the work in its complexity, in addition to its numbers, is also upon you. For example, when I learned that in one of the large cities of this country one school district covers 90 square miles; that the people live in vans; that in one school with an annual registration of 4,000 there were more than 4,000 transferees to and out of the school; that it takes hours to go from one part of the school district to another; that even in the largest cities the school authorities are hampered for lack of funds—when I learned these and many other startling facts regarding the conditions under which you are all laboring, and against which you are struggling, I commenced to realize that upon you, in the largest cities, rests the greatest burden. The largest cities, with their inherent power, are really more unprepared to deal with the school problems than many of the smaller cities and towns. For example, the superintendent of schools of a small town was visited by one of our chief examiners, and they discussed this plan of national preparedness. Without any hesitation the superintendent of schools got out into the community and in forty-eight hours had secured an enrolment of over sixty adult foreigners—almost the entire adult foreign population—had obtained the volunteer service of the teachers in sufficient numbers to carry on this work, and funds from private sources to finance the work; and now Gulfport, Miss., is in line with the other 600 cities and towns thruout the country that are teaching citizenship preparedness, while the Bureau of Naturalization is each month sending to them the names of all foreigners who apply for citizenship.

In Clarksburg, W. Va., without any funds, without any teachers, without any specific authority for the opening of night schools, the superintendent, after a conference with one of our chief examiners, started a local campaign, and in an incredibly short time secured

the volunteer teachers, secured the funds, and opened the night schools; and now the night schools for adult foreigners in that city are working full blast teaching citizenship preparedness. They also, under the plan of the Bureau of Naturalization, have secured the attendance of the immigrants who are not candidates for citizenship.

These things may be done in the smaller cities, but for you—you in the larger cities—your position is thoroly understood by us in the federal government. The national government can do all things incumbent upon it; but, when the time comes to do an individual thing, it is never accomplished except by the hardest struggles and fights, and most complete mastery of every detail of it. Congress opposes us until we show absolute gilt-edge cause for an appropriation to be made, and so it is with you. You are part of a tremendous municipal organization. You may have to show two hundred cents of returns for every dollar that you get. You are not contractors for, or builders of, public buildings; you are not those who can display, as the result of their efforts, public monuments. You belong to that underpaid, overworked, most intelligent, loyal, and faithful body of men and women who are striving to build ideals, intangible, indefinite, but nevertheless personal, ideals. Your results, tho not as visible as the city skyscrapers, are, nevertheless, far more forceful in maintaining the integrity of our social, political, moral, and industrial fabric.

A call has been made from various parts of the country for contributions from the government to maintain this work. While I have not given much thought to this, it occurs to me that if there should be any financial relief afforded it should be to the large cities. First, in your cities the foreign element is a menace. Vice grows up in its midst. There the influences of foreign sovereignties, institutions, ideas, and ideals are strongest. Hence, I say, any governmental aid should first be directed to the large centers which are teeming with foreign population.

You have 4,832,150 of the total foreign population. Generally speaking, 80 per cent of the students in the foreign classes owe no allegiance to this country. We have been advised that, of the 4,000 enrolled in this city of Detroit, 95 per cent are non-citizens. The greatest work that you can do in citizenship preparedness is to enlarge the intellectual capacity of these foreigners, and give them a better understanding of our institutions; in this way you will arouse in them a desire for American citizenship to such an extent that they will come forward and make their applications.

The course in citizenship which the Bureau of Naturalization has placed in the hands of each school teacher in the United States, where it has been possible to do so, has been prepared largely by you indirectly, but directly in the Bureau of Naturalization on the basis of your written reports of the work and of the courses of instruction which you have been giving to the foreigners for years past. It is intended to give to each individual foreigner a most intimate understanding of our government.

Your teachers will tell you that each foreigner is intensely eager to learn everything and anything about America. You should have your teachers discuss citizenship. Bring it into the limelight of the public-school curriculum. Keep it ever before the student body. Let them understand that the teacher is ready at any moment to assist the foreigner who desires aid in filling out his preliminary naturalization papers.

The bureau has furnished a syllabus of the naturalization law to each school teacher wherever it knows that a foreign class exists. It has also furnished them with the preliminary naturalization forms. Now we want you to see to it that all teachers who have failed to receive these forms are supplied with them. We want you to get into this work and arouse their interest to the utmost.

From one of the cities represented here today, word came to the Bureau of Naturalization that co-operation would be deferred until next year. After a conference with one of the representatives of the Bureau of Naturalization, however, the superintendent of schools agreed to co-operate immediately, and the newspaper reports received from that city show that over 5,000 foreigners are enrolled in its citizenship classes. What has been

done in one city can be done in all cities, if the same interest, the same determination, the same farsighted vision actuates you.

Superintendent Roberts, of Chicago, who is here today, recently stated that the greatest difficulty in dealing with the education of adult foreigners was to get them into the schools. Let me strongly emphasize the advantage to be gained from the free use of the student body in bringing into the night classes their compatriots and friends. Here the common bond of one tongue will be found most effective and efficient. Thru them the candidates for citizenship who do not respond because of timidity, diffidence, ignorance, and other reasons leading them to ignore the call of the United States government upon them for their betterment, may be reached. Not only may they be reached by the method outlined, but also the immigrant who never has heretofore been reached by any concerted action upon the part of the public-school authorities.

The Bureau of Naturalization sends the names of candidates for citizenship, upon individual cards, to the superintendents of schools in every city and town co-operating with it. At the same time, it sends a personally addressed letter to each candidate and another to his wife, whose name has also been sent to the school authorities on a separate card. The face of the card affords an opportunity for an educational rating for the use of the Bureau of Naturalization as well as for the public schools, and spaces are provided for information with regard to the candidate and his wife. The card [shown below] will be seen upon examination to afford a complete means for a full record regarding each candidate.

NATURALIZATION EDUCATIONAL RECORD

Form Nat. Ed. 1

United States Department of Labor
Bureau of Naturalization

(City)

(Name of School)

Name..... Age.....
Residence..... Arrived in U.S.....
Occupation..... Nationalty..... Decln. of Int.....

SCHOOL RECORD

Date of school entrance { 1st year..... Length of attendance { 1st year..... nights
2d year..... 2d year..... nights
Name of wife.....

EDUCATIONAL RATING OF DECLARANT

At Entrance—		At Entrance	End of 1st Year	End of 2d Year
Illiterate..... Yes No	Speaks English (See note)			
Reads in native lan- guage..... Yes No	Reads English (See note)			
Writes in native lan- guage..... Yes No	Writes English (See note)			

Previous education.....

NOTE.—Show Well = W., Fair = F., Poor = P., None = N.

When the cards are received from the Bureau of Naturalization, they should be distributed according to the addresses which they show to the local buildings in the most appropriate way, according to the local conditions. When received in the school buildings, they should be circulated thru the classrooms until each teacher has taken all of the cards which relate to the students in his class. The names on the remaining cards will

be those of the candidates for citizenship who have failed to respond to the call made to them by the United States government to go to school. They should be read to the student body, the names of acquaintances assigned to the various members, and assignments made by nationalities of the remaining names. The teachers should inspire the students in their classes with enthusiasm in securing the attendance of their friends and compatriots whose names are upon the cards. They should also be inspired to bring in their friends of the immigrant body who do not come forward either for citizenship or for education. By following out this system persistently to the last analysis, the contact and the influence for good of the public schools will be broadened in a way never heretofore felt, and extended into a field never before entered.

The public schools in the large cities generally run not more than nine months in the year. The Bureau of Naturalization believes that the highest co-operation with the public schools only can be obtained when the schools remain open the year round. Superintendent Condon, of Cincinnati, told me recently that the public schools under his supervision would maintain citizenship classes thruout the year.

The citizenship classes are the ones in which the Bureau of Naturalization is, of course, primarily interested. The Bureau contains experts on all citizenship matters. It is the duly constituted authority upon these matters, by act of Congress. It has been called upon by the superintendents of schools, including those of the largest cities, to prepare a course, and take the lead in this citizenship educational work. I have personally had this appeal made to me in various parts of the country by superintendents of schools in the largest cities.

We do not intend to become educators ourselves, for that is a task which is well placed with the public schools of the entire country. But we are offering the support of the national government, and its expert knowledge and acquaintance with the foreign elements of the country, as it relates to citizenship. The Department of Labor and the Bureau of Immigration, with its thoro familiarity with and authority in all matters relating to the immigrant, offers this aid likewise.

This is a gigantic task, but it can be accomplished, and accomplished in accordance with the highest expectations, if we secure your co-operation. It can be extended and should be extended into the day work in the upper-grade schools and the high schools, so that the native-born Americans may be given an opportunity, for the first time in the history of the country, to receive training in that highest of all professions, the profession of self-government. As you well know, all other professions open to men and women have been given the best consideration in training that it is possible for the best minds to produce; but it remains for you of the public schools of the entire country to co-operate with the United States government in perfecting a training for this great profession and calling of self-government.

The course which the Bureau of Naturalization has submitted to you is admitted to have imperfections. It is open to criticism. We desire and want your criticism. We want the best results to be obtained. We want you to apply it thoroly in the public schools under your supervision, and then we wish to have the benefit of your experience in constructive criticism of it. It is new in its application to the adult. It comes from the United States government to you. You have been asking for governmental help. It is offered to you, and the subject of which it treats is indeed well worth while.

We are planning to hold a convention of you superintendents, officers, and teachers of the public schools, not only from the largest cities but from all of the cities and towns where the public schools are co-operating with the national government. We expect to have this convention in Washington during the week immediately following the National Education Association convention in New York. The great purpose of this convention is to afford you an opportunity to perfect a textbook for the use of the student body and, if the plans of the Bureau of Naturalization carry, it will present a copy of this book to each alien student who is a candidate for citizenship and attends the public schools.

ROUND TABLE OF SUPERINTENDENTS OF CITIES WITH A POPULATION BETWEEN 25,000 AND 250,000

COMMUNITY ACTIVITIES AS A MEANS OF MOTIVATION

FRED M. HUNTER, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, LINCOLN, NEBR.

Dr. Ayres says that the mortality from the ninth grade to the twelfth grade in 386 cities of the country averages over 70 per cent, that for every 1,000 pupils entering, 56 complete the prescribed course of the school system. The survey of the Massachusetts Industrial Commission concluded that over 70 per cent of those who leave school at an early age in the industrial cities of Massachusetts do so because of indifference toward school and not because of poverty or economic necessity. Alice P. Burrows finds, in a survey made in the Borough of Manhattan, below Fourteenth Street, of the families of children leaving school at an early age, that 67 per cent leave because of dislike of school, not because of poverty. It is evident that some unit of the school organization must adapt itself to bring the new generation of each needy group to the fullest and best ideals of American life and citizenship. This is the meaning of the revolution taking place before our very eyes. Why the establishment of an elaborate and expensive system of industrial education? Why the growth of those testing laboratories of taste and inclination—the prevocational groups and schools? Why a system of vocational guidance? Why special treatment for the subnormals and retarded? Why systems of double promotion and varying rates of progress from class to class, breaking up the old lockstep system? Why differentiated courses and special schools? All because the doctrine of social service is becoming the underlying principle of our educational philosophy.

The question is clearly before the classroom teacher. There is a creed of service—let me give it in the words of the great Dewey:

I believe that all education proceeds by participation of the individual in the social consciousness of the race.

I believe that the only true education comes thru the stimulation of the child's powers by the demands of the social situations in which he finds himself.

I believe that the school must represent present life—life as real and vital to the child as that which he carries on in his home, in the neighborhood, or on the playground.

I believe that, education being a social process, the school is simply that form of community life in which all those agencies are concentrated that will be most effective in bringing the child to share in the inherited resources of the race and to use his own powers for social ends.

The apostle of this creed measures success by asking: "How much do I know about this group of children? What are their physical characteristics, home environment, and social inheritance? What are their previous records and natural tendencies? How can I make the school of most service to them? What can I do that I have not done that will bring out the best there is in them and lead them to be efficient men and women?"

The adoption by the classroom teacher of this socialized creed means the socialization of the classroom processes. The over-activity and over-talkativeness of the teacher is no longer the chief stimulus to individual growth. The skill of the teacher shows itself rather in the resourceful guidance of a group of minds actively engaged in solving a real life-problem; in directing these minds in research and the collection of data; in leading their criticism of one another to correct estimation of values, and to formation of sound judgments and conclusions. The major activity of the classroom becomes an interplay of the minds of the pupils, instead of a stereotyped test of memory of subject-matter, with the predominant initiative and activity on the part of the teacher. A belief in the creed of service and its adoption by the teacher is synonymous with the socialization of the classroom process.

The life of any community is teeming with activities about which children think, talk, and form conclusions in their life outside of the schoolroom. They use their own initiative in handling such problems as apply to their own welfare or happiness; their estimate of values and their judgments are truly their own. Thus practice which later life demands as a preparation for its weightier questions is furnished.

Dr. Dewey tells of a swimming-school in which the pupils learned the process by going thru the motions of swimming in a perfect manner. A graduate of this school was asked what he did when he got into the water. His laconic reply was "Sunk." If we are to do more than the swimming instructor, our classrooms must come to represent something more than they ever have in the past. They must use as the chief material of instruction the problems of real community life which surround the school on every side. The real basis of instruction must be participation in these activities. Thinking as it is done in later life must be begun in the schoolroom in the consideration of these problems and activities; in collection and organization of data upon phases of them; in the choice of the real values to be used in their solution; and in the formation of right conclusions concerning them. The formal subject-matter must have only an incidental relationship to this main end; it must be used as a factor and an active aid in the process, but it can never take a real place as a fundamental factor if it is regarded as merely a store of information laid up for future use.

Two types of motivation problems should enter prominently into our classroom activities: first, those which have to do directly with the life and career of the individual child; second, those which have to do with the co-operation of a large number of children thinking, acting, and working out their ideals in a group.

The proper use of the first type of problem derived from outside life constitutes vocational or educational guidance; the second, training for citizenship. No schoolroom, no school system, can realize the modern ideal of service, can apply the Christian doctrine of the Good Samaritan, without the universal use of both.

Let me suggest a few examples of the way in which motivation has affected the individual child. The following paragraph is a sample written in connection with the daily practice paragraph writing in English composition by a sixth-grade boy, the son of a Russo-German barkeeper. The study of the businesses of the town surrounding his school community inspired the ideal expressed by this boy.

MY AIM

My aim for the future is to have a business some day and to be useful to my city. Therefore, I am trying to prepare for that now. That is what everybody should aim for. One should know how to handle his business. This comes only in one's school days—youth's precious days—and everybody can get a good education, become well trained, and become a reliable man some day.

As an example of English expression, this does not rate exactly as a classic, but it does represent a type of vital stimulation of thought which in this particular case resulted in this boy's remaining in school for a high-school career. He is now working his way thru the high school, and bids fair, as he says in his paragraph, to become useful to his city some day.

Listen to this paragraph from a thirteen-year-old girl in the seventh grade, who has been thinking along right lines without the slightest suggestion of squeamish sentimentalism:

WHAT I WANT TO BE WHEN I AM A WOMAN

When I become a woman, I want to be a housewife. I have two main reasons. First, I love a home and enjoy caring for one; second, I enjoy children and also like to care for them.

This sort of motivation from one of the great and vital activities of life is surely worthy of a place in our schoolrooms.

Here is one from an eighth-grade boy, to whom a profession has become an object of serious thought.:

MY VOCATION

I think I would like to be a doctor so I could help other people. I would work so people thought my work was worth what I asked for it. In this way I think a person could be a good citizen and serve his country. There is much suffering because people have not the money to spend. In this case, I would follow my grandfather's idea and treat them for nothing. He never became rich, but everybody loved him. Love is better than riches.

What a world of possibilities presents itself to the social-minded teacher in the transcription of this little oral composition given by a twelve-year-old boy in an English class of a prevocational school in a city with a well-developed system of motivation.

THE FIRST MONEY I EVER EARNED

About seven years ago my father was an engineer on the railroad. One night in a fierce snowstorm, he ran his train into another train and killed a man. They said that he was not guilty because it was not his fault. He felt so bad and it worried him so that he gave up his job. He bought a ten-acre tract of land and we raised vegetables. In about two years, my father died. Mother says he died of a broken heart. After this my mother, my little sister, and I worked very hard to raise the vegetables and my biggest brother peddled them. One evening mother called us all to her and told us we would have to give up the place and do something else as we could not go to school and keep up the place. She said we had best sell and go downtown. We bought a home and mother takes in washing and we children help her all we can.

Last fall at fair time, as I was passing the fair grounds, I thought maybe if I asked the manager for a job he would give me one. So I did. He told me to come the next morning. I worked all week and made ten dollars. That was the first money I ever earned. I bought these clothes and my books and gave the little I had left to mother.

I want to grow up to be an honest man. I want to earn enough to make me comfortable but not enough to make me unhappy. I would like to be an engineer, but every time I mention it mother cries so I do not know for sure what I will do.

Would it be safe to guess that a boy with an ideal of this kind would become a worthy citizen? Do you think it would be safe to risk this boy, grown to manhood, as a neighbor and fellow-townsmen?

In our town group-motivation has taken place largely thru two general methods of attack: first, thru some project undertaken in the classrooms of the junior-high-school organization; second, thru external organizations having to do with all of the schools of the city. The classroom-project type of motivation is well represented by this paragraph upon arithmetic work and its relation to other subjects by an eighth-grade girl of one of our schools. This school is located near a large addition to the city of Lincoln recently platted and sold by real-estate promoters. The project was inspired by a visit of the class to this rapidly growing portion of the town.

A new and practical plan has been developed in the arithmetic class of the Eighth A under the direction of Miss Cooley and continued with Miss Snyder. The work is that of planning and building our own homes.

The first step of the work was that of choosing the lot and finding out the cost of it. The size suggested by the teacher was 100 feet by 150 feet. In the English class, compositions were written on the subjects: "Why I Chose This Lot," and "Facts to Consider When Choosing a Lot."

The second step was making or copying plans for the house and "lot arrangement." At the same time a composition was written about "The Value of Landscape Gardening," which showed the advantage of planning the arrangement of the lot compared with that of arranging the lot with little thought.

In the art class, the floor and side elevations will be made in the blueprint and the interior elevations will be in water colors.

When the Eighth A's were figuring on excavation in the arithmetic class, the principal and the pupils visited a new building near the school where the excavation had just been completed. It was there the less important facts were acquired about the construction of homes.

The next step was the finding of pictures to illustrate the yard and interior views.

When the plans are finished, all compositions completed, and the cost of all estimated, these articles will be put in book form, thus giving a complete semester's work in the arithmetic class.

This class is the first to start such a practical plan which is believed will help the men and women of tomorrow in their home-building problems.

The other type of motivation is represented by our school- and home-garden activities. Spring and summer gardening offer an endless resource, not only for the classroom but for a multitude of educational activities outside of the classroom. The system which has developed with us has included community gardens in eight of our schools and some 1,000 to 1,200 home gardens constructed by the pupils. The stimulus of this sort of motivation is shown by the group earnings at various occupations during the past summer in eight of these schools:

Schools	Grades	Earnings
1.....	4 - 8	\$2,284.49
2.....	5 - 8	105.63
3.....	4 - 8	3,454.42
4.....	3 - 8	2,700.83
5.....	4 - 8	1,027.45
6.....	6 - 8	3,582.82
7.....	4 - 8	5,184.32
8.....	4 - 8	2,046.58
Total.....		\$21,385.54

The more pronounced contribution, however, to our motivation has been our Junior Civic and Industrial League, which was organized February 5, 1914, in accordance with a report submitted by a special committee appointed by the Board of Directors of the Lincoln Commercial Club.

Each school having grades above the fifth has a club. All of these clubs constitute the league.

The purposes of the organization are : (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.

Any boy in the fifth grade or above may become a member of the club in his school upon committing to memory and reciting 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. Thus 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.

Each Thursday morning at 9:30, some one of the clubs holds a half-hour meeting at the Commercial Club rooms. Such topics as "The Clean-up Campaign," "Playgrounds," and other movements of public interest were taken up and supported by the various clubs during the past year. Fifteen of the prominent business and professional men have addressed the boys at these meetings. The character of the talks is indicated by the following list of topics:

1. What constitutes a good citizen?
2. How boys may become good citizens.
3. How boys may help to make the city better, more beautiful, and more prosperous.

4. Necessity for some useful work.
5. Respect for hard and useful work.
6. Opportunity for boys in his (this particular business man's) line of business.
7. What this line of business requires in the way of preparation.
8. How to go about preparing specifically for this line of work.

During the school year, the various clubs of the league made 122 visits to 36 of Lincoln's business houses and civic institutions. These visits were distributed as follows:

State Capitol (sessions of state legislature).....	12 visits
Post-office	5
Court House.....	4
City Hall.....	3
Fire Department.....	2
University Farm.....	5
University Museum.....	2
United States Weather Bureau.....	1
Nebraska Daily State Journal Office.....	8
Lincoln Daily Star Office.....	1
Lincoln Telephone Company.....	9
First National Bank.....	7
Lincoln Safe Deposit Company (Lincoln Clearing House).....	1
Bankers Life Insurance Company.....	2
Cushman Motor Works.....	9
Havelock Railroad Shops.....	7
Lee Broom and Duster Company.....	3
Harpham Brothers Company.....	3
International Harvester Company.....	6
Enterprise Planing Mill Company.....	1
Lincoln Flour Mills.....	2
Gooch Milling Company.....	4
Lincoln Packing Company.....	3
H. P. Lau, wholesale grocery.....	3
Curtis, Towle & Paine factory.....	1
Beatrice Creamery Company.....	4
Roberts Dairy Company.....	4
Woodruff Bank Note Company.....	2
Western Glass and Paint Company.....	1
Jacob North & Company.....	1
Nebraska Buick Auto Company.....	1
Van Sickie Glass and Paint Company.....	1
Lincoln Paint and Color Company.....	1
Lincoln Box Factory.....	1
Capitol Grocery.....	1
Lincoln Hotel.....	1
Total.....	122

Membership in the various clubs of the league was as follows for 1914-15:

Bancroft.....	84
Belmont.....	20
Bryant.....	97
Capitol.....	120
Clinton.....	118
Elliott.....	159
Everett.....	78
Hawthorne.....	20
Hayward.....	76
High School.....	324
McKinley.....	67
Park.....	106
Prescott.....	126
Saratoga.....	72
Whittier.....	116
Total.....	1,583

An organization among the girls similar to that of the boys held its meetings at the city Y.W.C.A. The membership of the girls' league was 1,474. Their visits to civic and industrial institutions numbered 105, distributed like the visits of the boys.

The projects undertaken by the clubs of these two leagues afforded genuine practice of the philosophy of good citizenship. During clean-up week the work of the Woman's Club, Commercial Club, and City Health Department committees was based upon a survey of the city made by the members of these leagues. Many of the unsightly and ill-kept places of the city were cleaned up as a result of the work and the recommendations of these boys and girls.

THE EFFICIENCY LIST

The Lincoln Commercial Club, under the leadership of Secretary W. S. Whitten, and President C. C. Quiggle, (1913-14), H. K. Burket (1914-15), and Frank Richards (1915-16), has not only fathered and promoted the Junior Civic and Industrial League, but has instituted within that organization a system of recognizing and rewarding merit in boyish education and accomplishment. Early in the year the following letter was sent to the business men of the city:

LINCOLN, NEBRASKA

December 26, 1914

Mr. John Smith,

Lincoln, Nebraska

DEAR MR. SMITH: As an employer of young men, you are interested in securing those who can make themselves of most value to you and your business or profession. It is likewise of vital interest not only to such young men themselves but to the city as a whole that they be able to give the best possible service to their employers and prepare themselves for continued efficiency and promotion.

There are in our schools many young men who must begin work at an early age. It is the purpose of the public schools in connection with the Lincoln Commercial Club to keep a permanent "Efficiency List" of such of these young men as may be able to reach a definite standard of reliability and efficiency. The list will be always available and will be sent from time to time to any business or professional man who desires it. Only such boys as have on their merits shown the following qualifications are placed on the list:

1. An age of fourteen years
2. Good Character

As shown by:

- a) Truthfulness
- b) Obedience
- c) Industry
- d) Good Habits

Note:—No boy shall be eligible who smokes or drinks. If a boy has been a smoker, he shall show by a year's abstinence from this habit that he has permanently given it up.

3. Knowledge of Lincoln and Nebraska.
As shown by his ability to pass with a standing of 90 per cent a test given upon Lincoln and Nebraska.
4. Ability to write a good business letter of one ordinary page in legible hand without error in spelling.
5. Ability to express himself in courteous yet concise and businesslike terms to his employer and business associates.
6. Ability to perform the four fundamental operations and simple fractions in arithmetic with speed and accuracy.

We trust such a recommendation as this efficiency list contemplates will be of service to you, for it is the desire of both the Commercial Club and the schools to be of the broadest possible usefulness to the community which supports them.

If you have suggestions as to the qualifications to be desired in young men whom you employ, they will be very highly appreciated if sent to either the secretary of the Commercial Club or to the superintendent of schools.

Most respectfully yours,

[Signed by the Secretary of the Commercial
Club and the Superintendent of Schools.]

Members of the League who qualified by the end of the school year and were recommended as indicated in the above letter were placed on the "Efficiency List" of the Lincoln Commercial Club and this list was sent to all large employers at the opening of the summer vacation. These boys were likewise given an "Efficiency Certificate" by Secretary Whitten of the Commercial Club as evidence of their qualifications.

TEACHING TENURE

JOHN F. KEATING, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, PUEBLO, COLO.

The problem of the tenure of teachers, principals, and superintendents is not new in the educational world, but it is an increasingly vital problem awaiting solution.

The ways and means, or methods, of securing permanency of tenure are matters of detail to be worked out thru committees or groups of educational and business experts. What is first needed is a nation-wide appreciation of the wastefulness of the present method of "hiring and firing" teachers, principals, and superintendents, and a realization that there must be found a way of eliminating this waste.

It may be urged that these wasteful methods are necessary in a democracy. They may have been unavoidable in the beginnings of our democracy, but the perpetuity of all that is best in the institutions of our democracy will depend upon the substituting of refined and efficient methods for the crude and wasteful ones. This should be and I believe now is in a large measure the tendency in our whole national life.

Already in a few of the large cities permanency of tenure for teachers and principals is an established fact, and for superintendents has become almost established. Also in a few states of the Union the state department of public instruction has been taken out of politics. The former crude and thriftless method is no longer followed, but men of experience, training, and known fitness are appointed to the headship of the state's educational interests, and greater permanency, conditioned only on good behavior and efficient service, is assured these men. The success of this plan must ultimately commend it to all states.

It is not in the province of this paper to discuss tenure of state superintendents, but is not the question pertinent by way of illustration? Of what possible advantage can it be to the schools of any state to elect every two or even four years a new and untried man in the place of the one who has mastered the situation and has reached the place of high efficiency in his work? Why retire this efficient public servant in so vital a field as education, just when he has really become useful? Undoubtedly in our democracy there must be some place left for the battledore and shuttlecock of politics, but God forbid that it continue in our schools, where it can be most harmful and least helpful.

In the election of city superintendents, there seems to be a relation between the manner of selecting them and permanency of tenure. There is the hit-or-miss manner of choosing a superintendent. Neither educational nor professional standards are employed by the board in making its selection. Board members are not in the nature of things experts in things educational, but they are intensely practical, and they choose by the standards they know—personal impressions made by the candidate, the weight of some influential citizen who may or may not have a personal axe to grind. All this because we, as educators, have not yet worked out a series of standards or norms that would serve

to assist boards in determining the fitness of the candidate for the place. In these days of measurements and surveys these are being worked out, and the future is bright with hope.

Probably the most used method is known as the "trial and failure method." This is in the absence of guiding standards. The board decides to elect for a year on trial. As a rule this probation is too short and failure to satisfy the board or the community is invited. The selecting for short periods is a prominent cause of uncertainty of tenure for superintendents. Hence in the smaller cities we see a veritable procession of superintendents. They scarcely dare unpack their trunks. Indeed, the wise ones keep their trunks packed and checked, ready to move on at a moment's notice.

As an illustration of the prevalence of short tenure among superintendents, the state of Michigan is as nearly typical as any. As reported to the Bureau of Education, Michigan had, in 1913, 51 cities with between 4,000 and 25,000 inhabitants. In these 51 superintendencies, 25 superintendents served less than 5 years; 39, or 76 per cent, out of 51 were elected for one-year terms.

With the exercise of greater care in selecting these officials, there would be little reason for removal. The fact that teachers, principals, and superintendents can be so easily removed creates a feeling of unrest in a community and a wish at the first criticism to remedy the situation by a change. Permanent tenure for an average teacher, principal, or superintendent is better for the schools than the hazards of frequent changes. Difficulty of removal would throw on the board and community the necessity of co-operating with the school management.

In any discussion of teacher tenure, the story of the progress of civil service in the administering of many of the most vital departments of our national government is most interesting and enlightening. So successfully has the civil-service plan worked that no political party hoping to gain control of the government dares advocate in its platform a return to the spoils system. Yet there was a time when a national election meant an almost complete change of federal officials. The practical sense of the American people rescued the government from much of this folly and consequent inefficiency. Why in the name of the interests of the school children of America should their teacher, principal, or superintendent be more affected by a spring school election than is a letter-carrier by a national election?

It should not be possible for a board of education to dismiss for other than well-defined reasons, and not then until the superintendent has had due notice, and has had an opportunity to appeal his case to an impartial board or committee on the matter. This, I am aware, deprives the employing board of the power to discharge a superintendent, but as we are now organized it should be deprived of this power.

When there have been worked out standards of efficiency for superintendents, whereby boards may be guided, and possibly a legalized system of demerits, as in the civil service of the government, the power to discharge may be restored to the board with these legal safeguards.

But you say this is not Germany, this is not France, this is democratic America, and such methods are impracticable. Are they? Did not a great state university recently decide that it would not again discharge a member of its faculty thru its board of regents acting alone? That board in its own defense has seen fit to have the university faculty assist in determining whether a professor shall be discharged or not. Even our great corporations are taking advanced ground. In some of our great industrial plants the "straw boss" or foreman cannot summarily discharge a workman. The workman has the right to appeal. Of course many of the changes annually occurring in superintendencies in smaller cities are due to small salaries and the desire of the superintendents to better their condition.

These small salaries in turn are often due to the feeling on the part of the board members that by letting the present incumbent go out, no matter how efficient he is, they

can secure a new man at a lower salary for the first year and so establish for themselves, among the taxpayers, a reputation for money-saving.

Again, many superintendents leave because of the feeling of unrest, due to the lack of appreciation for their services and the possibility of being dismissed thru a mere whim of the board or thru the political connivance of a disgruntled minority. The superintendent's first term should be for three years, probation years. During this time he should be rigidly tested, his work surveyed by experts, and, if he makes good, he should then be given an indeterminate contract, with reasonable hope of increased remuneration for efficient service, to the full ability of the district to pay. Then will superintendents cease to be birds of passage, restless not so much because of larger pay and wider fields ahead, but because of the uncertainty of their present positions.

As a concrete illustration of how school politics works, I know and you know a city of between 25,000 and 250,000 inhabitants—and the city I know may or may not be the city you know—where within the last year or two, owing to school politics, the city and the school system have been turned topsy-turvy by a spring school election. The newly elected board members felt that they had a commission straight from the people to reform at one fell swoop the imperfections and shortcomings of the city's schools. The board proceeded almost immediately to dismiss teachers, principals, and even the superintendent, without warning, without any plan of co-operation for the making of efficient public servants out of these teachers. The teachers were not warned, and were not given an opportunity to offer a defense or a chance to make good. We are better organized in behalf of our criminals than we are in behalf of our teachers. We will give the average criminal another chance. I submit that what occurred in this city was unethical, unbusinesslike, even brutal. Please understand that I do not condemn the board members as individuals. They are gentlemen by nature and training, courteous, honest, and kind, and among their neighbors have a reputation for sincerity and fairness. That is, they did have before they were elected to the board of education. The fault lies largely in the system. Boards, like the teachers, are at the mercy of the system. Politics and personal favoritism had undoubtedly been at work in the schools before their election, and no machinery had been provided for the standardizing of the schools and the measuring of teaching and inspectional efficiency. Teachers had been appointed by pull. Why not discharge them in due and ancient form?

Such things will not happen when we have thoroly systematized our school administration and have made legal the custom of selecting one head for the school system and holding him responsible for the work of the schools; when he is directed by order of the board of education to appoint all principals, teachers, janitors, and engineers, with authority to see that each employee lives up to the established standards of service. And they will live up to them when they know that politics has been eliminated, that pull counts for nothing, and that a trained and competent superintendent is the real executive head of the schools.

Keeping up the efficiency of teachers in service is a real problem. Many efforts have been made to solve it, with many consequent partial failures. But a long step will be taken towards its solution when boards of education generally take the position of the San Antonio board in stating clearly the board's relation to the superintendent:

Teachers, once you have been elected by us, our direct relation with you as teachers ceases to exist. Whatever we have to say in regard to your work will be said thru the superintendent; and whatever you have to say to us in this same regard should go thru the same channel.

Thus far in this discussion reference has been chiefly to tenure of superintendents and principals, while little has been said except by implication in regard to the tenure of teachers. Little will need to be said when superintendents and principals against whom the political winds beat hardest are assured permanency of tenure. Permanency of tenure at the top will make for permanency of tenure thruout the system.

When boards of education can by law insure permanency of tenure to the superintendent and clearly define his powers and duties, the efficient, growing teacher, nominated and practically appointed by the superintendent (in an organized city system of schools the board should never nominate teachers) will be secure in her position. She will have increased pride in her work as she realizes that she holds her position thru efficient service and not thru personal, social, religious, racial, fraternal, or political pull.

I am aware that in that most excellent report, the *Portland Survey*, criticism is made of the law making it difficult to dismiss teachers even for inefficiency and failure to grow. It is indicated in that report that some of the poor teaching in that city is due to the feeling of security of tenure on the part of some teachers. No doubt the law, arising in the manner that it did, established while the schools were in the condition shown in the report, should be repealed, or, better, amended. Apparently either no standards or very low standards had been established in these schools for the measuring of the teachers' work.

That permanency of tenure and feeling of security are the sole or impelling causes of inefficiency among teachers is difficult to believe. Permanency of tenure in our great and truly beneficial postal system has made for efficiency. Has the fact that the federal Supreme Court appointments are for life in any wise impaired the efficiency of that tribunal? The contrary is true. Fearlessly does this court render its decisions and the nation uncomplainingly abides by its verdicts. Will all this not be true of the teacher when she is as carefully selected and as favorably environed as these?

A STUDY OF DEVIATE CHILDREN—THE PROBLEM OF DELINQUENCY AND SUBNORMALITY

C. EDWARD JONES, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, ALBANY, N.Y.

To what extent has the feeble-minded pupil been recognized as a part of the school system? No one doubts his existence, not as a rare specimen, but as a part of the community; whether he be 2, 4, or 6 per cent of that community matters little. Investigators read of him, psychiatrists classify him, and legislatures pass laws in regard to his segregation into classes for instruction. So beneficial has it been to the school and to the community to be free of him that comparatively little attention has been given to him as an individual member of society, or to his possible specific function in society. The superintendent of schools must recognize him, however, not as an evil of which he is freed by placement in special classes, but as an individual for whom he must provide in school, whom he must recognize and prepare for life with the same sincerity as that with which he meets his grade, his high-school, or vocational classes.

This must be done from two standpoints—conduct and scholarship. For several years in the city of Albany we have maintained a truant school. The regulation was that a delinquent or incorrigible should be committed to such an institution for fifty days. If his conduct there was good he was returned to his grade, and if he again transgressed he was committed for another fifty days. At the end of this period, he was again sent back to the grades. If for the third time he was in trouble, he was committed to an institution. That is, the truant school was regarded as a place of punishment for incipient criminals—practically the same plan as that followed in police courts in the case of minor offenses. What saved the school was the humane and intelligent instruction given therein, for, without theory, the instructor realized the needs of this class.

Some two years ago we submitted to the Binet tests all of the pupils of this school, with the following result: 9 per cent were found to be imbecile cases; 46 moron; 30 borderline; 1 epileptic delinquent; 1 backward boy with no delinquent tendencies evident; and 13 backward delinquents.

So much for the mental condition. In addition to that we found in regard to the family relationships that while 40 per cent had not had relatives in this school, 44 had had at least one relative and sixteen more than one. Therefore, 60 per cent had had one or more relatives in this school. Had the school been running longer this ratio would probably have been materially increased.

Then, to extend the investigation beyond our own administration, the test was applied to some fifty girls in a house of detention, with the result that nearly all of them were found to be either borderline cases or actually feeble-minded. This is in accord with the results of tests in the Hudson Training School, an institution for delinquent girls, also with those of the investigation of Bluemel in regard to the girls of the State Industrial School of Colorado, whom he finds to average four and a half years retarded.

This gave us the basis for our conclusion that delinquency, truancy, and feeble-mindedness were closely related. In the meantime, we had organized special classes for our sub-normals in several schools, but entirely separate from the truant school. After this investigation, we began to organize our work with this as a basis—that all of these are but different phases of the same problem of deviate cases. Delinquents and sub-normals were sent to the class where they could be helped the most, and in no case were they sent for a definite period. In a large proportion, possibly 90 per cent, of the cases of serious discipline in school, mental retardation is present. It may be the girl of sixteen with the mentality of ten years, struggling with the desires of the adolescent; it may be the boy of twelve who stopped growing at eight years of age; or the more serious case of the boy of sixteen or over who knows no mental experience beyond that of eleven years. Dr. Goddard, in his recent book, *The Criminal Imbecile*, has shown this to be one of the most serious types; from it may develop the insane lover, the docile dupe of the intelligent leader, the brutal criminal, or, in the case of girls, almost inevitably the immoral woman. None of this is new to the institution worker, and, while it has been theoretically recognized, it has as yet in few cases been seriously acted upon by school authorities.

This brings us to the conviction that the purposes and character of discipline must be radically changed. Its primary purpose in school is no longer to punish the individual, nor even to set an example for society; but the problem is one of finding the activity fitted to train this individual who is mentally dwarfed and retarded. This brings us then to the actual consideration of school work. It is not enough that these feeble-minded and delinquents be segregated and placed in the special class, where special class means the ungraded dump for the schools of a particular section: but these unfortunates, these children of the one talent, require expert grading. This does not mean that the class teacher is, or in any probability every will be, fitted to do this work. It requires the skill and experience of a highly trained specialist. One serious reason for the failure or indifferent success of these classes has been the fact that the so-called grading has been done by those who know practically nothing of the underlying principles that govern it. Then we must realize that not only are these pupils below age, but also that their bodies and minds are not of the same maturity, that in almost every case the mental age is permanent, and that at that age they must be prepared for life. In this connection the recent article by C. S. Bluemel on the Binet tests applied to juvenile court delinquents in Denver is particularly interesting. He finds that the older the child, the greater is the retardation.

In regard to the book work, the teachers must be taught to recognize definitely that it is useless to force a child mentally five years old to read, and that if he is only ten years old technical grammar and advanced arithmetic are impossibilities. But the book work is not the most difficult problem, provided we actually recognize the age limit. It is on the side of manual training that the resources of an educational system will be most severely taxed. This work must be selected and graded with all the skill that experience can command. There is a place for book work, but it must be determined by the age of the pupil. What can we teach the boy who will always be five or even ten years of age? It must be simply rough shopwork under direction, or for the girl the most

elementary work about the house. And even the eleven-year-old, while he may do some skilful work, it must always be under supervision.

When as superintendents we recognize and do our duty as such, we realize that the larger part of the work is still left undone. In most of our cities, even with compulsory education, these boys and girls leave us as soon as the law permits. It is sad that the law permits this class of people to commit crime and then punishes them for it. In morality as in material things, the ounce of prevention is of value. Here our duty to society beyond that of our profession begins. The state has provided for its insane and for its criminal classes, yet it waits till these classes are produced. It is a higher duty, and one that demands the intelligence and help of every man knowing the problem, as far as possible to provide for the restraint and to prevent the reproduction of these classes. At the present time, it is an established fact that 85 per cent of the feeble-minded are at large in society. Only the lowest-grade cases are confined, and these because of their very nature are the least harmful. The greater number are still free in the community, debased and debasing society. Of far more danger is the adult of only eleven years who may be led into crime, the deluded youth seeking revenge upon some innocent woman, or the girl coming inevitably into a life of vice. These are the ones who for society's sake need care and supervision, a home where they may be made happy and at the same time so restricted that they cannot reproduce their kind. In our own work as superintendents we are making the start. It is our duty to find these pupils, to classify them, to carry their training out to the very borderline of their possibilities and powers, to bend every effort which as trained men and women we can command to make it possible for them to earn a living and live within their cramped restrictions a life as happy and healthful as possible. But as men we need to be at the fore in urging our state, city, or district to provide wisely for these after they have gone beyond our final control. They are in society and they are a part of it. If prison problems are to be solved with intelligence, if punishment is to be remodeled and vice and immorality are actually to be checked, we must face this problem from its foundation, look to its causes, just as we have done in regard to the great white plague—tuberculosis. It is a long, long road, but when we start at the beginning there is a possibility of real progress.

VACATION-CLUB WORK

J. H. BEVERIDGE, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, COUNCIL BLUFFS, IOWA

For the most part vacation-club work for boys and girls has been a county rather than a city activity. The purpose of this address will be to deal with the movement as a city activity. It should be understood in the beginning that a middle-western city-school district, usually called an independent school district, often embraces a large amount of territory that may be used for agricultural purposes and other activities of a similar nature.

Our specialist in the Department of Agriculture at Washington, D.C., in charge of such club work, has defined it as "the performance of a definite farm, garden, or farmhouse interest enterprise." It aims to teach better methods of agriculture and home economics. The work may be extended so as to include almost every home activity which is of interest to boys and girls. It finds its best support thru the extension departments of the agricultural colleges working in conjunction with the public schools.

In the state of Iowa, during the past year, eighteen different activities were more or less encouraged by the extension departments of the Iowa agricultural colleges. These activities are as follows:

Acre of Corn Club	Grain and Seed Club
Garden and Canning (Tomato) Club	Baby Beef Club
Poultry Club	Baby Pork Club
Potato Club	Bee Club
Gardening Club (1 sq. rd.)	Home Work and Play Club
Cooking Club	Farmer-Boy Club
Sewing Club	Home-Girl Club
Manual-Training Club	Father and Son Corn Club
Canning and Marketing Club	Home Work—School Credit Club

The purposes of such work are:

1. To provide wholesome activities for boys and girls during the long vacation period that will supplement the regular school work so as to reinforce principles already learned in the school and to teach other things seldom thought of or considered in schoolroom activities.

2. To socialize education. At the present time most progressive educators believe in the socialized curriculum. They believe that the school work should be closely associated "with the actual life and interest of the pupil and also with his future life as a working member of society." Vacation-club work furnishes ample opportunity for socializing education. In summer gardening, for example, the child comes to understand the value of soil, the principles of plant growth, and the beauty of flowers. He learns to appreciate something of the relationship existing between himself and his environment. The girl sees something real in sewing, in cooking, and in canning. When the boy cultivates his own garden, feeds and cares for his own animals, makes and spends his own money, he reacts to a real situation in life.

3. To teach the boys and girls industry, thrift, economy, persistence, and application to things that are worth while.

4. To motivate effort. The boy is given an opportunity to enrol himself for that particular activity in which he has, for some reason, become interested. He has the privilege of engaging in the activity that is in line with his particular bent. He is encouraged to compete with others on an equal footing and is encouraged to produce the best result possible. He sees, in the concrete, some material reward which he may attain thru his efforts. Some have objected to the giving of prizes, especially money prizes, for such work. But so long as these prizes are comparatively small, it seems to the writer that such a criticism is not valid, at least until society is constructed on a more spiritual basis than it is at present.

5. To encourage children to look forward to that which ought to be in education. The thing that ought to be is that which draws us on beyond the thing that is, to the higher ideal. It is this which causes one to put forth his best effort. It encourages the children to look forward toward better training in higher institutions of learning. It undoubtedly stimulates a better citizenship by encouraging the child to render service not only to himself but to his family and to the community of which he is a part. Especially in the garden work, children are encouraged to make waste places not only useful but at the same time beautiful. It furnishes children with profitable recreation and acquaints them with some of nature's secrets.

Having given some of the objects to be attained thru vacation-club work, we will give our attention to the way in which this work was carried forward in a middle-western city in the summer of 1915.

At the invitation of the city superintendent, co-operating with active leaders in the mothers' clubs of the city, E. C. Bishop, of the Extension Department of the Iowa State College, Ames, Iowa, was asked to visit the Council Bluffs schools and give short talks in the various school districts of the city relative to boys' and girls' club work as carried on in the state and as to how this work might be carried on in the city.

The principals of the several schools and members of the parent-teacher organization followed up this work by presenting the matter to the pupils from various standpoints,

encouraging the children to enrol in such clubs as they might be interested in, always with this precaution, that pupils should enrol when they were sure they had the continuity of purpose to stick to the undertaking to the end.

It was thought best for our city to undertake the work in only eight of the eighteen different clubs suggested by the agricultural colleges, as follows:

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|--------------------|
| 1. Vegetable and Flower Gardening | 5. Poultry |
| 2. Canning | 6. Baby Pork |
| 3. Cooking | 7. Acre of Corn |
| 4. Sewing | 8. Manual Training |

This is a sample of the enrolment card:

COUNCIL BLUFFS IOWA STATE EXTENSION CLUB FOR BOYS AND GIRLS

I desire to become a member of the Boys' and Girls' Club Work in the following department:

(Indicate by X and underscore.)

1. Acre of Corn Club
2. Gardening and Canning (Tomato) Club
3. Gardening Club (1 sq. rd.)
4. Cooking Club
5. Sewing Club
6. Baby Pork Club
7. Manual Training
8. Poultry

My purpose is to do my work well.

School.....Grade.....Name.....
Date.....Address.....

A specific date was set for the completion of the enrolment and cards of enrolment were filed in the office of the superintendent of city schools.

The extension department of the state college met the members of the mothers' clubs of the several school districts of the city and gave instruction in the cold-pack method of canning fruits and vegetables. Further instruction was given to those girls who enrolled in this department of the work.

Thru an expert, our high-school teacher of agriculture employed for that purpose, and thru the assistance of the teachers and parents interested in the work, it was possible to have instruction given in every activity undertaken. The instructor in domestic art in the grade school was employed by the mothers' clubs of the city to give instruction in sewing to such girls enrolled in sewing as had had no particular instruction in school in this work.

We were fortunate in securing the services of a capable and experienced man to supervise the club work—one who had had previous experience in county club work. But in securing him it was necessary for the city to extend the work of the Acre of Corn Club contest over the county. One advantage of this endeavor was slight financial aid secured from the government. The Board of Education gave \$250 for the support of the work. The remainder of the funds were secured thru the energy and activity of the mothers' clubs and the administrative department of the public schools, principally thru two endeavors: the May Festival, and a high-class musical. The receipts of these two entertainments were about \$1,600.

An executive board for carrying forward the club work was formed. This board consisted of the superintendent of city schools, one member from the Board of Education, and three representatives from the Parent-Teacher Association.

Parents and teachers, working together, had charge of the work in each of the twelve school districts in the city (three not being represented), but the burden of the work was with the club expert who visited all gardens, instructed the children in preparation of the

soil, the care and cultivation of plants and flowers, the care of animals, and other things too numerous to mention.

Every child was required to keep account of time spent in the activity in which he was engaged, the money spent for all purposes, the amount of his sales, and the gain or loss entailed. Two exhibits of the work of the children were held.

At the first exhibit, of garden products alone, 103 children exhibited products and \$32 was given in prizes for this work. Only about one-fifth of the children engaged in gardening made exhibits.

In the second exhibit, representing all departments, 784 different children took part. There were over three thousand exhibits. The value of products produced during the summer was slightly over \$5,000, so far as data has been collected. Cash prizes were given amounting to \$140, but this did not include the expense of thirteen short courses in the Iowa agricultural colleges, three Y.M.C.A. and three Y.W.C.A. memberships, and a trip to the exhibition at San Francisco, won by a boy in the Acre of Corn Club contest.

The September exhibit was held in the city auditorium, a building 95×112 feet. Booths were built by each school after a design made by the mothers' club of each school district. Each booth was 12×20 feet. These booths were decorated by the mothers, each differently, but all attractively. The outer space was reserved for the exhibits of live stock and complete garden displays.

Altho there was a downpour of rain for the entire day, six thousand people attended the exhibit.

It cost the Parent-Teacher Association \$326 to hold this exhibit, but it was worth much more than this to the city. In fact, the worth cannot be measured, for the co-operation secured, the interest awakened, the enthusiasm for better things made manifest, the intellectual and spiritual uplift stimulated, are not measurable quantities.

What were the results attained?

Some of the results have already been indicated. Every purpose of boys' and girls' club work stated in the beginning of the discussion was attained.

One girl, Christine Larson, won the state prize in canning. She had 101 varieties of products. A boy in the independent school district won the county prize in the Acre of Corn Club contest, indicating that city boys may become more efficient in farming than farm boys. Three children, one a girl, won state prizes in the Baby Pork Club contest.

In every activity, the record kept was made an important feature of the work, thus giving the child a motive for effort in expression and in accounting. Parents who had up to this time manifested little interest in school became enthusiastic workers. Those who had never had social contact with one another learned to confer with and make concessions to one another, and thus the most democratic institution of our country, the public school, became really democratic for parents as well as for pupils.

SHORT-UNIT INDUSTRIAL COURSES

MILLARD B. KING, EXPERT ASSISTANT IN INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION, DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, HARRISBURG, PA.

The purpose of this paper is to describe the short-unit course, to explain some of the results which have been secured in industrial schools by the use of the short-unit course, and how the conclusion was reached that the short-unit course was the one best adapted to meet the needs of the worker.

The conditions which confront the giving of instruction in a part-time or an evening trade-extension school are many. The majority of the pupils enrolled in the part-time or evening industrial school are wage-earners who have families to support. They must

increase their earning capacity, and they turn to the evening industrial schools for the instruction upon which they may realize in a comparatively short time. In most instances they know what they need. Their time is limited. In many industries the hours are long. "Overtime" work, sickness, holidays, and lodge and union meetings frequently interfere with the regular attendance at the evening school. Instructors who are masters of their subjects are hard to secure. All these conditions make it impossible to lay out a fixed course of study that will give the help the worker needs. These varying conditions can be met only by having a very flexible course, or a number of courses.

The short-unit course is based upon the proposition that if all the subject-matter of the courses commonly offered in evening industrial schools be broken up and reorganized into a number of units so that definite instruction in a particular subject can be given in a short length of time, the flexibility so desirable and necessary in a course of study for an industrial school is secured, and the school can better meet the varying and changing conditions in an industrial community.

As a concrete example of what can be accomplished by the use of short-unit courses, I propose to discuss the evening mining school and the manner in which the short-unit courses were applied to this particular type of school.

In 1905, mining courses were first given under the auspices of the Y.M.C.A., and a year or so later mining institutes were organized for the purpose of encouraging its members to study and also to afford a sort of a clearing-house whereby the members could tell their associates of the things they had learned while working in the mines.

While a large number of mine workers enrolled for the Y.M.C.A. courses, by the end of the year the enrolment had dropped to a very small percentage of what it had been at the opening. The institutes then attempted to run schools for the workers, and, after a precarious existence, the public-school authorities were finally asked to be responsible for these schools.

The first attempt upon the part of any of the public schools in Pennsylvania to teach branches allied to the anthracite-mining industry was in the year 1911, when the Newport Township school board opened evening schools. This example was followed the next year by Nanticoke and the following year by Shamokin and other school districts.

The public schools were now confronted with the problem of caring for mature workers—men who had worked from six to twenty years in the mines, and realized that they could go no farther until they were better prepared.

Unfortunately, the first year the public-school system conducted the evening mining schools, the same courses and methods of teaching were used as were formerly used, and the results were not encouraging. The question of how best to meet the needs of mine workers had not been answered.

Two statements frequently made by responsible persons were that the public schools could not conduct the evening schools for workers as successfully as the Y.M.C.A. or the institutes, and that there was no use in wasting public money for something which the public schools could not do. To silence this criticism of the public schools, it was necessary to show by actual results that the schools could cope with the situation. With this in mind, the organization and methods then in use, which had been in use in the schools when conducted by the mining institutes and by the Y.M.C.A., were studied and a number of causes for their lack of success were found, among which may be mentioned: (1) the lack of knowledge of the needs of the workers on the part of the teachers and of the school authorities; (2) the lack of the right kind of material for presentation to the class; (3) the fact that the courses were extended over too great a length of time before anything definite was accomplished. It was necessary for a man to enrol in October, and to wait until probably the first day of April, before he could receive instruction in some one thing which he needed.

To remedy these three conditions was the next step. It was much easier to discover why the schools had not been a success than to replace the existing teachers, courses of

study, and organization, with something altogether new and untried in Pennsylvania. It was impossible to change everything at one time, so new courses were organized and men who had a background of practical experience were employed as teachers; in fact, men were employed as teachers who worked during the day as mine foreman, assistant mine foreman, fire bosses, or inside bosses. New courses of study were organized in which the following subjects were taught: shot firing; timbering; haulage; drainage; safety lamps; mining arithmetic; mining law; mine accidents; methods of mining; ventilation and gases.

In spite of the fact that practical men had been employed as teachers and new courses had been planned, the attendance of the schools did not materially increase. Of course, the practical men knew nothing of teaching, and this was, of course, a drawback to the schools. However, the experienced teachers who had no first-hand knowledge of mines could not hold the men. Finally it was decided to place an experienced science teacher in the classroom together with the practical man. Even with this combination, the average attendance was not gratifying.

As a last resort, the entire subject-matter of the course was reorganized. In order to do this, it was necessary that the mining industry be analyzed to determine what was required of each man employed in or about the mines. In this analysis it was discovered that there were 51 classified inside and 27 classified outside jobs. At a first glance the situation confronting the school was appalling, because no school could hope to give training for 78 different jobs. The teaching force alone would have been as large as the student body and the courses would have been years in length.

The situation was made more complex by the fact that from the industrial history of 75 men, selected in a haphazard manner from 4,000 mine workers, it was discovered that no two of these 75 men who had started in as slate-pickers or door-boys had traveled the same route as they advanced step by step to the positions of petty officials and bosses.

From a closer analysis of the conditions in the mining industry, and of the requirements of each man for his particular job, it was learned that all of the men who worked inside of the mines needed a knowledge of gases, ventilation, electricity, map reading, and arithmetic. Courses were outlined and lessons prepared by a mine inspector who had had a number of years of practical experience in the mines. Yet even after the introduction of these new courses, dealing directly with the mining industry, with the employment of practical teachers, and the use of the lessons prepared by a practical miner, the schools did not advance as was expected. The best material available for teachers had been secured, there was no question as to the value of the subject-matter presented, and yet the workers were not being reached.

Inquiry of these men who were attending school and of those who had enrolled but did not stay brought forth a volley of replies such as "Want help for tomorrow, not five years from now," "Have to go too long to get anything I need," "Can't see any use in taking so much stuff." The men knew what they wanted and needed better than the school people, and finally after many blunders the schools gave them what they needed: definite instruction adapted to one or more of the many needs of the miners, and given in a short length of time.

The subject-matter was broken up into short-unit courses, such as five lessons in safety lamps; sixteen lessons in ventilation; five lessons in mine gases; ten lessons in timbering; and twenty lessons in mining arithmetic, divided into five lessons in decimals, five lessons in proportion, five in percentage, and five in powers and routes, as applied to the mining industry. These courses were then put in operation, and inside of two months a change was noticeable in the attendance of the schools. By the end of the year, we were able to maintain as high as a 65 per cent average attendance in the schools, which was a thing unheard of up until that time.

In the course of conversation with the men, you no longer heard the criticism of the schools that they could not get what they needed. Some of the schools are now organized

on such a basis that a man may attend school and receive instruction in gases; if he feels that he does not need any of the other courses given, he need not continue his work. It is now possible for a man to secure instruction in a subject on one night and put it directly to use the next day. This was not possible before, as he had to attend for as many as 50 or 60 nights before he received the information he most needed. These courses have been arranged in two ways: sequential and non-sequential. In the majority of cases, the sequential organization of the courses is used; that is, the various units are given in order of their sequence. Yet this does not destroy the positive effect of the short-unit course. On the other hand, in schools where there is a large corps of teachers, it is possible to give the short-unit courses in a non-sequential way; that is, the courses are given without any regard whatever to what precedes or what follows.

A school has been organized in a town of 1,500 population in the bituminous region of Pennsylvania in which instruction is given in the following short-unit courses: timbering, 5 lessons; haulage, 4 lessons; drainage, 4 lessons; mine gases, 10 lessons; explosives, 4 lessons; mine accidents, 4 lessons; methods of mining, 10 lessons; and ventilation, 11 lessons.

These courses have been arranged in a sequential order, because there are not a sufficient number of men attending the school to justify the holding of more than one course at a time. Some of the men have taken all of the short-unit courses. However, there will be some who will not take the course in timbering, but will take the course in mine gases and explosives; others who take the course in mine gases will not take that in mine accidents or methods of mining, and so on.

In this particular case, the short-unit course has a great advantage, inasmuch as it makes it possible to employ men who are the best informed men in the region in haulage, timbering, mine accidents, explosives, mine gases, drainage, and methods of mining; whereas, if the courses were not broken up into these smaller units, it would be necessary to employ a man who has had some experience in all of these different branches but who is not a specialist in any particular one.

This same course for a larger community could be arranged in a non-sequential manner; that is, the courses in timbering, haulage, and mine gases would probably be given on the same evening, a teacher being employed for each one of these particular subjects, while the men would take only the courses which they needed. Under the old system, John Smith, who desired a course in drainage, would have enrolled on the 24th day of September, and, after studying timbering and haulage, he would eventually have received some instruction in drainage. With the course of study organized in short-unit courses, he would not need to attend until the 2d day of November, at which time the work in drainage would be given in this school.

From the results which have been obtained in the evening school since the short-unit courses were put in operation, we are convinced that they offer a practical solution for meeting directly the needs of the worker, for the following reasons: (1) it is now possible to give definite instruction to the worker when he needs the help; (2) it eliminates all the material which does not bear definitely upon the worker's occupation; (3) it is possible to procure specialists in the industry to give the courses. This is especially valuable, as it eliminates the "jack-of-all-trades" teacher in the small community, and in the large community reduces the total number of hours to be paid for by the school authorities; (4) it is possible for the worker to use at once the instruction which he receives; (5) it is now possible for men to take any of the courses which they need at the time they are given; (6) it is possible to reach a larger number of workers than formerly. The personnel of the school has, in many instances, been quite different at the close of the term from what it was at the beginning.

During the last two years more men have attended the evening mining schools and successfully passed the state examination for mine papers than ever before in the history of the schools. The enrolment this year has increased and more schools have been

organized on the strength of the results of the schools which were in operation last year. The mine workers, the teachers, and the employers are in hearty accord as to the efficiency of this method of organization.

While the mining schools alone have been dealt with in this paper, unit courses are being introduced as rapidly as possible in the other evening and continuation industrial schools and household-arts schools of the state.

Possibly the statements which I have made concerning the operation of the short-unit courses in the mining schools would have more weight if some idea concerning the size of the mining industry were given. In the year 1912, there were 245,257,361 tons of coal produced in 220 working days. To mine and prepare this coal, valued at \$350,000,000, required the services of 368,340 men.

While a great deal of material which does not deal with the short-unit course is given in this paper, it is given with the purpose of showing that the short-unit courses were not adopted before other methods had been tried, and that their adoption was due to a gradual evolution of the methods of teaching the mature workers.

ROUND TABLE OF SUPERINTENDENTS OF CITIES WITH A POPULATION UNDER 25,000

RELIABLE MEASUREMENTS OF A SCHOOL SYSTEM

OTIS G. WILSON, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, FAIRMONT, W.VA.

Of the numerous factors that should be considered in measuring a school system, I propose to discuss, all too briefly, three: the school census, medical supervision, and business accounting.

A reasonably tangible factor in measuring a school system is the annual school census. The school census as an enumeration of children of legal school age within the district is not a measurement. The census should be more than a list of the names, a record of the ages and nationalities of school youth within the district for the purpose primarily of establishing a basis for securing state revenue. Boards of education are legally bound to see that every child of compulsory school age goes to school somewhere. How may boards intelligently discharge this obligation unless they know with reasonable certainty how many children there are of legal school age, who they are, and where they are, if not in school? It should be a matter of vital concern to school officials to know the whereabouts of children not only of compulsory school age, but of those beyond the compulsory age. It should be known what becomes of children under twenty-one years of age when they stop school. Do they become workers or loafers? Is the school attractive enough to hold children regardless of their legal freedom, or is it so unattractive that reaching the compulsory-age limit is a signal for leaving school, whether employment is in sight or not? And, if employed, are they legally employed? If in school are they in the public school, private school, parochial school? The census figures should answer these questions with readiness and precision. Only in this way may a community know where the children are whom it aims to educate, and whether its aims are being realized. School officials should concern themselves with the question of the ratio of school enrolment to the school census, with the ratio of school attendance to the school census, and with the ratio of what is being done to what it is aimed to do. The answers to these questions will determine at least one factor in measuring the efficiency of a school system. The census affords the key to the answers.

The returns of the annual census should be tabulated and should be compared with school attendance. Herein lies the value of the census. It should be used after it is

made as a necessary instrument of any school administration that seeks to know in full measure the scope of its responsibility to the community.

The important uses of the census warrant boards of education in establishing a department of school census, placing in charge a competent census clerk. A competent clerk, with the co-operation of the truant officers, school nurses, city police, and other interested persons, may make the annual census continuous and at all times reliably accurate. As suggested by the Cleveland survey committee: "The school census should also record the results of each new enumeration on maps of the city in such ways as to show for all of the districts the amount of increase or decrease of child population. This information could then be utilized as an aid in shaping the building policy of the school system."

A second important factor in measuring the efficiency of a school system is the nature and scope of health or medical supervision. For the most part, we have passed thru the stage of medical supervision known as medical inspection, the primary purpose of which was to discover existing physical defects of the child and report the same to the parents, with the request that the defect be brought to the attention of the family physician. With this important tho incomplete service of inspection performed, the child was free as before to continue his attendance at school, regardless of the attention paid to the school physician's notice and recommendation.

With all its imperfections, this type of medical inspection served its day very well. But with the awakening of the physical conscience thruout the United States in recent years, the demand for follow-up procedure in the inspection of children has broadened the scope of medical inspection and given us medical supervision. Medical inspection locates and reports physical defects of children; but medical supervision locates, reports, and follows up defects. It does more than that; it seeks to prevent defects by treating symptoms. The one is corrective, the other is preventive as well as corrective.

Investigations have disclosed that, without a definite plan for the following up of notifications to parents by school physicians, only about 5 to 30 per cent of the recommendations will be acted upon. An efficient follow-up plan brings the figures to 85 or 90 per cent. The most effective plan for securing the desired result is the employment of the school nurse, who goes into the home and sympathetically and tactfully presents the child's case to the parents. If one visit of the nurse is not sufficient, then another and another is made. As a general proposition, a good nurse in medical supervision of schools is as valuable as a good physician. The practice in schools having the best regulated medical supervision is to have a limited service of competent school physicians and plenty of nurse help. The physicians should be experts in child hygiene and should be tactful enough in directing the health work thru the nurses to secure the co-operation not only of teachers and parents but of local physicians, hospitals, charity organizations, and other helpful agencies whose co-operation is needed.

Medical supervision should extend in some measure to the different varieties of school-health agencies that have been organized as a result of the recent development of public-health opinion. Play and playgrounds, physical training, open-air schools, schools for delinquent children, and probably the teaching of hygiene in the school curriculum are agencies that to some extent should come under the control of an efficient health supervisor.

For each pupil enrolled in school, there should be kept an individual health card which shows clearly his health history. The card should contain specific data of the physical examinations, and note should be made of all recommendations that have been acted upon. Such a record would reveal the need of health supervision and would test the efficiency of the medical supervision as it applies to the follow-up procedure.

A third reasonably tangible factor in reliably measuring a school system is the method of business accounting employed by school officials.

The evident tendency in recent years toward better business efficiency in all lines of activity involving investment and returns has created a demand, more or less insistent, for business efficiency in matters affecting the expenditure of public money. The amount

of money spent for education during the past few years has increased out of all proportion to the number of children to be educated. School taxes have risen enormously, and still the cry is for more money. And the increase in taxes creates a demand upon boards for facts and figures concerning expenditures. Communities want to know how money derived from public taxation is spent, why it is spent, and what the returns are. To this end many boards of education have been making an earnest effort to give the public full knowledge of the manner in which the work of the board and schools is carried on.

The tendency is toward standardization in business transactions, in school costs and accounts. Merely keeping an account of the revenue received and expended is no longer adequate. Statements of the amounts spent for fuel, light, janitor service, teachers' salaries, textbooks, insurance, and other items are valuable as aids in making the annual estimate or budget, but from the standpoint of estimating units of service they are too general and too vague to be valuable. School boards and superintendents should know how much the performance of any service costs and how it compares with like costs elsewhere. It is very important, therefore, if modern business methods of efficiency are to be practiced by boards of education, that school costs and accounts be standardized to the end that units of service be intelligently and definitely established.

For all schools and for each kind of school the costs should be determined. Furthermore, the cost per pupil in all subjects of instruction should be computed and compared with similar previous costs and like costs elsewhere. So, also, should units of service be established for expenditures for fuel, light, apparatus, supplies, insurance, textbooks, medical supervision, and the like. With these specific tests in matters of cost, together with other tests to determine pupils' abilities along various lines and hence to determine the ratio between cost and returns, a wise administrator has sufficient data to enable him to measure the efficiency of his schools along certain definite lines.

Further discussion of measurements that should be employed in determining the efficiency of a school system would include, among others, these additional topics: the progress of pupils thru the school system; standards of qualifications of teachers; improvement of teachers in service; quality of instruction; the course of study; nature and scope of supervision; provision for delinquent and exceptional children; co-operative agencies; vocational guidance; the school plant and school equipment.

THE ETHICAL AS THE ESSENTIAL FACTOR IN TRAINING FOR EFFICIENT CITIZENSHIP IN A DEMOCRACY

CHARLES W. COOKSON, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, TROY, OHIO

"The times that try men's souls are over," said Tom Paine when he heard of the Treaty of Paris in 1783. Subsequent history has proved the folly of this conclusion. The struggle of the individual and of the nation for greater efficiency, whether we call it education or evolution, is the problem of the ages. With the growth of a complex society, adequate educational processes become more abstract. To prepare for efficient citizenship in the democracy is the task of the schools, for the school is the only agent under the control of the state and the nation by which the young may be trained for the responsibilities of adult life.

Often it has been said that the home and the church must do many things in the training for citizenship, and certain specific duties are assigned to each of these institutions. However beautiful the theory may be, the principle does not hold good. In the first place, that part of the home which has survived the innovations of the club and the factory often creates conditions which the school must regulate. The adoption of compulsory-education laws and strenuous efforts in many places to enforce them warrant the above statements. The churches, with their multiplicity of organizations, are not reaching the masses. The state and the school cannot solace themselves in the presence of

this condition and assure themselves that their share of the educational process is being adequately carried out. Education is a public policy, and the American government stands for the entire separation of church and state. It will be fatal, therefore, for the state and the nation to depend upon an institution outside of their jurisdiction to give to the new generation the spiritual training without which efficient citizenship is impossible. That the homes which still exist, the churches—for such persons as they do reach—and society are aids, no one will gainsay; but the point of contention is the inadequacy of the results as determined by the number reached.

There are many great problems ahead of us as a nation, but the really greatest problem is how to make better men and better women of us all. John Stewart Mill says: "The worth of the nation is the worth of the individual." It may be said, then, that no institution or organization for the advancement of public uprightness has any assurance of success that is not based on personal integrity and personal courage. No scheme of socialism, no punishment for fraud or graft, no legislative enactments or governmental edicts can be of service in making efficient citizenship unless they are based upon considerations of the influence these courses will have upon the individual.

In the discussion of any question, there is often a necessity for the establishment of limits and boundaries by definitions, in order that no misunderstanding may arise in the use of the terms employed. Ethics in this discussion is to have the broad general definition of moral duty. It is to mean "the outward sign of harmonious spiritual development." It will refer to the discipline or training in those elemental virtues of truthfulness, honesty, sobriety, and self-sacrifice; it will mean moral reactions manifested in joy, peace, longsuffering, gentleness, goodness, faith, meekness, temperance, which are the fruits of the spirit and which are necessary traits of character for citizenship in a democracy.

My thesis, then, is that the things of the spirit must not only be taught, but that they must be tested by moral reactions in order to insure to posterity those characteristics of mind and heart which are necessary for the maintenance of the republic, that universal righteousness necessary in order that the individual may make the proper application of his opportunities to his duties and so adjust his life that he will meet the needs of citizenship and national perpetuity.

It has been said, and said repeatedly, by the most thoughtful that the education which neglects the spiritual is a farce. Notwithstanding this fact, the intellectual predominates in the school measurements. Teachers are rated very largely by marks in scholarship; pupils are promoted on the basis of their ability to pass certain mental tests; students are graduated from college and university when they have gained definite intellectual accomplishments; yet all recognize that intellectual education alone never has and never will save a nation, uplift a people, sanctify a home, purify a ballot, aid in law-respecting or law-enforcing, or cause an individual to be transfigured into the likeness of Him who spake as never man spake. A single illustration will suffice. Dr. Gunsaulus, president of Armour Institute, was walking with a friend in State Street, Chicago, one Sunday afternoon when they noticed a crowd thronging about a public assembly room. Curiosity led them to go in. Just as they entered, the speaker on the platform was thrilling his audience by saying, "I am learning to make deadly explosives at Philip Armour's expense." Dr. Gunsaulus recognized the most talented, most intellectual student in the institution. It only confirms what Ralph Waldo Trine says: "The education of the head without the softening and refining influence of the heart only increases one's power for evil."

It is a crime to teach a child to read unless at the same time he is taught to read that which will be uplifting, purifying, ennobling. It is criminal to teach the intellect unless, at the same time, those principles are taught which will inculcate a practical knowledge of the universal brotherhood of man and the fatherhood of God. It is a farce to give a man high ideals without furnishing the means whereby those ideals may function in action worthy of the best in an American citizen.

The application is easily understood. In this present time, the unlettered may be a part of an unorganized band in guerrilla warfare, shooting from ambush at a venturesome frontiersman and driving his cattle from the ranch. The educated are a part of vast armies with forty-two-centimeter guns, bomb-dropping aerial navies, submarines, with deadly projectiles, dreadnaughts and superdreadnaughts; and all the world is put under tribute for savages to carry on a war of annihilation. Poisoned bullets, suffocation gases, and blockades to starve the non-combatants are some of the results of intellectual and scholastic culture.

Note the contrast. When the government opened Oklahoma to settlers, in the mad rush for advantageous positions, a little girl was lost. The cry of a child lost went out thru the rabble struggling for homes. The selection of locations was abandoned and search was made for the little one who was supposedly without protection. During the afternoon, on thru the night, into the next day went the searching party, when some of the members came upon a wolf which had been killed in a sanguine struggle. A little farther on a second wolf was found with its vitals torn from its body; and nearby in a little clump of bushes was the child unharmed, sweetly sleeping, with the family dog lying dead across her body. Greater love hath no man than this, that a man lay down his life for his friend. In our day, when civilization across the water seems to have collapsed, it is refreshing to turn to the brute creation for examples of the destruction of self for the preservation of others.

In the study of those elements which should be emphasized in the making of citizenship, there are no differences with those who are working along the line of vocational training as a solution for national efficiency. In fact, all will agree that vocational education is a necessity growing out of the character of our social order. Manual skill will not save a republic, moreover. Men in America are not starving for bread, but they are starving for the good, the true, the beautiful. To make two blades of grass grow where one grew before is a valuable contribution to the wealth of the country, but to make boys and girls exercise self-restraint, practice the virtues, recognize every man as a brother, is a Godlike performance. The need of bread may cause a man to commit a crime, but the absence of the attributes of the soul makes him a criminal whether he ever breaks the statutes or not.

The schools have glorified knowledge. "Knowledge is power" has been carved in stone and placed over the doors of school buildings. It has been used as copy for practice in penmanship. It has been a gem for memory work. It has been the text for addresses before student bodies on all kinds of occasions. True knowledge is power, but power is selfish, and selfishness is antagonistic to efficient citizenship in a republic. Education will take on a new aspect when knowledge is regarded as the by-product of the schools, and character-building becomes the goal of the vision which prompts the levying of vast sums of money for educational purposes. When the acquisition of knowledge is secondary and the training for citizenship is fundamental, then scrutinizing surveys and statistical reports will give records of self-sacrifice, of service, of devotion to duty.

Many methods have been presented for the teaching of ethics. There are just two which are applicable to this discussion; two methods of instruction which, if made a part of the school policy, will result in better manhood mentally and physically as well as spiritually. Considering that less than 10 per cent of the young men who offered themselves to the marine corps last year were accepted, it is perfectly clear that some methods must be devised by which the unfit 90 per cent may be prepared to fill a place of usefulness in our common country.

The first and most important method for the creation of ethical concepts is thru the personality of the teacher. It must be understood, however, that the individual who stands behind the desk is not always the teacher. It may be an older pupil in the room or one in the alley who is shaping the life of the school much more forcibly than the so-called teacher.

The school, like a great mirror, reflects the soul of the teacher. "As is the teacher, so is the school," is truer than usually supposed. Children imitate; they copy; they take on the master spirit of the environment in which they live, be it good or bad. The orientals have a proverb that the grapes turned purple by looking at their fellows, and an English naturalist asserts that he has heard a sparrow singing the nightingale's song. On one occasion a gentleman was telling me about his canary and described him as an organ canary. The qualifying word attracted attention and led to inquiry as to the meaning of the term. The explanation was logical. A trainer had devised a mechanical contrivance which would produce certain musical tones. The birds to be trained were placed in little boxes in the room with the musical toy, and there, hour after hour, day after day, week after week, they heard no sound except the song to be learned. My informant remarked that they often sing no notes other than those they learned in their training school, their college of music. With proper humility we might say: If the throat of the little yellow songster can be so changed that he will sing a different song than nature intended him to sing, how much more ought we to be able to teach the boys and girls of America so that there would be no minor strains of despair because of misspent and unprofitable lives, and no discords, in the great chorus of human endeavor!

James J. Hill, the wizard in railroad organization, in addressing some Y.M.C.A. boys said: "We have tried athletics, social recreation, music, education, and all have failed. The only thing that will better our railroad men is religion. If you have lots of that, bring it along and put your associations on the Great Northern." If a cool, calculating, impassionate business man in a moment of careful investigation could declare that the railroad system needed more religion, as it was the only thing which had not been tried to increase the efficiency of the men, with equal propriety we may confidently say that we have tried many devices with marked success, but the one element that we all need is more of the religion of life that is worthy of imitation.

The adoption of a religious creed does not necessarily function in the practice of ethical virtues. Men have dropped munificent sums into the collection box on Sunday for sweet charity, or to spread the gospel of their faith among the benighted; but on any other day of the week they may drive a dishonest bargain and rob the innocent. Men have bowed on Sunday at the altar of the church in which they worshiped, and on Monday have gone blood-mad, unwilling to trust the law's delay, and taken one of their fellow-citizens from the bastille and hung his bullet-riddled body to a near-by tree. Thus it has been shown that little reliance can be placed in unrestrained and untrained human nature, subject to specific temptations no matter what may be their profession; but with the practice of self-sacrifice, self-restraint, self-abnegation, with systematic drill in integrity, honesty, sobriety, truthfulness, temperance, purity, we may hope to blot out from the body politic those who will trade their franchise for a mess of pottage or sell themselves and their constituencies for thirty pieces of silver.

The teacher must be spiritual as well as intellectual. He must give up self for others, if a boy or a girl is to receive a new birth. Arithmetic, algebra, Latin may be taught without any diminution or destruction of self, but boys and girls never.

The second method to be presented in this discussion is the emphasis of the spiritual in literature. The Scriptures present the basic principles for instruction in the things of the spirit. There are communities where the adoption of the Testaments for this work would be objectionable; yet there are few school units that would offer criticism against the teaching of Abraham's faith, Solomon's wisdom, Ruth's filial devotion. If there be objections to the Bible, then the material in the textbooks will serve the double purpose of literary standards and spiritual stimuli.

A few examples will help to make my meaning clear. We find fault with Longfellow's the "Psalm of Life" as literature, but there can be no criticism of his clear, unequivocal faith in the immortality of the soul as expressed in the poem.

William Cullen Bryant had failed in some of his ambitions. The future looked dark to him, and, as he crossed the country seeking a new situation, a solitary wild duck, with its form "darkly painted on the crimson sky," crossed before him. He mused upon "the Power" which guided its course, and his apostrophe to the bird, when it had entirely disappeared from sight, contains his unswerving faith in divine justice:

Thou'rt gone, the abyss of heaven
Hath swallowed up thy form; yet, on my heart
Deeply has sunk the lesson thou hast given,
And shall not soon depart.
He who, from zone to zone,
Guides thru the boundless sky thy certain flight,
In the long way that I must tread alone,
Will lead my steps aright.

The self-crucifixion of Enoch Arden for those he loved, in that beautiful story without sin, has made many a high-school boy and high-school girl live a more unselfish life.

The universal brotherhood of man, irrespective "of race, color, or previous conditions of servitude" is portrayed in "The Vision of Sir Launfal." Phoebe Cary's awakening in "Nearer Home," the nearness of the spirit world in "The Ancient Mariner," and Longfellow's return to faith in "The Bridge," are a few of the many illustrations which may be put into the hands of the pupils; and then, with the magic touch of the spiritual in the teacher, the young life reflects the moral reactions from the ethical concepts acquired.

When the teachers of America with uncovered heads stand within the threshold of the office, the recitation room, the laboratory, the gymnasium, before the pupils appear in the morning, and, no matter what creed they profess, petition the Great Jehovah for wisdom and power to do the work by example and by precept which is necessary to be done in order to make for universal brotherhood and fatherhood; and when, after the day's work is over and the children are gone, with the devotion of kinship they say: "Father, I thank Thee that I am permitted to be an American teacher and have a part in building and fortifying a great nation"; and when the children catch the master spirit, we will cease to be troubled about unpreparedness and inefficiency in national crises in this democratic government.

ROUND TABLE OF DIRECTORS OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

THE TWO PHASES OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH AND EFFICIENCY IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

GEORGE MELCHER, DIRECTOR, BUREAU OF RESEARCH AND EFFICIENCY, KANSAS CITY, MO.

For generations schools have been conducted on opinion. All other forms of business of great magnitude that involve the expenditure of vast sums of money and affect the welfare of thousands of people are being reduced to a basis of fact. The present tendency in the educational world is to substitute fact for opinion. Effective supervision must be based on fact, not on theory and opinion. In order to secure the necessary facts on which to base wise and efficient supervision, careful and scientific inquiries must be made and definite tests and standards must be established and used in measuring educational efficiency. By the application of such tests, we may reach facts—conclusions free from personal opinion or bias. Should not schools render accounts, both financial and educational, as trustworthy and systematic as the accounts of any other business? Professor Hanus, of Harvard College, one of the best authorities on school administration in America, says that efficient management of a school system depends upon "habitual and well-

organized self-examination within the school system, including adequate appraisal by the staff of the results achieved, and well-conducted experiments to confirm or refute educational opinion within and without the school system."

The two important phases of research and efficiency in the public schools are the financial and the educational. Let us first consider the financial aspect of the question. From one-sixth to one-third of the current maintenance fund in the public-school system is devoted to other purposes than paying for the personal service of instruction and supervision. The expenditure of all this money should be supervised by the superintendent. These expenditures may be under the immediate direction of such officers as the chief engineer or superintendent of buildings, the architect, the purchasing agent, the chief attendance officer, and the secretary of the board of directors.

In order that the expenditure in these various departments may be wisely made, it is necessary that standards of cost be established. There are so many factors that enter into the determining of the cost of any item that it is not an easy matter to establish standards in school finances. For example, in studying the cost of heating school buildings in different school systems, or school buildings in the same system, cost may be compared on the basis of the cost per pupil, or the cost per thousand cubic feet of space to be heated, or the percentage of the entire cost invested in fuel. So many factors enter into the determining of this cost that any single basis of comparison may be unfair. Some of the factors that must be considered are: (1) the kind of fuel and the relative cost of the various kinds of fuel; (2) the amount of air space per pupil to be heated; this item will be greatly influenced by the presence in the school building, or the absence, of gymnasiums, auditoriums, and playrooms, and it must also be known whether these auditoriums are used full time or part time; (3) the character of the building; (4) the kind of heating plant; (5) in comparison with other cities, temperature and climate must be considered.

At a glance, one can see that comparisons based on the cost per pupil may be unfair, since one building may have playrooms, auditoriums, and gymnasiums to be heated, while others have only the schoolrooms. Again, one building may place 30 pupils in a room 24×30 feet and another may place 50 in a room of the same size. Comparisons based on the cost per thousand cubic feet of air space to be heated may be unfair because the kind of heating plants in the buildings may be entirely different or the amount of ventilation may vary from building to building. Furthermore, the percentage of the entire cost, a method of comparison often used in comparing one city with another, is a very unfair basis, since this percentage is apparently low in cities that pay high salaries for teachers. It costs just as much to heat a given room for a teacher receiving \$500 per year as it does to heat the room when the teacher is receiving \$1,000 per year. The cost per thousand cubic feet of air space to be heated is possibly the fairest of all means of comparison when a single basis must be used.

Not only should the cost of heating be carefully standardized, but also the cost of light and water, cost of janitor service, cost of janitor's supplies, and the cost of supplies for instruction. A school system should know the cost per pupil of writing-paper, pencils, drawing-material, pens, regular textbooks, and supplementary books. It is true that certain factors will cause variations in these items, but if it is known by the persons responsible for the expenditure that there will be careful checking on each item of expense, and that comparisons of the various buildings will be made, greater economy will be exercised in the use of materials. The economy brought about by the mere knowledge that the checking will be made pays several times for the expense of checking.

Furthermore, as regards the matter of cost accounting, a school system should know the cost of each subject of instruction. It should know the cost per pupil hour in the high school for each subject, the cost per pupil hour of elementary-school work, the cost per pupil hour of special subjects, such as manual training and domestic science, and the cost per pupil hour of kindergarten work. In the erection of new buildings, the cost per

room or the cost according to cubical contents should be known. The cost of repairs on buildings should be carefully checked and studied.

The second phase of research and efficiency relates directly to the department of instruction. The research work in the department of instruction may be considered under five heads: (1) measuring general school results in terms of school progress; (2) measuring and standardizing achievements in school subjects; (3) conducting experiments and making measurements to test the value of methods of teaching or plans of organization; (4) testing the suitability of the material suggested in courses of study for the various grades, and standardizing the subject-matter for each grade; (5) contributing to the educational world, as a final result of this other work, a body of scientifically tested educational principles.

Bureaus of efficiency are now engaged very largely in checking up general results and measuring school achievements objectively. It is probable that, in a few years, the most important work of these bureaus will be centered on the last three phases mentioned above. Up to the present time, however, so little work has been done along these lines that only this mention will be made of them here.

Under the first division are studied such topics as retardation, over-ageness, promotions, non-promotions, causes of retardation and over-ageness, causes of non-promotion, and opportunity in the school for individual progress. Accurate data on these points can be obtained only when the school has a system of cumulative record cards so that the progress of pupils thru the various grades can be known accurately. For example, in Kansas City we have a seven-year elementary-school course. At the present time, cumulative record cards are used in the system, but they have been in use only two years. In June, 1915, it was desired to know the length of time required by the graduates of the elementary school to complete the course. In Part I of the *Fifteenth Yearbook* of the National Society for the Study of Education, pages 126 to 130, there is an account of the method used to determine this important point. The results of this investigation showed that 6 per cent of the class completed the elementary-school course in six years or less, and 40 per cent in seven years, making a total of 46 per cent who completed the course in seven years or less. Forty per cent required eight years to complete the course, and only 14 per cent required more than eight years. In the same *Yearbook*, page 143, Dr. Starch, of the University of Wisconsin, has suggested that one-third of the elementary-school pupils should complete the elementary-school course in seven years, one-third in eight years, and one-third should require more than eight years. Assuming that our figures in Kansas City are practically correct at the present time, nearly one-half of our pupils complete the elementary-school course in less than seven years, and only one-seventh require more than eight years. This splendid showing is made with an elementary-school course of study that embraces an excessive amount of technical grammar, abstract arithmetic, and rigid work in other subjects, and would seem to indicate that, by the elimination of much useless, non-functioning material now in the elementary-school course, it would be possible so to organize the course of study that at least one-fifth of the elementary-school pupils would complete the elementary-school course in six years, three-fifths in seven years, and one-fifth in eight years, or in an average period of seven years. Since the average time required to complete the elementary-school course in eight-grade systems is almost eight and one-half years, this organization would save one and one-half years.

It is the consensus of opinion that there is generally too much retardation in the elementary schools. Hence, the subject of school progress is worthy of continued and careful consideration by school administrators. On pages 130 to 132, of the *Fifteenth Yearbook*, is found a discussion of opportunity for individuals in the Kansas City elementary schools. This study indicates that in the Kansas City as in other school systems too little opportunity is given the bright pupil for individual progress.

A study was made, during the past year, of the causes of non-promotion. This subject was studied from two angles: (1) for each case of non-promotion the opinion of the teacher was ascertained; (2) the regularity of attendance of the promoted and non-promoted pupils was compared. According to the teachers' estimates, 52 per cent of the non-promotions were due to non-attendance. Assuming that a pupil cannot complete a given course satisfactorily unless he attends at least 80 per cent of the time, it was found that 60 per cent of the non-promotions were caused by non-attendance. Of the pupils who were not promoted, only 40 per cent had attended more than four-fifths of the time school was in session; but 60 per cent had attended less than four-fifths of the time, or had been absent more than 20 per cent of the time. Of the pupils who were promoted, 11 per cent had been absent more than 20 per cent of the time.

This study makes it evident that the most serious problem in non-promotion is non-attendance. This is a proper problem for solution, but it must be met by the co-operative efforts of the school, the home, and society. In fact, the chief burden falls upon society, for most of the causes of non-attendance are social or economic and cannot be overcome by the school alone.

As regards the second division of the subject, it may be said that only a beginning has been made in measuring school achievements objectively. Many types of school work lend themselves readily to objective measurement, and for some such types of school work scales have been devised. For other such types of school work, scales and standards are now in process of formulation and definition. However, many forms of school achievement do not lend themselves readily to objective measurement, since they are so highly spiritual and so elusive that it has not yet been possible to devise scales for estimating their value. Such achievements are often almost by-products of the educational processes, but, like the by-products of many manufacturing operations, these results are sometimes the most valuable part of the product. While many forms of school achievement cannot yet be measured objectively, it is confidently believed that in the future more scales will be devised, so that ultimately it will be possible to measure objectively, either directly or indirectly, most of the principal types of school achievement.

While only a few subjects have been measured, these measurements have revealed many valuable facts for the use of teachers and supervisors. The results of the measurements have shown that not only do the pupils in the same grade vary more than teachers and principals have realized, but also that rooms in the different schools in the city vary more than was believed possible before the application of such accurate scales. While it was known that rooms vary from building to building, the magnitude of this variation has been made clear by such measurements. Even in the same school, the variations between rooms is often greater than has been realized by the principal or teachers. For example, in Kansas City entire third-grade rooms were found that wrote better than seventh-grade rooms in other schools, and better than sixth-, fifth-, and fourth-grade rooms. In handwriting, some buildings made an average gain during the year of nearly two Thorndike points. However, other buildings made practically no gain. In accurate copying, some buildings were seven times as good as other buildings. Similar differences were found in spelling and arithmetic. In fact, it was found that almost one-fourth of the pupils of the city in the fourth grade did better in the fundamental operations of arithmetic, on exactly the same test, than did the poorest fourth of the seventh-grade pupils. Similar striking differences were noted in the results of the tests in the various subjects.

Some will properly ask: "Were not these differences due to variations in nationality, in community life, and in social conditions, etc.?" Some of them were, but the majority were not. For example, two schools of similar foreign population are about at opposite ends of the scale in certain of these tests. Of two schools consisting of similar American population, one stands in the highest group of schools and the other in the lowest group in certain tests. A school sometimes ranks high in one test and low in another. These

results are in harmony with the results that have been secured in every large city system that has been tested.

The more one studies the results at first hand, the more convinced he is that this great variation is largely a question of teachers and wise direction of teachers. When trained teachers are guided by clear and definite purposes, the teaching is most effective. School principals and school superintendents may render valuable service to the schools by giving definite purpose to each teacher's work. Many teachers already have a clear conception of the end to be attained and are securing valuable and tangible results. Many others are working just as earnestly, seriously, and industriously, and failing to secure satisfactory results. Why? I shall give Mr. Bobbitt's answer:

The taproot of effective teaching is to know in specific terms what one is after. The central cause of ineffective teaching is lack of knowledge of specific ends and a substitute conception that what one is to do is teach certain textbooks that somebody else has selected; to teach certain topics laid down in the course of study, also arranged by somebody else; to follow in unthinking fashion the dictates of others in all these matters; not to be guilty of living, responsible thought; and, in general, to grind away at the course of study and textbook machinery without any other thought as to the outcome than that pupils may be able to pass the examinations that belong with this type of school machinery.

The greatest service that principals and supervisors can render their teachers is to give them clear-cut specific ends to be reached in each grade in each kind of work. We have had too much generalization. The generalizations should be only the summaries of particulars and should not be given to teachers; but each teacher should make his own generalizations from the details that come under his observation and into his experience.

Accurate objective measuring of school results will aid materially in giving more definite and specific aims to our teachers in conducting their work. Some of the distinct advantages of the use of scales and objective measures are: (1) they eliminate personal opinion and bias and give impartial results; (2) they make possible an accurate comparison of the progress of each pupil from grade to grade; (3) they enable school principals and teachers to determine the progress made by groups of pupils as they pass from grade to grade thru the school; (4) they enable impartial comparisons to be made of the work of rooms in the same buildings, and also of rooms or grades in one building with corresponding rooms or grades in other buildings; (5) they enable comparisons of the work in the different buildings to be made; (6) they enable accurate comparisons of work in different cities to be made; (7) they give an accurate scheme for comparing the results of different methods of teaching given subjects and also of different plans of school organization; (8) they give the teacher a very accurate means of measuring his own pupils, which is possibly the most important result. Teachers are now learning that these new viewpoints enable them to improve very materially their classroom work.

Objective measurements bring out individual differences and class differences that are surprising. For example, in accurate copying, the best seventh-grade class in the Kansas City schools made only one-seventh as many errors per pupil as the poorest seventh-grade class. In the Courtis research tests in arithmetic, the best fourth-grade class had five times the medium speed of the poorest one, and seven times the median in accuracy. Such differences raise important questions in the minds of principals and teachers.

Our supervisor of writing has been collecting specimens of writing at the beginning of each year and at the end of each year. Until our bureau undertook the study of penmanship, he had not fully realized that some buildings actually made almost no progress in the quality of writing during the year, and that other buildings made a progress of two Thorndike points, and that as a result of this great variation in progress in the quality of handwriting there were several third-grade rooms in the city that last May wrote better than several seventh-grade rooms.

A comparison of the October papers with the May papers in writing revealed the fact that the different schools had no common aim in teaching handwriting and that they had no standard for speed and quality for the different grades. Some schools reduced their speed during the year and improved the quality of their handwriting; others aimed to secure speed, and did so at the sacrifice of the quality of the handwriting. Often in the same building the aims of the teachers seemed at variance.

Without question, definite standards of quality and speed in handwriting should be established for each grade and the teachers given specific goals to be reached. In general in Kansas City, when both quality and speed are considered, the greatest progress in writing was made in the fourth grade; the sixth grade ranked second, the fifth grade ranked third, the seventh grade came fourth, and the third grade ranked fifth. However, if speed alone is considered, the third grade made the greatest progress, but, in making progress in speed, it made almost no progress in quality; and many rooms lost in quality.

This study in writing only indicates a condition that is general in our school systems, and shows the need of more accurate measurements and more definite aims on the part of our teachers.

STANDARDIZATION OF TEACHERS' EXAMINATIONS

STUART A. COURTIS, SUPERVISOR OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH, DETROIT, MICH.

It is hardly necessary to remind this audience of the rapid growth of the movement for the use of measurement in education. Five years ago, had anyone suggested the possibility of a meeting of this kind, he would have been looked upon as a person of unsound mind; but today, from one end of this country to the other, measurement has an established place. It is true that, so far, measurement has been used mainly by those interested in survey work, by students of education, or by superintendents and teachers doing a little experimental work out of mere curiosity. Yet, during the meetings this week, the point has been emphasized over and over again that measurement should be of direct value to the teacher, and again and again the warning has been sounded that, if steps are not taken by those interested in the movement to make standard tests and scales practicable for daily use in the classroom, a reaction against measurement is bound to set in. I wish this afternoon to emphasize this warning and to indicate the steps taken here in Detroit to meet this need. As Director of Educational Research in a large city system, I am more directly interested in the improvement of the efficiency of teaching effort than I am in the more general problems of purely scientific research.

In all forms of educational measurement the standard test is an essential feature. Now, standard tests are little more than standard examinations. It is true that they measure single and very simple abilities, and that the conditions under which they are given and scored are very carefully controlled. Nevertheless, in all their essential features they are primarily examinations. They become "standard" tests only in two ways. One type of test is called "standard," because the text itself has been standardized by giving it to a large number of children, so that norms of performance have been established. The other type may be called "standard" for a different reason. Where the abilities measured are very simple and the factors involved few in number, the analysis of the testing material may be so complete and so perfect as to make it possible to construct duplicate tests exactly equal in value to the first. It is, of course, just as necessary to standardize such tests as it is to standardize those of the first type, but when such a test has been used in one extensive investigation, the scores that will be obtained in the use of all subsequent editions of it can be predicted with certainty.

At the present time almost all standard tests are of the first type, for the simple reason that very little knowledge exists in regard to the factors which determine the diffi-

culty of such tests. For instance, the Ayres spelling scale is constructed on the basis of the actual performances of many children; Thorndike's handwriting scale is based upon the judgment of many teachers. So Kelly's reading tests and many other tests of the same kind are useful measures only after standard values have been assigned to every question in accordance with the performances of many children. The other type of test, however, is much more to be desired, and it is possible but difficult to make. For instance, the paragraphs of Gray's reading scale gradually increase in difficulty. This fact is proved by the failure of first-grade children to read successfully more than the first paragraph or two of this scale. The second grade is able to penetrate farther into the paragraphs of the scale. No one knows, however, just what it is that makes paragraph three more difficult than paragraph two and less difficult than paragraph four. In addition, which is a much simpler ability, the various factors to be controlled are definitely known. Test 1, Series B, of the Standard Research Tests, for instance, can be duplicated endlessly without changing in the slightest the difficulty of the test itself. At the present time, three such editions of the tests have been issued, and a fourth is to be constructed soon.

The value of Gray's reading scale would be very greatly increased were it possible to duplicate at will the various paragraphs of the scale; and as an illustration of the kind of research work which must be completed before this type of standard test in reading can be constructed, I wish to present a consideration of the factors whose effect must be determined.

As I see it, the factors to be considered are of three kinds. The first of these is purely mechanical, dealing with such qualities as size of type, form of letters, spacing of letters and words, etc.; the second series of factors are those which depend upon the content, or thought elements, of the paragraph or sentence; the third series of factors are those which must be controlled in the giving and scoring of the tests. I shall discuss each of these in turn.

To make my discussion concrete, consider as a basic sentence (Fig. 1),

The girl is running down the street. (29 letters)

Fig. 1

Printed in eight-point type with conventional spacing, this sentence, which contains 29 letters, makes a line $2\frac{1}{4}$ inches long. The problem, then, is to construct a second sentence which shall be equal, in difficulty of reading, to the first.

Let us consider the mechanical features involved, the first of which is structure. The sentence, "The boy is climbing up the tree," parallels in number of words and in general structure the basic sentence. It is three letters shorter, to be sure, but as far as structure is concerned is nearly the equal of the first. If, however, the sentence were changed to "Which girl ran upstairs?" it would be impossible to say without trial whether the new sentence is more or less difficult than the original sentence. We need, therefore, careful evaluation of the differences in difficulty, if any, which are due to the structure of the sentence alone.

I have already referred to a second factor which must be considered, "length." For, if instead of the basic sentence, "The girl is running down the street," we were to use "The pretty little girl is running down the street, chasing her black dog," we know without trial that the sentence would take more time to read and would involve a greater number of eye movements. We need to determine very accurately, however, what the effect of such an increase in length from 29 to 59 letters would be. Is the longer sentence twice as difficult as the first, or only once and a half? For in the duplication of any paragraph of a set form, there is bound to be some variation in the length of constituent sentences.

So in the printing of our tests, we must be careful as to the size of the type and as to the spacing. For instance, in Fig. 2, notice that in one case our basic sentence is printed in large primer and in the other in six-point type.

a. The girl is running
down the street.

b. The girl is running down the street.

Fig. 2

Even to the adult, the difference in difficulty of reading is evident. The exact value of this factor also must be determined before we can measure the degree of development in reading in passing from the readers of the elementary grades to those of the later years.

Similarly, in Fig. 3, there is given an illustration of the basic sentence printed in condensed type closely spaced, and in type widely spaced.

a. The girl is running down the street.

b. The girl is running down the
street.

Fig. 3

Not only are there differences in the distance the eye must travel, which would affect the time of reading and, therefore, the relative difficulty of the two sentences, but the psychological effect of the two styles of printing upon even the adult mind is marked.

In similar fashion, any change in length or character of the actual line of type, entirely aside from the length of the sentence, also produces a change in difficulty. Those who have worked with children in the first and second grades know that a distinct step in advance has been made when a child can read a sentence in the forms given in Fig. 4,

a. The girl
is run-
ning down
the street.

b. The girl is running
down the street.

Fig. 4

instead of in the form in which the basic sentence is first given (Fig. 1). These changes in mechanical features seem trivial to those who have given them no attention, but to those whose work lies in this field they are known to be of the very greatest importance. The average teacher is astonished to find that trivial changes in conditions cause children to appear to have forgotten all they have ever learned. But if the reader will look at Fig. 5, in which the basic sentence is printed upside down,

The girl is running down the street.

Fig. 5

he will realize that so slight a thing as a change of position may throw his reading habits almost entirely out of gear.

In addition to all the factors mentioned, there is the difficulty due to differences in the ease of word recognition. In changing from the sentence, "The girl is running down the street," to the sentence, "The boy is climbing up the tree," if "boy" is easier to recognize than "girl," if "running" is easier to recognize than "climb," if "street" is easier to recognize than "tree," the resultant value of the second sentence may be less than that of the first, altho every other factor has been kept carefully the same. This, how-

ever, is a point about which we have no information whatever, and even on the mechanical side it is impossible at present to construct, with any certainty of the result, two sentences of equal value.

If we now leave the mechanical factors and turn to the content factors, we shall find an even more serious situation. Consider, for instance, the three sentences: "The girl is running down the street," "The boy is climbing up the tree," "The misanthrope is sulking in his den." These sentences in structure, size of type, number of letters, etc., are of nearly the same value, but even for the adult reader there will be differences in difficulty, due to the fact that in the third sentence the thought element, aroused by the stimulus of the printed words, is very different.

The major element in the content situation is probably the familiarity of the reader with the particular word forms used; a second important element is the incentive which leads to the act of reading. All content difficulties are to be evaluated in terms of experience. The difficulty of a word for a reader is probably determined by the frequency and recency of its use and by the interest and emotional atmosphere surrounding the conditions of its use. It is, of course, hopeless to attempt to evaluate completely the relative difficulties of different words for individual children; but it would be perfectly possible to analyze the vocabularies of children in terms of average frequency and conditions of use. Such an analysis of the English language for different ages and types of life is urgently needed. If such data were available, tests of nearly equal value could be constructed, and the process of determining the exact value of the various units by the reactions of unselected groups of children would be very greatly shortened.

The third set of factors governing the equality of tests are those which have to do with the testing conditions themselves. The incentive of the children to put forth their best efforts will be determined largely by the instructions, personality, and general manner of the examiner. Teachers, as a rule, try to secure from each child the utmost possible performance, and are very quick to resent the efforts of scientific men to control conditions under which tests are given, in order to keep them uniform. The results from child to child, however, are not comparable, unless the instructions and general procedure are the same for all. The factor of personality is a difficult one to control, but there is some evidence tending to show that the differences produced by this factor are not large, providing conscientious care is taken to fulfil standard conditions. A far more important factor is the question of the timing of the test. Scrupulous care must be taken to keep exact time. In a test of one minute's duration, a variation of one second at the beginning and at the end will make a total variation of 3 per cent in the result. So with the length of the test. If a test is so short that all are able to finish in a given time, the subjects measured will appear to be of equal ability. On the other hand, if the test had been long enough to keep all occupied for a longer interval, large individual differences in scores would have been revealed. So, too, a test of short duration in addition is a different thing from a test, with exactly the same type of examples, of long duration, because of the variation in results caused by differences in the effects of practice and fatigue.

In similar fashion, we need much more information in regard to the effects of physical conditions. We all understand that in a test in reading a proper degree in illumination is essential for the best work, that the most gifted person would make the same score as the imbecile if both were required to read in absolute darkness; but we have not paid enough attention to the effects of small differences in light, temperature, humidity, etc., and we have not evaluated at all the effects of the position and physiological condition of the subject under examination.

Even after all the elements in the tests themselves, or in the conditions under which the tests are given, have been accurately measured and controlled, the results secured will be influenced by the methods of scoring and tabulating. The primary need, of course, is for standard marking. It is essential that a given unit have the same value for all, but it is equally essential that the tabulations of the results be made in the same manner

for all. If one city defines efficiency of a test in addition on the basis of the percentage of the children who can work at average speed with perfect accuracy, while another city defines efficiency on the basis of the percentage of the children able to work at average speed with 80 per cent accuracy or better, it is evident that, altho the actual data secured in the two cities may be precisely the same, the statement in regard to efficiency in the respective cities would differ widely. In this connection, let me make a plea for approximate methods and greater simplicity of procedure. We know at the present time that the results of any single test, no matter how carefully controlled, contain a large gross error of approximately 10 per cent caused by the variability which is a constant characteristic of all human performances. It would seem foolish, therefore, to carry correlation

Form A										Form B.																			
Lesson No. _____ Form _____ Date _____										Lesson No. _____ Form _____ Date _____																			
Name _____					Grade _____					Name _____					Grade _____														
Add										Subtract																			
3	8	4	8	4	9	152	118	165	94	2	3	4	6	8	2	134	129	163	125										
9	6	8	9	2	5	56	68	97	23	7	1	8	3	9	9	76	68	85	76										
9	1	7	6	3	9	120	152	90	57	8	3	8	9	0	4	93	178	85	163										
3	7	1	3	2	2	97	78	71	29	4	2	3	4	1	9	77	84	47	79										
8	2	3	8	5	3					9	5	5	7	5	6														
6	3	9	6	7	6	71	121	125	123	5	1	9	3	1	4	72	112	117	126										
3	9	3	2	2	1	37	46	57	38							25	16	67	79										
Multiply										Multiply																			
31	42	23	71	62	51	21	32	43	51	32	73				21	32	43	51											
24	23	13	42	24	47	19	21	12	37	34	41				19	21	12	37											
Divide										Divide																			
21)395					32)672					43)555					31)744					42)566					13)299				
51)887					34)2788					71)2952					24)1488														
SCORES Total _____ Right _____ LESSON No. 13 TEST A (Lessons 1-12) Form A										SCORES Total _____ Right _____ LESSON No. 13 TEST A (Lessons 1-12) Form B																			

Fig. 6

coefficients to the fourth decimal place with data which are reliable only for the first digit. It seems foolish to try to determine whether a given specimen of handwriting is to be graded 11.2 or 11.8 on the Thorndike scale, when the average variation in the judgment from which the scale values were determined amounts to many units of the scale. In this connection, it is interesting to note the very great change in value of all such judgments when the same sets of samples are submitted to judges with very different training. In Detroit we use muscular-movement writing, and it is very difficult for teachers trained to consider the merits of handwriting from the point of view of muscular movement to use accurately such scales as the Ayres and Thorndike handwriting scales, no samples of which conform to their standards of judgment.

From all that has been said, it will be evident that the actual construction of tests and the planning of testing conditions is a scientific activity, calling for a large amount of technical skill and experience. When a test has been constructed and the conditions under which it is to be given have been determined, administering, scoring, and tabulating are purely mechanical steps, which may be carried out by any person of average intel-

ligence and a small amount of special training. The real problem confronting directors of educational research, therefore, is that of devising tests or examinations which will be valid according to the most rigorous scientific standards, but which can be administered by classroom teachers and which will yield definite knowledge, of value to the ordinary classroom teacher. In my judgment, measurement is certain to prove ineffective in school work, except for purposes of supervisory control, unless it is possible to put into the hands of all our teachers instruments designed primarily to aid them in measuring the effects of their own efforts.

By way of a concrete illustration of the type of test referred to, I present in Fig. 6 a test in arithmetic.

In Detroit we use the Standard Practice Tests. The assignment for the term consists of lessons ranging from very simple examples in the four fundamental operations to the longest examples that a child in the grades is likely to be called upon to solve. There are 48 lessons of equal difficulty, and they are so arranged that it is possible for each child to progress at his own rate and work in his own way without interfering in any way with the group formation. Our experimental work in the past has proved conclusively that the children most likely to be injured by such drill work are those who at the beginning of the year already possess those habits of speed and accuracy which the practice lessons are designed to generate. An attempt has been made, therefore, to imbed in the practice work a form of standard test which will enable a teacher both to eliminate those who are up to standard and to measure the effects of her teaching. The test shown in the illustration covers the abilities represented in the first 12 lessons. The factors which determine the difficulty of this test are so completely known that it is possible

to construct as many editions of the test as may be desired, so that a teacher may measure a child over and over again and yet be sure that a change in the scores is not due to a change in the measuring instrument itself. In the illustration two forms of this test are shown.

During the first week of the term all the children are measured twice with this test. Those who are up to standard are excused from drill and have the time for study in more important work. The others take the practice lessons, and at the end of six or seven weeks of drill the tests are repeated.

Upon completing a test, the teacher fills out a record sheet which is sent to the department and from which tabulations of city-wide results are made. In Fig. 7 an actual record for an eighth-grade class is shown. The tests were given on February 8 and 9. There were 25 children in the class, and on the first day three had perfect papers, on the second day two. The average number having perfect papers was, therefore, 10 per cent of the class, and the figure for efficiency¹ at the bottom of the report should have

¹The reader should note that "efficiency" as here defined means merely the percentage of the children who have completed their training.

Class Record
DETROIT PUBLIC SCHOOLS
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH
PRACTICE TESTS IN ARITHMETIC
REPORT OF TEST *A Lesson 13*

Teacher *Mary M. Brown*
School *Mumford* Grade *8* Room *A*
Date *Feb. 9 and 10* Form *A + B*

	1st Trial	2nd Trial
Total number of children in class	25	25
Number having perfect papers	3	2
Per cent. having perfect papers	12	8
Number missing but one example	2	0
Per cent. missing but one example	8	0
Number excused from Lesson Nos. 1-12		5
Per cent. excused from Lesson Nos. 1-12		20
Efficiency / 2 . Efficiency Previous Trial Gain		
City Results.—Efficiency Gain Per cent. excused		

One copy of this report is to be sent to the Department of Educational Research and the other is to be kept on file in the school.

Fig. 7

been 10 per cent instead of 12 per cent as written by the teacher. On the first day there were in this group of 25 children two children who came within one example of having perfect papers. Altogether there were five children who were excused from drill upon lessons 1 to 12. This means that the three children who were perfect the first day were not the same as the two children who were perfect the second day. Under the conditions under which these tests are used, children perfect either day are excused from drill, so that in this class one-fifth of the children had the drill time free to spend upon other lessons.

These practice tests are in use in 50 schools with 13,000 children and some 434 classes. The median efficiency for the entire city is 2.3 per cent; the median per cent of the classes excused for the entire city is 2.8 per cent. These results, when reported to the teacher, will be written in on the last line of the class-record sheet, and in this particular case the teacher will see at once that the material in her class is superior to that of the city at large. At the end of seven weeks, the teachers of the city, on a given date, will repeat these measurements. From the reports sent in at that time, a second city-wide tabulation will be made, and, from a comparison of the two results, it will be possible to determine the

average gain for the different grades. These will be reported back to the teachers and each one will be able to tell at once whether her teaching efforts have produced a greater or less effect than those of other teachers.

Each teacher, also, keeps a daily record like that shown in Fig. 8.

This record is to be interpreted as follows: John Smith in the first test worked correctly only 24 of the 29 examples in Test A. He was, therefore,

Teachers' Record
TEACHER'S RECORD SHEET

Name *A. W. Jones* School *Lincoln* Grade *7*

Names of Children	Scores: Number of Trials to complete successfully Lesson												Total	
	Test A	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11		12
1 <i>John Smith</i>	24	3	2	2	3	3	1	2	1	2	2	1	1	29
2 <i>May Brown</i>	10	15	6	7	5	8	6	4	2	5	2	3	2	24
3 <i>Tom Black</i>	12	5	4	5	5	5	5	5	4	5	3	4	3	12

Fig. 8

required to take the drills. He was able to complete Lesson 1 in three trials, Lesson 2 in two trials, and so on. In the second test his score was 29 examples, proving that he had benefited by his drills. May Brown, on the other hand, had in the initial test a score of only 10 examples correctly worked, and required a very large number of trials to complete each lesson. Her score in the second test (24) shows that, while her training has helped her greatly, it is not yet complete. Tom Black had an initial score of 12, and after ten weeks of work, in which apparently he was completing each lesson in 4 or 5 trials, his score in the final test was 12, indicating that there was no transfer from the practice work to the examination. Such a child is at once reported to the department for investigation and special assistance.

The illustration which has been given represents the attempt to control the construction of tests and the conditions under which they are given and scored so completely that the results obtained by different teachers are comparable. Our experiment in Detroit—which is, of course, very limited, as the tests were used for the first time this year—seems to indicate that our efforts have been successful. But it is also certain that for very many years the ordinary teacher's examination will be the chief instrument by which the teacher may measure both the development of the child and the success of her own effort. Accordingly, there is a third type of standardization possible, which Detroit is also attempting.

At the beginning of the year, principals were asked to hand in copies of all examinations that were given in their schools. An analysis of these was begun, to determine the essential elements of a standard examination for a given grade. A sixth-grade examination in arithmetic was standardized by C. W. Stone. Why should not Detroit standardize examinations for every grade and every subject? This does not mean at all that every teacher must give the same examinations, but that a book of standard examinations may

be issued later, in which typical examinations for every grade may be shown, with detailed directions for giving and rating the various questions. A teacher would be free to select model questions from any grade or type, or to make up new questions at will. But for each type of question, or for an examination as a whole, the standard models would furnish a guide as to method of rating and as to relative difficulty.

The construction of the standard models will, of course, require many years of work, but the most essential step is making a beginning, and that step has been taken in Detroit. Already significant results have been secured and suggestions developed for future experimental work and for the construction of tests. For instance, questions on the writing of numbers occur in every grade. In the B-2 grade, 39 per cent of the questions deal with this point, in the A-2 grade but 5 per cent. In the A-4 grade, the number has dropped to 2 per cent of the total questions asked, and the percentage for this topic remains at about this figure, being also 2 per cent of the total number of questions asked in the eighth grade. Evidently a standard test covering this one point is needed, and the construction of such a test will be undertaken in the immediate future.

In precisely similar fashion, it has been found that questions dealing with the mere mechanics of addition of fractions are about 2 per cent of the total number of questions in the A-3 examinations, about 10 per cent of the B-4 questions, 9 per cent of the B-5 questions, 6 per cent of the A-5, and 1 per cent of the B-6. From this point on they occur less frequently than once in one hundred questions. It is very evident from these figures that the addition of fractions is learned in grades B-4 to A-5. An examination of the questions themselves shows a certain increase in difficulty in these grades. The department, therefore, will formulate in a very definite way typical questions in the addition of fractions for these grades. It will determine, by the direct giving and scoring of these standard questions, their relative difficulty. Finally, both the questions themselves, and the standards derived from them, together with the information secured as to the factors to be controlled in the construction of questions of equal difficulty, will be issued in such form that the information will be available for all the teachers of the city. Similar analysis of the questions in the history, geography, and English-composition papers is now under way.

The most important conclusion so far drawn from this work is that a very large number of elements are ordinarily covered in a conventional examination. Questions involving thought and the use of knowledge occur with questions involving purely mechanical skills. Moreover, it is the general custom to divide the credits equally among the questions in the examinations without regard to their real character or difficulty. Under these conditions, a mark of 75 per cent has no meaning, for it is not 75 per cent of a given desired ability, but of a complex of abilities, and may indicate merely that the child has neither the information nor the skill to do any of the work adequately. In the opinion of the writer, questions involving the development of skills, such, for instance, as the addition of whole numbers, or the addition of fractions, or the reading of Arabic numbers, should not occur in final examinations. Each specific skill can be adequately measured only by a test composed wholly of examples of a single type. The best examination, also, is not that represented by the score of a single performance on a certain day. Human effort is too variable and human skill too easily upset to make it fair to have promotions depend upon such chance scores. For these mechanical skills promotions should depend upon the median performance of a large number of trials thru the term; i.e., they should depend upon the daily increase in amount and quality of scores toward the standard, thru a long period of time. If a child has shown consistent development in repeated tests during the term, a single poor performance on a certain day has little significance.

On the other hand, questions involving thought and power to do are of quite a different character. We are today in desperate need of a measuring scale for ability in thinking and reasoning. The department is undertaking the measurement of reasoning

problems in arithmetic, following the general plans of Buckingham and Ayres in spelling. How rapidly this work can proceed no one can tell, but in this, as in the other types of standardization suggested above, progress will depend greatly upon the co-operative efforts of many workers; and if this paper stimulates the efforts of other members of this organization along these same lines, it will have served its purpose.

IMPROVING INSTRUCTION THRU EDUCATIONAL MEASUREMENT

FRANK W. BALLOU, DIRECTOR, DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL INVESTIGATION AND MEASUREMENT, PUBLIC SCHOOLS, BOSTON, MASS.

The Department of Educational Investigation and Measurement in Boston is undertaking its measurement work on the theory that "the ultimate purpose of all educational measurement is to increase the effectiveness of the instruction which the child receives."

THREE STEPS IN THE PROCESS OF IMPROVEMENT

In the process of improving educational results thru educational measurement, three quite distinct steps are involved:

1. The quality of the educational results now being obtained must be measured by the best available standard tests as a basis for determining just what the present educational achievement is. This involves also analyzing that achievement and judging it in the light of what, for a better term, may be called a standard achievement.
2. After the present educational achievement has been thus analyzed, suggestions must be made for improvement where results are unsatisfactory. These suggestions may be given in informal conferences with individual teachers or with groups, or they may be presented to teachers in the form of printed reports. The sagacious superintendent or school official will not put them into the form of official orders.
3. When a reasonable time has elapsed after the suggestions have been made, similar standard tests must be repeated to determine what effect, if any, the suggestions have had on the instruction. These second tests should not be given until the teachers have had ample time in which to put the suggestions into operation. The suggestions cannot be made today and the tests given tomorrow, or even next week.

PRESENT STATUS OF EDUCATIONAL MEASUREMENT IN BOSTON

In Boston, as elsewhere, the measurement of educational results is in its initial stages. In Boston the first step in the above program has been taken in several subjects; the second step has been taken in a few cases; but the third step has not as yet been taken in any subject except for the four fundamental operations in arithmetic. It is the purpose of this paper to outline, briefly, the educational-measurement work which has been started in Boston, and to review more fully the results which have been achieved for the four fundamental operations in arithmetic, because that is the subject which has received special attention for a sufficient length of time to warrant the expectation of measurable results.

The work which has already been undertaken in Boston to determine the present educational achievements will now be briefly described.

1. *Accurate copying.*—One of the eight requirements in English for graduation from an elementary school, defined by the committee on standards in English and approved and put into effect by the Board of Superintendents, reads:

A graduate of an elementary school should be able to copy at least twelve lines of simple prose or poetry and a bill of at least seven items. Copying is not an end in itself, but a means to an end. The pupils should be made to see that accuracy in arithmetic, language, and other subjects may depend largely on accuracy in copying.

A standard test was prepared by the department and given to 4,944 first-year high-school pupils in November after they had been in the high school only about two months. For our purpose they were considered only elementary-school graduates. In this test the department was concerned with finding out to what extent elementary-school graduates measure up to this theoretical standard.

The standard for accurate copying, based on the median achievement of those 4,944 pupils, is stated as follows:

A boy graduating from the elementary school should be able to copy fifteen and a half lines (four and a half inches long, or thirty ems of ten-point type) of ordinary prose in fifteen minutes, making not more than five errors of any kind (spelling, punctuation, capitalization, words added, words omitted, wrong words used, misplaced words, uncrossed *i*'s, and undotted *i*'s).

A girl graduating from the elementary school should be able to copy sixteen lines of ordinary prose in fifteen minutes, making not more than three errors of any kind. (Length of line and kinds of errors same as above.)

A mixed class of boys and girls should be able to copy sixteen lines of ordinary prose in fifteen minutes, making not more than four errors of any kind. (Length of line and kinds of errors same as above.)

In due time, after teachers have had opportunity to study the successes and failures of pupils in this test, and also have had opportunity to improve their instruction, another test of the same kind will be given to measure the improvement.

2. *Spelling*.—The department is proceeding on the assumption that one of the reasons for the lack of ability to spell on the part of some pupils lies in the fact that teachers are spreading their instruction over too many words, many of which are practically useless to the pupil. As a means of economizing the time of teacher and pupil, and improving the pupil's ability to spell, the department is preparing a course of study for each grade, which shall consist primarily of words used voluntarily by normal pupils in their written work.

In making up the lists of words for each grade, teachers were asked to furnish lists of alleged difficult words. The teachers' lists have revealed two things: first, that mere opinion or a priori reasoning is not an adequate basis for determining the degree of difficulty of spelling for given words, because many of the alleged difficult words were spelled correctly by 990 out of 1,000 pupils in a rigid test given last May; secondly, that many of the words which teachers have reported as being difficult to spell are words which elementary-school pupils should not be expected to spell. Teachers have been trying to teach such words as convalescence, coupé, crochet, diaphragm, dilatory, equilibrium, fictitious, hypotenuse, impenetrability, knuckles, licorice, malleable, mayonnaise, naphtha, phlegm, quadrilateral, reminiscence, sovereignty, and zephyr when the children are misspelling such common words as business, divide, either, enough, fourth, library, ninety, similar, straight, their, there, and which. Limiting instruction to a reasonable list of words, and thereby economizing the time and energy of both teacher and pupil, is the first step which Boston has taken toward improvement in spelling.

Boston has also taken another step to promote better spelling. As a result of the tests given last May, the degree of difficulty of each word in the spelling-lists for the various grades has been determined according to the ability of 1,000 pupils to spell it. Each word has thus been standardized, so that each teacher knows what words are most difficult for the children of her grade. She likewise knows with what degree of accuracy the children of her class ought to spell the assigned words.

One further step has been taken in Boston. A committee of Boston teachers has been organized to study the various methods of teaching spelling. This committee has reviewed all the periodical and other literature touching on this subject which has been published during the last several years. The recommendations of each educational writer on methods in spelling were discussed by the committee, and each teacher during the next ten weeks is to carry on in her school an experiment involving some phase of the

methods of teaching spelling. At the close of this year's work a printed report for teachers will set forth the results of these experiments.

3. *Geography*.—The first and second steps in the above program have also been taken in the subject of geography. A test was recently given covering certain phases of the geography of the United States and Europe. Exactly the same test was given to 594 eighth-grade pupils, to 166 third-year high-school pupils, and to 83 first-year pupils in the Boston Normal School. The most surprising result shown by this test is that so little of what has been taught in the sixth grade remains in the minds of eighth-grade, high-school, or normal-school pupils. This test has indicated the urgent need of defining the minimum essentials in the course of study, if pupils graduating from the elementary school are to carry with them a knowledge of those common facts of geography which should be the intellectual possession of every person.

4. *Penmanship*.—The quality of the handwriting of elementary-school graduates has also been studied. A random selection of 600 papers was made from the 4,944 papers written in the test in accurate copying. These papers were studied by a committee of six Boston teachers who are especially proficient in the teaching of penmanship. The papers were rated according to the Ayres scale for adult handwriting, disregarding the even-numbered specimens in that scale.

The committee has also analyzed the merits and defects of these specimens of handwriting, and a report is being prepared for distribution among the teachers of the city. The department believes that merely calling the attention of teachers to the merits and defects of the handwriting of the children is to promote systematic improvement.

5. *Addition of fractions*.—In December a test in the addition of fractions, prepared by the department, was given in the sixth, seventh, and eighth grades of the elementary schools. The usual procedure of analyzing the results and printing a report for the use of teachers will be followed.

6. *Four fundamentals in arithmetic*.—Addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division are the only phases of any subject in which educational measurement has been carried on for a sufficient length of time to make it reasonable to expect any tangible results therefrom. The remaining portion of this paper will describe the methods employed to utilize the results of the Curtis tests in Boston, and the improved results which have been obtained for the four fundamental operations.

The Curtis standard tests were introduced into Boston in October, 1912, when Mr. Curtis was employed by the School Committee to make a study of the results of arithmetic instruction. Since that time the Curtis standard tests have been given five times in Boston.

The introduction of the tests into the city has been gradual. They were first given in twenty-one of the seventy elementary schools of the city. Gradually from ten to fifteen more schools have been added in the five successive testing periods, until in May, 1915, all of the seventy elementary schools were tested, involving 214 buildings and 55,277 pupils.

METHODS EMPLOYED TO IMPROVE INSTRUCTION

Before taking up a detailed account of the results of testing work in arithmetic, it will be well to consider the use which has been made from time to time of the results of that testing work. This will illustrate not only how the improvement in the four fundamental operations in arithmetic has been brought about, but it will also show the methods by which the department undertakes the improvement of instruction in any subject.

1. *Standards have been established*.—Objective standards of achievement in the four fundamental operations in arithmetic have been established for Grades IV to VIII in the elementary schools. These standards have been established on the basis of the median achievement of all the pupils in all the schools tested. These standards not only represent the present educational achievement of the elementary schools in the four fundamental operations, but they indicate a reasonable achievement for any class of normal pupils.

As in other cities, Boston finds great variation in the achievement of pupils and classes—a condition which appears to a considerable extent as unnecessary as it is educationally disadvantageous. The lower 29 per cent of the eighth-grade pupils have no more ability than the upper 29 per cent of the fourth-grade pupils. Ultimately this variation should be reduced thru a better educational classification of pupils. If these objective standards become the end to be attained by pupil and teacher, and if they become an incentive for both to put forth their best efforts or to economize time, as the case may be, the results cannot be other than a more homogeneous group of pupils in each class and grade.

2. *Formal reports have been made.*—The report made to each teacher places her in a position to know how her class stands in comparison with the established standard for that grade. What is still more important, these reports tell her which pupils made low scores and probably need special attention and which pupils made high scores, and hence should not be subjected to any unnecessary further drill.

A report has been made to each principal after each test, showing the relative standing of his school in the city and of each class in his school. Every principal may find from these reports which classes stand relatively low and should have special attention in his supervision. These reports have been made as professional and more or less confidential reports from the director of the department to the principal of the school. Detailed comparison of the work of one teacher with that of another, which is likely to arouse controversy or hard feeling, has been studiously avoided. The form of the report has been such as to protect the individual teacher, and no publicity has attended it. What official use is made of the report is left entirely to the discretion of each principal.

The superintendent has been furnished with copies of all statistical tabulations and reports for his information and for such individual use as he cares to make of them.

Inasmuch as educational measurement is at present fairly well begun in Boston, the Board of Superintendents and the department are now engaged in working out a plan for placing the results of educational measurement in the hands of each assistant superintendent, to be used in his supervision of schools and teachers. When such a plan has been perfected, the necessary official machinery will have been set up for securing the most effective and far-reaching benefits from the work of the department.

From the above description it is clear that the results thus far achieved in educational measurement have been brought about without administrative pressure of any kind. The department has no authority whatever over principals, and has not undertaken to direct them. Whatever has been accomplished has been brought about thru the professional attitude of principals and teachers toward this problem of economizing time and effort in the obtaining of a satisfactory result. The credit for the achievement belongs, therefore, to the principals and teachers rather than to the department of which the writer is director.

3. *Printed bulletins have been distributed.*—In addition to the reports just described, the department has prepared bulletins analyzing the statistical results, explaining their significance, and suggesting methods of improving unsatisfactory results. These bulletins have been published as School Committee documents and a copy has been given to each teacher.

4. *Systematic practice material has been introduced.*—Undoubtedly the most important means of improving instruction in the four fundamental operations in arithmetic has been the introduction of systematic practice material or exercises which take the place of the former general class drill in which every child practiced on the same exercise. The Courtis tests have demonstrated conclusively that the mass or class-drill exercises in addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division are ineffective and uneconomical. Mass drills provide unnecessary practice for the more capable third of the class, and hence are uneconomical; they do not provide enough practice for the less capable third of the class, and hence are ineffective. An economic distribution of drill requires that it provide a means of reaching the individual needs of the forty pupils of the class.

The department has not insisted on the use of any particular kind of practice material. Reports from the principals show that over 80 per cent are using one or more of five different kinds. The department has felt that each principal should be left to use that educational material which he and his teachers believe to be most effective, but the department then expects these principals and teachers to produce satisfactory results.

This brief sketch will give a general notion of the methods by which the department believes the educational results in various subjects can be improved. Undoubtedly the objective standards of achievement, the various reports made to teachers, to principals, and to the superintendent, the printing of bulletins for general distribution, the introduction of scientific practice material, have all contributed something toward the improvement of results in arithmetic. Of more pronounced effect probably than any of these factors, however, has been the stimulation among teachers of an inquiring attitude toward the whole problem of arithmetic instruction. The results of the tests have shown the need of improvement; they have shown that the problem of arithmetic teaching is not yet solved, and they have prompted many teachers to study their own work as the first step toward improving methods of instruction.

MEASURING IMPROVEMENT IN ARITHMETICAL RESULTS

Courtis standard tests, Series A, were given during the first year the Courtis tests were used in Boston, three years ago; and Series B has been used since then. Unfortunately, for our purpose, this makes it impossible to compare the achievement of pupils in 1912, when the tests were first given, with the achievement in 1915, after three years' use.

A most significant comparison can be made, however, between the results achieved in May, 1915, in the schools where the tests had been given for a period of three years and the results obtained in schools where the tests were given in May, 1915, for the first time. This comparison will show the cumulative effect of giving the tests in a group of schools over a three-year period. To make this comparison, the seventy elementary schools of Boston were divided into three groups and the results tabulated accordingly.

Group A schools in the following discussion are those in which the tests have been given since 1912. In Group A there are twenty-nine schools and 18,391 pupils represented.

Group B schools are those which were added during the second year or the first half of the third year of testing. They are schools which have been tested for periods of from one to two years, schools in which the effects of the testing may legitimately vary. In Group B there are seventeen schools and 15,241 pupils represented.

Group C schools are those in which the tests were given for the first time in May, 1915. They are schools which have not been affected by the Courtis testing work in the city, except in so far as general discussion of the work has affected individual teachers or principals. It should be said, however, that principals of these schools have had opportunity to introduce the practice material, and that several of them have done so. If these schools had not been at all affected by the system of educational measurement in the city, the superiority of the schools tested would have been even greater than it is. In Group C there are seventeen districts and 11,836 pupils represented.

In the following comparisons particular attention will be directed to the achievements of Group A schools and Group C schools, because these two groups represent the two extremes, the former having received the full effect of the testing work and the latter supposedly not any.

It should be understood that the schools tested by Mr. Courtis in 1912-13 were so selected as to represent the varying conditions found in the city. This same care has been taken in adding schools from year to year, so that one group of schools possesses no inherent superiority over another group.

By way of summary let it be noted: (1) that all the public elementary schools of the city are involved in this comparison; (2) that each group (A-B-C) is representative

of the varying conditions in the city; and (3) that the number of pupils involved is sufficiently large to constitute a reliable basis of comparison.

COMPARISON OF MEDIAN SCORES OF GROUP A, GROUP B, AND GROUP C
SCHOOLS BY SUBJECTS. MAY, 1915

TABLE I

ADDITION

GRADE	GROUP A		GROUP B		GROUP C	
	Speed	Accuracy	Speed	Accuracy	Speed	Accuracy
VIII.....	14.4	79.07 per cent	13.1	77.84 per cent	12.6	76.41 per cent
VII.....	12.9	77.50 per cent	11.6	74.15 per cent	11.6	74.24 per cent
VI.....	11.5	78.17 per cent	10.4	72.72 per cent	11.1	74.14 per cent
V.....	9.3	72.93 per cent	9.6	71.61 per cent	9.4	68.64 per cent
IV.....	8.2	70.00 per cent	7.6	65.15 per cent	7.7	63.11 per cent

The arrangement of the above table makes a comparison easy. For example, in the addition tests in Grade VIII, Group A schools achieved a median score of 14.4 examples attempted, with an accuracy of 79.07 per cent; Group C schools achieved a median score of 12.6 examples attempted, with an accuracy of 76.41 per cent. From a comparison of these scores we find that in addition Group A schools show a superiority over Group C schools of 1.8 examples attempted. This is a superiority of 14.3 per cent in amount of work done, and the table also shows a superiority of 2.66 per cent in accuracy for Group A schools.

TABLE II

SUBTRACTION

GRADE	GROUP A		GROUP B		GROUP C	
	Speed	Accuracy	Speed	Accuracy	Speed	Accuracy
VIII.....	14.6	89.73 per cent	13.1	88.77 per cent	12.4	86.92 per cent
VII.....	12.9	87.57 per cent	11.7	86.26 per cent	11.5	84.92 per cent
VI.....	11.5	88.01 per cent	10.7	85.69 per cent	11.0	88.73 per cent
V.....	9.3	85.14 per cent	9.4	84.44 per cent	9.0	80.64 per cent
IV.....	7.9	83.63 per cent	7.5	81.56 per cent	7.1	78.28 per cent

This comparison shows that, in subtraction, Group A schools possess a superiority over Group C schools of 2.2 examples attempted, or of 17.7 per cent. In achieving this increase of 17.7 per cent in the amount of work done, Group A schools have also at the same time surpassed Group C schools in accuracy by 2.81 per cent.

TABLE III

MULTIPLICATION

GRADE	GROUP A		GROUP B		GROUP C	
	Speed	Accuracy	Speed	Accuracy	Speed	Accuracy
VIII.....	12.1	82.58 per cent	11.2	81.19 per cent	10.8	80.42 per cent
VII.....	10.8	81.58 per cent	10.3	79.28 per cent	10.1	80.08 per cent
VI.....	9.5	78.45 per cent	8.8	76.67 per cent	9.4	79.93 per cent
V.....	7.6	75.69 per cent	7.7	76.01 per cent	7.3	70.97 per cent
IV.....	6.1	70.95 per cent	5.9	67.45 per cent	5.8	63.61 per cent

This comparison shows that, in multiplication, Group A schools possess a superiority over Group C schools of 1.3 examples attempted, or of 12 per cent. Group A schools surpass Group C schools in accuracy by 2.16 per cent.

TABLE IV

DIVISION

GRADE	GROUP A		GROUP B		GROUP C	
	Speed	Accuracy	Speed	Accuracy	Speed	Accuracy
VIII.....	12.7	93.46 per cent	12.0	92.08 per cent	11.0	89.72 per cent
VII.....	10.9	89.34 per cent	9.6	87.63 per cent	9.3	86.37 per cent
VI.....	8.9	88.09 per cent	7.9	85.02 per cent	8.6	86.72 per cent
V.....	6.2	78.98 per cent	6.7	80.05 per cent	6.2	73.68 per cent
IV.....	4.7	65.85 per cent	4.6	59.11 per cent	4.8	63.11 per cent

This comparison shows that, in division, Group A schools possess a superiority over Group C schools of 1.7 examples attempted, or of 15.5 per cent in amount of work done. In doing this increased amount of work, Group A schools have at the same time increased the accuracy with which the work has been done, so that they now surpass Group C schools in accuracy by 3.74 per cent.

In the preceding discussion comparisons have been limited to Group A and Group C schools and to the results in Grade VIII. The following table, based on the preceding tables, institutes a comparison concerning all three groups of schools and the five grades from the fourth to the eighth, inclusive. The table shows the difference between the speed median and accuracy median achieved in Group A and in Group B and Group C schools respectively.

The following table is to be interpreted as follows: In Grade VIII the pupils in Group A schools exceed in ability the pupils in Group B schools by a median score of 1.3

TABLE V

ADDITION

GRADE	GROUP B SCHOOLS		GROUP C SCHOOLS	
	In Speed	In Accuracy	In Speed	In Accuracy
VIII.....	1.3	1.23 per cent	1.8	2.66 per cent
VII.....	1.3	3.35 per cent	1.3	3.26 per cent
VI.....	1.1	5.45 per cent	.4	4.03 per cent
V.....	-.3	1.32 per cent	-.1	4.29 per cent
IV.....	.6	4.85 per cent	.5	6.89 per cent

SUBTRACTION

VIII.....	1.5	.96 per cent	2.2	2.81 per cent
VII.....	1.2	1.31 per cent	1.4	2.65 per cent
VI.....	.8	2.32 per cent	.5	-.72 per cent
V.....	-.1	.70 per cent	.3	4.50 per cent
IV.....	.4	2.07 per cent	.8	5.35 per cent

MULTIPLICATION

VIII.....	.9	1.39 per cent	1.3	2.16 per cent
VII.....	.5	2.30 per cent	.7	1.50 per cent
VI.....	.7	1.78 per cent	.1	-1.48 per cent
V.....	-.1	-.32 per cent	.3	4.72 per cent
IV.....	.2	3.50 per cent	.3	7.34 per cent

DIVISION

VIII.....	.7	1.38 per cent	1.7	3.74 per cent
VII.....	1.3	1.71 per cent	1.6	2.07 per cent
VI.....	1.0	3.07 per cent	.3	1.37 per cent
V.....	-.5	-1.07 per cent	.9	5.39 per cent
IV.....	.1	6.74 per cent	-.1	2.74 per cent

examples attempted and by 1.23 per cent in the accuracy with which they do their work; the same pupils surpass the pupils in Group C schools by a median score of 1.8 examples attempted and by 2.66 per cent in the accuracy with which they do their work.

In the ten cases where the number is preceded by a minus sign the median for Group A schools is lower than the median for the group given. In the seventy cases where no sign precedes the figure the advantage is in favor of Group A schools.

A few brief statements, without discussion, will summarize the conclusions to be drawn from this comparative table:

1. In the amount of work done in the four fundamental operations, Group A schools show superiority over Group B schools in sixteen out of twenty comparisons and over Group C schools in eighteen out of twenty comparisons.
2. In the accuracy with which the work is done, Group A schools show superiority over both Group B and Group C schools in seventeen out of twenty comparisons.
3. The ten cases in which Group A schools are surpassed in speed or accuracy by Group B or Group C schools are distributed as follows:

TABLE VI

	Group B	Group C	Total
Grade VIII.....	0	0	0
Grade VII.....	0	0	0
Grade VI.....	0	2	2
Grade V.....	6	1	7
Grade IV.....	0	1	1
Total.....	6	4	10

It is to be expected that in the earlier grades the differences between those schools tested and those not tested will be found to be small, because the cumulative effect of testing work can be hoped for only after several years of effort, and hence must always be found largely in the upper grades.

SIGNIFICANT OBSERVATIONS

1. The difference in amount of work done as shown in a comparison of Group A, Group B, and Group C schools is slight in the earlier grades and gradually grows more pronounced, until in the eighth grade the superiority of Group A schools over Group C schools is from 12 to 17.7 per cent.

2. This gain of from 12 to 17.7 per cent in the amount of work done has also been accompanied by an actual increase in the accuracy with which that work is done. Altho the idea has not been developed in this paper, it is proper to point out that in all testing work undertaken by the department those pupils who do most work do it most accurately. This is a refutation of the contention of would-be critics that pupils are inaccurate in the Courtis tests because they are hurried in their work.

3. The fact that the 18,391 pupils represented in Group A schools are graduating from the elementary school or are going into the next grade with varying degrees of superiority up to 17.7 per cent over the 11,839 pupils who have not been tested is altogether due directly or indirectly to the system of educational measurement in Boston.

4. It is also a significant fact that this achievement has been brought about without the exercise of any administrative pressure of any kind whatsoever. The results are wholly due to the desire of principals and teachers to make the best possible use of the time of teachers and pupils in securing a reasonably satisfactory educational result.

5. These results seem to prove two important propositions: (1) that the scientific measurement of educational results is possible and practicable in a large city school system; and (2) that educational measurement may be a means of improving those educational results.

ROUND TABLE OF COMPULSORY EDUCATION, SCHOOL CENSUS, AND CHILD WELFARE

DOES A STRICT ENFORCEMENT OF THE COMPULSORY-EDUCATION LAW ASSIST TEACHERS AND SUPERVISORS IN THEIR WORK?

EDWARD B. SHALLOW, ASSOCIATE CITY SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, NEW YORK, N.Y.

On May 1, 1914, a Bureau of Attendance, School Census, and Child Welfare was organized in the city of New York. In the work of this bureau, an attempt is made to have an up-to-date record of every child of school age within the city, to see that all such children are kept regularly in school, if they are fit to attend, and to bring to the aid of children who need help the assistance of social welfare agencies. Thru the work of this bureau, we have gathered much useful information while enforcing the law.

In the brief time at my disposal, I shall try to tell you how a strict enforcement of the compulsory-education law helps the work of teachers by increasing attendance, reducing retardation, and conserving a teacher's nervous energy.

1. *Increasing attendance.*—The 327 square miles of territory in the city of New York are divided into attendance districts, for the purposes of taking the school census and of enforcing the compulsory-education law. In this territory, there are approximately 1,326,500 persons between five and eighteen years of age; 850,000 of these are enrolled in public schools. During the past year, the percentage of attendance on the register was 90 per cent.

The following regulations governing the admission, transfer, and discharge of pupils in the city of New York may be of interest. Before these regulations were in force, thousands of children disappeared while transferring from one school to another.

The regulations provide that:

No pupil enrolled in a public school shall be discharged except by order of the principal for one of the following causes, which must be well established in each case: (1) proper and known admission to another school or to an institution; (2) the issuance of a duly authorized transfer; (3) commitment to a truant school or other reformatory institution; (4) transfer or expulsion in accordance with subdivisions 3, 4, and 5 of section 48 of the by-laws; (5) commitment to a charitable institution by a parent or guardian, a court, or a public officer; (6) notice from the director of attendance that an employment certificate has been issued and that the name of the child has been placed on the general suspense register; (7) death; (8) marriage; (9) graduation; in such case, the principal shall report the name of the child to the bureau of attendance, if it has not received a transfer to another school, or at the time of graduation has not obtained an employment certificate; (10) withdrawal by parent for any one of the following reasons: (a) instruction at home by a competent teacher, provided the district superintendent of the district in which the child lives has been notified and has approved the amount and the character of instruction; (b) physical disability certified as to cause and duration by a physician or other person duly recognized by the regents of the state of New York, provided the duration of such physical disability shall amount to one month; (c) mental disability when duly certified as sufficient for discharge by the city superintendent of schools; (11) permanent removal from the city; (12) inability to locate the residence of the pupil, when such fact shall have been duly reported to the principal of the school by the director of attendance.

The director of attendance shall maintain a general suspense register on which shall be placed the names of children residing in the city of New York, under sixteen years of age, who have been discharged and who are not regularly enrolled in a recognized school. He may require reports concerning the admission, transfer, and discharge of children from the public schools, and may arrange with schools not under the control of the board of education for similar reports.

Immigrant children admitted under bond by the immigration authorities to attend school for a given time shall not be discharged before the expiration of that time, except by permission of the director of attendance, nor shall a school record of attendance be issued to any such immigrant child to enable it to obtain an employment certificate, except by permission of the director of attendance.

When a pupil leaves school thru promotion or authorized transfer, a duplicate of his or her record card at the time of promotion or transfer shall be forwarded to the principal of the school to which such pupil is transferred.

The date and cause of discharge shall be entered immediately on the original and the duplicate of the record card of such pupil discharged as hereinbefore provided.

Every child is required to attend a school situated in the school district in which he resides. Within said district he shall attend the school nearest his residence. These requirements may be suspended by the city superintendent of schools.

The better method of enforcing the compulsory-education law, made affective in May, 1914, in the city of New York, and a stricter accountability of each attendance officer for the amount of work done each day, have done much, not only in increasing attendance at school but in preventing juvenile delinquency. Yet the law is not strictly enforced; this is not due to the method provided for doing the work, but rather to the inadequate financial support which the departments gets from the city government.

An evidence that a better enforcement of the compulsory-education law has increased attendance in the city of New York, may be seen in the fact that twelve years ago the attendance was only 86 per cent of the average register in public schools, whereas last year it was 90 per cent. A difference of 4 per cent less attendance in the enrolment of the New York schools for the past year would mean that 34,000 enrolled children had not attended school regularly.

The most notable example of a city which is fairly successful in accounting for all the children of school age within its limits is the city of London. There the compulsory-school age is from five to fourteen years, and there the teachers are relieved from the anxiety of looking after absentees. The Bureau of School Attendance inspects the registers of every school to find out who is absent. The teaching staff has only to note the fact of absence.

The attendance department in the public schools of London accounts for all children of compulsory-school age within the city. Within the six years from 1905 to 1910, there were on the rolls of London schools from 97.3 per cent to 97.5 per cent of all the children of compulsory-school age.

Under a strict enforcement of the compulsory-education law in London, the percentage of attendance in public schools steadily increased for ten years, and showed a gain of nearly 10 per cent. Under the same public supervision, the gain in attendance was at the same rate in private and parochial schools. An effort is made to account for every child of compulsory-school age, and, if such a child is not in school, to give a satisfactory reason for his absence.

But how can any city, large or small, have a proper supervision of the school attendance of its children without an effective organization and a suitable force of agents for taking a school census and compelling attendance? In most American cities hitherto, the work of attendance officers has been largely a laughing-stock. The statistics of six years ago showed the following facts:

New York had 9,300 school children for each attendance officer

Boston had 5,800 school children for each attendance officer

Philadelphia had 4,700 school children for each attendance officer

Dublin had 2,600 school children for each attendance officer

Glasgow had 2,104 school children for each attendance officer

London had 2,086 school children for each attendance officer

In keeping with the careless way in which American school boards generally look upon the matter of keeping children of compulsory-school age in school is the attitude of magistrates in enforcing parental responsibility.

In towns where there are no children's courts, the same magistrate or justice of the peace before whom adults charged with felonies are arraigned is also called upon to hear charges against "hookey-players" and their negligent parents, and against those who employ children illegally. The magistrate's view of these, to him, minor affairs is generally one of justice tempered with too much mercy, and parents are not held to a proper accountability. Why, the dignified man on the bench may have "played hookey" himself forty or fifty years ago! The question comes to his mind: "Is non-attendance at school such a serious offense?" But the London magistrates think it is, because in one year they punished 10,600 adults for keeping children out of school. In the same year, New York—with about the same school enrolment—punished 1,500 adults for the same offense. Philadelphia in the same year enforced a greater responsibility than New York. In Germany, the punishment for keeping children from school during the compulsory-school age is accepted as almost certain, unless a valid reason can be given for absence.

But illegal absence from school, and especially truancy, meant much less fifty years ago in this country. Then, when the population was more largely rural, if a boy was a truant he usually went a-fishing, or played games in open fields, or went for a day to a circus in his own or a neighboring town. Now, if he plays truant in a large city, he is likely to fall into the worst of companionship, to consort with loafers and juvenile criminals, and to learn vice and crime. Statistics show that most of the juvenile criminals have been at some time truants.

The following excerpt from Bulletin No. 573 of the United States Bureau of Education, entitled *Compulsory School Attendance*, is also significant as showing the effect of a strict enforcement of the compulsory-education law in increasing attendance:

An experiment was conducted by the truancy department of the Indianapolis schools several years ago by having the truant officer visit the school daily and obtain the names of all absentees. All cases of absence were visited, even tho a good excuse, such as sickness, was known to exist. Altho many children were excluded at that time, as medical inspection had been recently introduced, the absentees during the four-months' period were 20 per cent less than for the corresponding period of the preceding year. The method was discontinued, as it imposed too much work upon the officer, whose duties were already heavy. Money so expended would, however, bear dividends far beyond those accruing to the more or less haphazard method under present conditions.

As stated in this report, money expended in a strict enforcement of the compulsory-education law would bear good dividends. But if we are to account for every child of school age and see that he is in school, cities should do more in providing suitable special classes and schools for the physically and mentally defective, for the blind, the deaf, the crippled, and the mentally abnormal. Some cities have made good beginnings along these lines. Such efforts would do much in saving ultimate expense for charitable and correctional institutions for adults.

In one attendance district in the city of New York, comprising 35 schools, the percentage of attendance has increased in every school during the past two years, since the work of the attendance Bureau has been brought under an efficient system. Where formerly there was uncertainty and speculation as to how much work each attendance officer was actually doing each day, now it is a matter of definiteness and responsibility. If a pupil is detained from school temporarily thru sickness, poverty, or neglect, his case is not neglected. He is returned to school at the earliest possible time.

2. *Reduction of retardation in studies.*—When we consider the waste in money and time, both to the individual and to the community, occasioned by the retardation of children in school, and realize that much of such retardation is due to unnecessary and preventable absence, it will be seen that money expended in a strict enforcement of compulsory-education laws is largely offset by money saved in teachers' salaries and

school equipment. The truth of this statement is, it would seem, axiomatic. An appeal to common experience is sufficient to justify it. A proper record of promotions and non-promotions in almost any community will show this.

The following extracts from the records of the bureau of attendance in the city of New York are pertinent:

The significance of the practice of extending the attendance service beyond the mere control of truancy by police methods is further emphasized by the summary of facts regarding the relation of absence to non-promotion.

In a study made of non-promotions in New York a few years ago, nearly one-half of the pupils who failed of promotion were absent over two-fifths of the school term, and 70 per cent were absent from school at least 30 days during the half-year. These data, furthermore, take account only of the pupils who failed of promotion on June 30.

Important as it unquestionably is to discover and control truancy in its incipency, it is obvious that the occasional truant is not the only problem-maker. A conservative program of attendance control must find effective means for dealing with the very large number of children who by sporadic absence for trivial causes not only lessen their own chances for making satisfactory progress in school, but, by requiring an undue amount of the attention of teachers, handicap those pupils who are regular in attendance.

3. *Saving in nervous energy of teachers and supervisors.*—That well-planned and enthusiastic teaching is facilitated by the regularity of the attendance of pupils needs no demonstration. A school organization which works smoothly naturally makes no extra draughts on the nervous energy of the teacher. But where irregularity in the attendance of the pupils is common, it is difficult to plan and difficult to execute. Where a teacher's time is divided between teaching and acting as attendance officer, energy which should be given to teaching is lost.

It was seriously proposed in one of our large cities last year that the attendance-officer force should be reduced or dispensed with, and that the teachers should, before and after school hours, investigate all absences of pupils by visits to their homes.

That a teacher should visit homes of pupils in a rural community, or even in a smaller city, is advisable. Such visits often help the teacher in knowing how to deal with certain pupils and in getting in touch with parents. But in a large cosmopolitan city, I would not ask teachers to visit homes. The disadvantages of the practice in such places are too great for the results obtained. Attendance officers should be engaged, if possible, who have both the spirit and the earnestness of the teacher and of the missionary. Such officers' visits to homes may result in as much, or possibly more, good than the visit of a teacher.

In conclusion, let me urge upon the officials of every large city-school system the importance of having an efficient bureau, both for the taking of an up-to-date school census, and for a prompt, strict, and efficient enforcement of the compulsory-education law. And let me add that, in my judgment, the time is not far distant when the large American cities will have to know, at all times, not only who the school children are, and where they are, but also who the adult residents of the city are, what their occupations are, and where they may be found. Then such cities may be able to know what percentage of their children of school age are in school.

DISCUSSION

HENRY D. HERVEY, superintendent of schools, Auburn, N. Y.—As applied to the field of education, democracy demands absolute equality of educational opportunity for all. It demands that every human being capable of being educated shall be given his fair and equal chance to attain the largest measure of self-development. We have made progress toward the realization of this ideal in the past. Schools have been made free and accessible to all. The principle that schools supported by all should meet the needs of all has been fairly well established, tho progress in the discovery of varying types to be

educated, and in the adaptation of courses and methods to meet the needs of these varying types when discovered, has been slow and is as yet far from complete. Whether the faith which the people now fondly place in the public schools will continue unshaken depends largely upon the sincerity, the vigor, and the skill with which this supreme task of discovery and adaptation is prosecuted. No greater calamity could befall the schools and the nation than to have that faith destroyed.

But the policy of free education in a democracy demands not only that there shall be a school for every child with instruction skilfully adapted to meet his individual need; it demands also and equally that every child shall be in school and in fit condition to receive and to profit by the instruction offered. A free school is a mockery to the child who is not free to enter. It is a mockery to the child who, by reason of physical or mental limitations, cannot assimilate what is taught. The democratic ideal demands a school offering to each what is best for each, with freedom for each to take what is offered. With increasing energy, intelligence, and efficiency, the majority of the states have protected each child in his right to attend the school—the majority of the states, but not all; hence the Keating-Owen bill.

What justification or necessity is there for this bill? The Keating-Owen bill is based on the belief that self-preservation is the first law of a nation; that good citizens are necessary to the welfare, to the very life, of the state; that good citizens are as necessary in one section of the nation as in another; that good citizens can be produced only thru education; that child labor interferes with education, spoils the future citizen in the making, rendering him alike unfit for full productive efficiency in his maturer years and for future education; that the children of the nation have as much right to protection in one section of the nation as in another; that the nation has no right to permit the wanton waste of the physical and mental capital of the coming generation in any part of its domain; that the prerequisite and fundamental condition of all preparedness is intelligent citizenship; that Macaulay was right when over sixty years ago, speaking in the House of Parliament on the evils of child labor, he said: "If ever we are forced to yield the foremost place among commercial nations, we shall yield it to some people pre-eminently vigorous in mind and body"; that the moral law should be nationalized; that the feeling of human brotherhood is not a matter of geography; that the personal responsibility of a citizen for the rights, the welfare, and the happiness of the nation's children does not end with the boundary lines of his own state; that the enlightened and patriotic consumer who abhors child labor because he knows the cost to the child and to the state has a right to be freed from the possibility of buying unwittingly goods that bear the taint of such labor; that the manufacturer doing business in a state that protects its children should not be forced to compete with a manufacturer in a state that delivers its children over to destruction; in a word, that what affects the peace, the prosperity, the happiness, and the greatness of the nation as a whole is the supreme concern of the whole nation; that if the protection of the childhood of the nation is the supreme duty of the nation, then the nation must perform that duty in the only way open to it, namely, by national legislation along the lines indicated in the Keating-Owen bill.

Who that knows conditions as they exist in certain portions of our country today can longer doubt the wisdom, the justice, and the necessity of immediate federal legislation? If there be such a doubter, let him consider what it means in terms of physical and mental deterioration, loss of youth, loss of educational opportunity, and loss of future economic efficiency that 27,000 children between ten and fourteen years of age are at this moment working in factories; that 17,000 more between ten and sixteen years of age are working in mines; that 122,000 between ten and sixteen years of age are working in factories in states where they may work nine, ten, or eleven hours a day; that 29,000 between ten and sixteen years of age work in factories in states where they may work at night; and that hundreds of thousands more, tho working in states that have placed

enlightened child-labor laws on their statute-books, are not being sufficiently protected because of lax enforcement or non-enforcement of these laws.

A single word, in closing, with reference to the Lockwood continuing census bill now before the New York legislature. In my judgment, this bill should become law, and should serve as a model in other states, for the following reasons:

1. A continuing census is the only kind that is either serviceable or sensible. A school census that is up to date only once a year or once in four years is on a par with an attendance officer who is on the job once a week or once a month.

2. A school census as ordinarily taken by a few hungry ward heelers who are thereby rewarded for loyalty to the "grand old party" is inaccurate at best, is wasteful of public money, and is out of date before the figures can be compiled.

3. The Lockwood bill groups together the agencies that belong together—the census-taking agencies, the compulsory-attendance agencies, and the child-welfare agencies. Child-welfare work must go hand in hand with the enforcement of the compulsory-education law. Few children stay away from school from choice. Back of almost every case of chronic truancy is the enfeebled home, or the home divided against itself, or no home at all. The child is a victim not a transgressor.

4. Under this bill all these agencies are centered in the board of education and the superintendent of schools, and all employees are appointed by the board and are made directly and solely responsible to it.

5. The home is given its fair share of responsibility. The parent must report promptly to the census bureau when his child becomes of school age, when he moves from one school to another, when he goes to work; and, upon moving to another city in the state, he must report immediately the names of all children in his family under eighteen years of age.

6. The census bureau is empowered to collect data with reference to illiteracy and the enforcement of the child-labor laws and is given power to enforce these laws.

7. A parent who fails in his duty under the law may be fined and imprisoned, and a city that fails in its duty may forfeit its entire state appropriation.

THE HISTORY OF THE
CITY OF BOSTON
FROM THE FIRST SETTLEMENT
TO THE PRESENT TIME
IN TWO VOLUMES
BY NATHANIEL BENTLEY
OF THE BOSTON BAR
VOL. I.
BOSTON: PUBLISHED BY
J. B. ALLEN, 1822.

The first settlement of the city of Boston was made by a small party of Englishmen, who, in the year 1630, sailed from England, and landed on the island of Nodd, now called the North End. They were accompanied by a large number of Indian natives, who had been converted to Christianity, and who were to remain with them, and to teach them the ways of the Lord. The first year of their settlement was a year of trial and tribulation, for they were exposed to the attacks of the Indians, and to the hardships of a new and unknown country. But they were sustained by the faith of their Heavenly Father, and by the love of their fellow-men, and they were enabled to overcome all their difficulties, and to establish themselves in the city of Boston.

The city of Boston has since that time grown to be one of the most important and most populous cities in the world. It has been the seat of many of the most illustrious men of the age, and it has been the birthplace of many of the most noble and most heroic spirits of the world. It has been the center of many of the most important events of the world, and it has been the scene of many of the most glorious triumphs of the human mind. It has been the home of many of the most noble and most heroic spirits of the world, and it has been the birthplace of many of the most noble and most heroic spirits of the world.

SUPPLEMENTARY LIST OF ACTIVE MEMBERS

ENROLLED SINCE THE PUBLICATION OF THE YEARBOOK FOR 1915-16,
DECEMBER 31, 1915

ARKANSAS

- 1916 URY MCKENZIE, A.B., '00.
Superintendent of Schools; 604 Locust St., Texarkana.

CALIFORNIA

- 1911 EFFIE BELLE MCFADDEN, A.B., '00, Stanford Univ.
1900, Supervisor of English, State Normal School, Waller and Buchanan Sts., San Francisco.
1916 THERESE DORMEYER, Life Dip.
1914, Teacher, Barnes District School, Kern County; Box 75, Lost Hills; exp. off., McKittrick.

INSTITUTIONS

- 1914 SCHOOL WOMEN'S CLUB OF OAKLAND.
President, Rose Beaty, 390 Alcatraz Ave., Oakland.
1915 SAN BERNARDINO COUNTY FREE LIBRARY.
Librarian, Caroline S. Waters, San Bernardino.

CONNECTICUT

- 1916 EDWARD HERBERT CAMERON, Ph.D., '06, Yale Univ.
Assistant Professor of Education, Yale University; 848 Orange St., New Haven.
C. WILBUR CARY.
Cary-Stuart Teachers' Agency, Hartford.
HERBERT O. CLOUGH, A.B., Bowdoin Coll.
1912, Inspector, State Board of Education, Deep River.
W. S. DAKIN, B.Sc., Tchrs. Coll., Columbia Univ.
Superintendent of Schools, Canton; Inspector, State Board of Education; 31 Norfolk St., Hartford.
N. SEARLE LIGHT, A.B., '08, Yale Univ.
1910, Agent, State Board of Education, Capitol, Hartford.

INSTITUTION

- 1915 PUBLIC LIBRARY OF BRISTOL.
Librarian, Charles L. Wooding, Bristol.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA

- 1901 LUCY ELLA MOTEN, Grad., '75, Mass. St. Nor. Sch., '83, Spencerian Bus. Coll.; M.D., '97, Med. Coll., Howard Univ.
1883, Principal of Myrtilla Miner Normal; 1839 Vernon St., Washington.

IDAHO

- 1916 HAL G. BLUE.
1914, Superintendent of Schools; 410, 3d Ave., North, Twin Falls.
CLINTON EMMETT ROSE, A.B., '00, Univ. of Kans.; A.M., '13, Columbia Univ.
1915, Superintendent of Schools, Boise.

ILLINOIS

- 1915 WILLIAM S. GRAY, A.M., '14, Columbia Univ.
1915, Instructor in Education, School of Education, University of Chicago, Chicago.
VERNON L. MANGUN, A.B., '08, Cornell Coll.; A.M., '13, St. Univ. of Iowa.
1915, Superintendent of Schools; 522 S. Randolph St., Macomb.
1916 RICHARD E. BARDWELL, A.B., Univ. of Ill.
Superintendent of Schools; 322 Lake Ave., Woodstock.
ALFRED O. BROWN.
1912, With Public School Publishing Co., 1211 N. Prairie St., Bloomington.
ERNEST E. COLE, LL.D., '09.
District Superintendent of Schools; 2548 Smalley Ct., Chicago.
DEWITT ELWOOD, B.Sc., '05, Lawrence Coll.
1893, Superintendent of Schools, Charleston.

ILLINOIS—Continued

- 1916 LOU M. HARRIS.
1913, County Superintendent of Schools; 610, 18th St., Rock Island.
- WALTER J. HARROWER.
Principal of School; 413 E. 60th St., Chicago.
- ELIZABETH B. HARVEY.
1914, Superintendent of County Schools; 1025 Pearl St., Belvidere.
- DELT R. HENRY., A.B., '13, Ind. Univ.; A.M., '16, Univ. of Chicago.
1915, Superintendent of Schools, Jerseyville.
- W. E. HERBERT.
1901, Superintendent of County Schools, Pontiac.
- JOSEPH HENRY JOHNSTON, A.B., '10, A.M., '15, Univ. of Chicago.
Fellow in Education, University of Illinois; 702 W. Nevada St., Urbana.
- CHARLES C. KRAUSKOPF, A.B., '03, A.M., '04, Ind. Univ.
1904, Principal of Chicago School; res., 900 N. 8th Ave., Maywood.
- F. M. MUHLIG.
Superintendent of County Schools, Joliet.
- ELIZABETH W. MURPHY.
1915, District Superintendent of Schools; 5120 Sheridan Rd., Chicago.
- E. HAPPER PAYNE.
With Henry Holt & Co., 623 S. Wabash Ave., Chicago.
- WILLIAM C. PAYNE.
Principal of Healy School, Chicago.
- LEWIS ALPHEUS REISNER, B.Sc., '07, Northwestern Univ.
1913, Superintendent of Schools; 633 Whitney St., Belvidere.
- HAROLD ORDWAY RUGG, B.Sc., '08, C.E., '09, Dartmouth Coll.; Ph.D., '15, Univ. of Ill.
Instructor in Education, University of Chicago; 5813 Dorchester Ave., Chicago.
- RALEIGH SCHORLING, A.B., '11, Univ. of Mich.
1911, Instructor, University High School, University of Chicago; Quadrangle Club, Chicago.
- HARRY W. SEROYER.
Agent, Charles Scribner's Sons; 843 Lakeside Pl., Chicago.
- JENNY H. SNOW, M.Sc., '09, Univ. of Chicago.
1913, Head of Household Arts Department, Chicago Normal College, 68th St. and Stewart Ave., Chicago.
- MERTON A. STURGES, LL.B.
1909, Chief Naturalization Examiner, United States Bureau of Naturalization, 776 Federal Bldg., Chicago.
- CHARLES H. WATTS.
1902, Superintendent of County Schools; 513 W. Oregon St., Urbana.
- ROBERT I. WHITE, A.B., '02, Albion Coll.; A.M., '03, Univ. of Mich.
1907, Superintendent of Schools; 127 Hinsdell Pl., Elgin.
- A. L. WHITTENBERG.
Secretary, Illinois State Examining Board, Office, Superintendent of Public Instruction, Springfield.
- JOHN FREDERICK WILEY, Ph.B., '02, DePauw Univ.; A.M., '14, Univ. of Ill.
1916, Superintendent of Schools; 2700 Prairie Ave., Mattoon.
- CLARK G. WRIGHT.
Superintendent of Schools, District 108, Lake County; 436 Oakwood Ave., Highland Park.
- ARVID P. ZETTERBERG, A.B., '05, A.M., '12, Knox Coll.
1915, Superintendent of Lockport Township High School, 13th St., Lockport.

INSTITUTION

- 1916 MT. MORRIS COLLEGE.
President, J. S. Noffsinger, Mt. Morris.

PUBLIC SCHOOL (CHICAGO)

- 1910 FRANCIS PARKMAN SCHOOL, 51st St. and 5th Ave.
Principal, John B. McGinty.

INDIANA

- 1916 BELLE CAFFEE.
1916, Supervisor of Kindergartens and Primary Grades, Evansville.
- ARTHUR DEAMER, A.B., Ind. Univ.; A.M., Columbia Univ.
1909, Superintendent of Schools; 1307 Clay St., Laporte.
- EMMA DONNAN.
Supervising Principal, Public Schools; 232 N. Capitol Ave., Indianapolis.
- MERLIN M. DUNBAR, A.B., LL.B., '12, Ind. Univ.
1915, Superintendent of Schools, Hartford City.
- EDGAR NELSON MENDENHALL.
Superintendent of Schools, Goshen.
- WALTER S. PAINTER, A.M., Columbia Univ.
1911, Superintendent of Schools; 150 N. Court St., Crown Point.

IOWA

- 1916 W. H. BLAKELY.
1909, Principal of High School; 815 Forest Ave., Fort Dodge.
- ESTELLE COON.
Superintendent of County Schools, Brooklyn.
- EVA M. FLEMING.
Superintendent of Schools, Decorah.
- L. E. GOODYEAR.
With Goodyear-Marshall Publishing Co., 224, 29th St., E., Cedar Rapids.
- E. T. HOUSH, Ph.B., '04; A.B., '12, Highland Park Coll.
Superintendent of Schools; 618 N. Carroll St., Carroll.
- M. L. HOWELL.
1910, Superintendent of Wright County Schools, Clarion.
- ANSON T. HUKILL, Ph.B., '87; A.M., '90.
1898, Superintendent of Schools; 820 W. 4th St., Waterloo.
- J. S. McCOWAN, A.M., '00, Grinnell Coll.
President, Iowa State Teachers Association; (1911) Principal of High School;
1502 Jones St., Sioux City.
- WILLIAM F. MCFARLAND.
1913, Member, Board of Education, Burlington.
- H. C. MOELLER.
1915, Superintendent of County Schools, Waterloo.
- WILLIAM W. OVERMYER.
1912, Superintendent of Schools; 316 S. 5th St., Lyons.
- JOHN R. SLACKS, B. Didac, '01, Iowa St. Tchrs. Coll.
1909, Superintendent of Sac County Schools; 331 S. 11th St., Sac City.
- BLANCHE STODDARD.
1913, Superintendent of County Schools, Eldora.
- J. P. STREET, A.B., '14, Highland Park Coll.
1915, Superintendent of Schools, Elkader.
- F. H. SUNDERLIN.
Superintendent of Schools; 821 E. Main St., Estherville.
- BRUCE W. TALLMAN, Ph.D., Simpson Coll.
1914, Superintendent of Schools, Hampton.

INSTITUTION

- 1916 ELLSWORTH COLLEGE.
President, I. F. Meyer, Iowa Falls.

KANSAS

- 1916 LEE HARRISON.
Secretary, Board of Administration, State House, Topeka.
- JOHN B. HEFFELFINGER, A.B., '07, Baker Univ.
Superintendent of Schools, Arkansas City.
- CLARENCE T. RICE, A.B., B.Sc., '11, Univ. of Kans.
1915, Principal of Argentine High School; 934 Barnett St., Kansas City.

KENTUCKY

- 1916 HENRIETTA V. RACE, A.M., Columbia Univ.
Director of Psychological Laboratory, City of Louisville, care of Board of Education,
Louisville.

LOUISIANA

- 1916 JAMES MAURICE BARHAM.
1913, Parish Superintendent of Education, Marksville.
- R. G. CORKERN.
Superintendent of Education, Allen Parish, Oberlin.
- W. MCG. DOLLERHIDE, B.Sc., '97, La. St. Univ.; M.D., '04, Univ. of Ky.
Parish Superintendent of Schools, Pioneer.
- ARTHUR C. LEWIS.
1906, Superintendent of County Schools, Amite.
- L. H. STEVENS.
1913, Superintendent of Education, Morehouse Parish; Box 38, Bastrop.

MAINE

- 1916 DENNIS J. CALLAHAN, A.B., '76, Bates Coll.
1915, Superintendent of Schools; 101 Pine St., Lewiston.
- CHARLES N. PERKINS, A.B., '03, A.M., '06, Colby Coll.
1912, Superintendent of Schools, Waterville.
- C. A. RECORD, A.B., '02.
1915, Superintendent of Schools, Sanford.

MARYLAND

- 1916 STELLA L. BROWN.
1910, Principal of Fullerton School, Overlea.

MASSACHUSETTS

- 1910 JOHN C. PACKARD, A.M., '80, Wesleyan Univ.
1890, Head of Science Department, High School; 14 Searle Ave., Brookline.
- 1916 CAROLINE D. ABORN.
1906, Director of Public Kindergartens, School Committee Rooms, Mason St., Boston.
- ALBERT L. BARBOUR, A.B., A.M., Brown Univ.
1909, Superintendent of Schools; 14 Linden Pl., Quincy.
- JOHN T. GYGER, B.Sc., '13, Tchrs. Coll., Columbia Univ.
1913, Principal of Phillip School; Box 51, Wellesley Hills.
- CARL HOLMAN, A.B., '09, Bates Coll.
1914, Superintendent of Schools, Falmouth.
- CARROLL R. REED, A.B., '06, A.M., '15, Harvard Univ.
Superintendent of Schools, Amherst.

MICHIGAN

- 1903 MARY EDITHA O'BRIEN.
Teacher, Public Schools; 239 Van Dyke St., Detroit.
- 1910 J. A. LANGSTON, A.B., '01, Earlham Coll.
Superintendent of Schools, Belding.
- 1915 O. R. COOPER, M.D., '03, Rush Med. Coll.
1910, Head of Science Department, Emmanuel Missionary College, Berrien Springs.
- MARION D. FAIRBAIRN.
Principal of Gillies School; 1216 Cass Ave., Detroit.
- 1916 SADIE M. ALLEY.
Grade Principal, Northwestern High School; 356 W. Fort St., Detroit.
- CECIL J. BARNUM, B.Sc., Mich. Agri. Coll.; B.Pd., Mich. St. Nor. Coll.
1915, Commissioner of Schools, Beaverton.
- CLARA BEVERLEY.
Supervisor of English, Elementary Schools; 48 W. Ferry Ave., Detroit.
- C. J. BORCHARDT, A.B., '09, Univ. of Mich.
1915, Superintendent of Schools, Norway.
- W. C. BUCHANAN, A.B., '14, Kalamazoo Coll.
1915, Superintendent of Schools, Kalkaska.
- FRANK PEYTON BUCK, A.B., '04, Univ. of Mich.
1910, Superintendent of Schools; P.O. Box 295, St. Johns.
- NORMAN W. CAMERON, A.B., Washington Univ.; Ph.D., Univ. of Pa.
Department of Education, Western State Normal School; 308 Douglas Ave., Kalamazoo.
- IVAN E. CHAPMAN, A.B., '05, LL.B., '07, Univ. of Mich.
Head of Business Department, Northwestern High School; 850 Ferry Park Ave., Detroit.
- P. R. CLEARY.
President, Cleary Business College, Ypsilanti.
- BENJAMIN D. EDWARDS, Ph.B., '10, Mount Union Coll.
1910, Director of Education, Detroit Technical Institute, 303, Y.M.C.A., Detroit.
- HELEN A. FIELD, B.Sc., '13, Columbia Univ.
1913, Instructor in Kindergarten Supervision, and Critic Teacher, Michigan State Normal College, Ypsilanti.
- SHIRLEY ERNEST FIELD, A.B., '12, Univ. of Mich.
1915, Superintendent of Schools, Williamston.
- FRANCES A. FOSTER, B.L., '07, Univ. of Mich.
1916, Northwestern High School; 124 Charlotte St., Detroit.
- GRANT W. GORDON.
Principal of Franklin School; 144 Commonwealth Ave., Detroit.
- OTTO J. GRAF, A.B., '04, Union Coll.; A.M., '10, Univ. of Nebr.
1908, President, Emmanuel Missionary College, Berrien Springs.
- C. H. GRIFFEY, A.B., '10.
1915, Superintendent of Schools; 21 State St., Adrian.
- MERCY JANE HAYES.
1913, Principal of Crosman School; 2294 Jefferson Ave., E., Detroit.
- REGENIA R. HELLER.
1906, Supervisor of Kindergartens, First and Second Grades, Public Schools; 493, 2d Ave., Detroit.
- J. CLARENCE HOWELL.
1913, Detroit High School of Commerce; 268 Oregon Ave., Detroit.
- SCARTH INGLIS, A.B., '14, Olivet Coll.
Superintendent of Schools, Dryden.
- VIRGINIA M. JACKSON, Pratt Inst., '13.
1916, Northeastern High School; 317 E. Jefferson Ave., Detroit.
- AUSTIN F. JONES, A.B., '06, Hillsdale Coll.
House Principal, Northwestern High School, Detroit.

MICHIGAN—Continued

- 1916 JACOB W. KELDER, A.M., '14, Tchrs. Coll., Columbia Univ.
1915, Superintendent of Schools; 714 Grove St., Petoskey.
- MRS. CHRISTIANA KINNEY.
Principal of Hancock School; 86 Commonwealth Ave., Detroit.
- HARRY D. LEE, A.B., '09.
1913, Superintendent of Schools; 637 Quincy St., Hancock.
- CHARLES W. LUDKE.
Commercial Teacher; 456 Ferdinand Ave., Detroit.
- HIRAM W. MCINTOSH.
Superintendent of Schools; 215 E. Pine St., Boyne City.
- DANIEL W. McMILLAN.
1914, Head of Commercial Department, Western High School; 70 LaSalle Blvd., Detroit.
- JOHN MERRILL, B.Ed., '10, A.B., '11, Mich. St. Nor. Coll.
1913, Principal of John F. Bennett School; 1637 Vinewood Ave., Detroit.
- ARTHUR B. MOEHLMANN, A.B., '12, Univ. of Mich.
1914, Assistant, Eastern High School; 415 Helen Ave., Detroit.
- J. A. MORSE.
1912, Supervisor of Substitutes and New Teachers, 50 Broadway, Detroit.
- WILLIAM A. MORSE, A.B., '06, Univ. of Mich.
1903, Principal of Western High School; 395 Vinewood Ave., Detroit.
- JOHN ERNEST PORTER, A.B., '03, Harvard Univ.
1915, Teacher of Algebra, Northwestern High School; 906 Lothrop Ave., Detroit.
- MAUD A. PRIEST.
1902, Principal of Grammar School; 297 W. Hancock Ave., Detroit.
- RICHARD RIDER PUTNAM, B.Sc., '05, Univ. of Mich.
1898, Head of Chemistry Department, Eastern High School; 528 Field Ave., Detroit.
- CLINTON A. RICE, Life Dip., '13, Mich. St. Nor. Coll.
1913, Superintendent of Schools, North Branch.
- C. F. SWITZER.
Principal of Junior High School, Grand Rapids.
- ELLIS G. VAN DEVENTER.
1903, Superintendent of Schools; 110 Denton St., Hamtramck.
- THEODORE E. WAGNER, A.B., '05, Univ. of Mich.
1914, Science Teacher, Northwestern High School; 56 Columbus Ave., Detroit.
- W. D. WHITE.
1915, Superintendent of Schools, Clio.
- CHARLOTTE A. WILLITS.
1908, Vice-Principal, Detroit Day School for the Deaf; 114 Pasadena Ave., Detroit.
- WILLARD W. WIXSON, A.B., '15, Univ. of Mich.
1915, District No. 3, Hamtramck; res., Davison Rd., R. No. 2, Highland Park.

INSTITUTION

- 1916 EMMANUEL MISSIONARY COLLEGE, LIBRARY.
President, O. J. Graf; Librarian, Katherine Smith, Berrien Springs.

MINNESOTA

- 1916 JOSEPHINE T. BERRY, A.B., '03, Univ. of Kans.; A.M., '10, Columbia Univ.
1913, Head of Department of Home Economics, University of Minnesota; 2176 Scudder St., St. Paul.
- C. E. CAMPTON, A.B., Univ. of Minn.
1915, Superintendent of Schools, Two Harbors.
- F. W. DOBBYN.
1912, Superintendent of Schools; 106, 7th St., S.E., Little Falls.
- WILLIAM J. GUTHRIE, A.B., '09, Univ. of Mich.
1915, Superintendent of Schools, Glenwood.
- JAMES WYLIE RICHARDSON, B.Sc., '06, A.M., '13.
Research Director, Independent District No. 27, Office, care of Superintendent of Schools, Hibbing.
- NATALIE THORNTON, A.B., '08, Beloit Coll.
1914, Dean of Women, State Normal School, Wheeler Hall, Moorhead.
- GEORGE WALTER WILLETT, A.B., Des Moines Coll.; A.M., St. Univ. of Iowa.
1915, Principal of High School, Hibbing.

MISSISSIPPI

- 1916 BENJAMIN H. ASHMAN, A.B., '15, Valparaiso Univ.
1915, Principal of High School, Ocean Springs.

MISSOURI

- 1911 GERTRUDE E. GREENE.
1912, Dean of Kansas City Normal School; Lyndhurst Hotel, 40th and McGee Sts., Kansas City.

MISSOURI—Continued

- 1916 WILLIAM B. ITTNER, Special Cert., '87, Cornell Univ.
Architect, Board of Education, St. Louis.
- MARY CLIFTON McCULLOCH.
Supervisor of Kindergartens; 5889 Cates Ave., St. Louis.
- PETER J. MCKINLEY, B.Pd., Mo. St. Nor. Sch.
1915, Superintendent of County Schools; 803 Clay St., St. Charles.
- CHARLES FRANKLIN RIDDLE, B.Sc., Tchrs. Coll., Univ. of Mo.
1909, Superintendent of Schools, Edina.

MONTANA

- 1916 GRANT E. FINCH, Ph.B., '90, A.M., '93, D.Sc., '07, Upper Iowa Univ.
Director of Training, Montana State Normal College; 516 S. Atlantic St., Dillon.

NEBRASKA

- 1916 WILLIAM CLIVE BRADFORD.
With University Publishing Co., Lincoln.
- HANNAH C. JOHNSON, B.Sc.
1909, Superintendent of County Schools, Albion.

NEW HAMPSHIRE

- 1916 ETHEL PARMENTER.
1915, Teacher of English and Arithmetic, 7th Grade, Model School; Penmanship, State Normal School, Keene.

NEW JERSEY

- 1916 JESSE T. GODFREY.
1913, Superintendent of Schools; 45 Prospect St., Madison.
- J. CAYSE MORRISON, B.Sc., '15, Tchrs. Coll.
1915, Superintendent of Schools, Chatham.
- WILLIAM D. SNYDER.
1912, Supervising Principal of Schools, Penns Grove.
- JAMES M. STEVENS, A.M., '90, Wes. Univ.
1903, Superintendent of Schools; 624, 8th St., Ocean City.
- CHARLES J. STRAHAN.
Superintendent of County Schools, Freehold.
- CHARLES C. WILSON, B.Sc., '04, Harvard Univ.
1912, Principal of Lincoln High School; 535 Bramhall Ave., Jersey City.

NEW YORK

- 1915 FORD STILLMAN CLARKE, Ph.B., '10, Alfred Univ.
1914, Associate Professor of Philosophy and Education, Alfred University; 33 S. Main St., Alfred.
- 1916 LORAIN W. BILLS, B.Sc., '07, Syracuse Univ.
Superintendent of Schools; 116, 3d St., Waterford.
- ANNE DUDLEY BLITZ.
1915, Dean, William Smith College, Geneva.
- KATHARINE M. CHRISTOPHER, A.B., '01, Univ. of Mich.
1915, Librarian, Julia Richman High School, 60 W. 13th St., New York.
- EARLE CLARKE, LL.B.
1916, Chief Statistician, New York City Department of Education, 500 Park Ave., New York.
- FRANCES ELLEN DUTTING.
Assistant Professor of Music, Hunter College; 509 W. 121st St., New York.
- GEORGE M. ELMENDORF, Ph.B., '05, Union Coll.
1910, Superintendent of Schools; 424 Margaret St., Herkimer.
- ELBERT K. FRETWELL.
Teachers College, Columbia University, New York.
- FRANK M. HAMILTON, A.B., '09, Dip., '08, Association Phonétique.
1915, German and French Department, Nichols School, Amherst and Colvin Sts., Buffalo.
- GRANVILLE B. JEFFERS, A.B., '03, Stanford Univ.
Principal of Teachers Training School, Schenectady.
- H. H. LAMBERTON, B.Sc., '09; A.M., '15, Columbia Univ.
1915, Superintendent of Schools, Whitehall.
- FRED THOMAS LENA, A.B., '07, Dartmouth Coll.; A.M., '15, Columbia Univ.
1913, Teacher of Mathematics, Saunders Trades School; 78 Hamilton Ave., Yonkers.
- WILLIAM J. MANTON, A.B., '11, Hamilton Coll.; A.M., '15, Columbia Univ.
Student, Teachers College; res., Ferndale.
- ALDEN JESSE MERRELL, A.M., '88, A.M., '91, Univ. of Rochester.
1913, Superintendent of Schools, Geneva.

NEW YORK—Continued

- 1916 CHARLES H. MUNSON, A.B., Syracuse Univ.
Publisher, 111 West Ave., Fairport.
- FRANK O. RANDALL, M.Didac., '07, Iowa St. Tchrs. Coll.; A.M., '16, Tchrs. Coll.
Graduate Student, Teachers College; 501 W. 124th St., New York.
- CAROLINE V. SINNAMON.
Principal of Grammar Grades and Supervisor, State Normal School; 161 E. 4th St., Oswego.
- MARION REX TRABUE, Ph.D., '15, Columbia Univ.
Instructor in Educational Administration, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York.

INSTITUTIONS

- CATHEDRAL COLLEGE.
Dean of Faculty, William J. McAuliffe, New York.
- EVANDER CHILDS HIGH SCHOOL.
Principal, G. S. Blakely, Westchester Ave., New York.

NORTH CAROLINA

- 1916 BARRON CALDWELL, A.B., Erskine Coll.
1914, Superintendent of Schools, Kinston.

NORTH DAKOTA

- 1916 FRANK W. REINOEHL, A.B., '07, Mt. Union Coll.
1911, Superintendent of Schools, Larimore.
- HULDAH LUCILE WINSTED, A.B., '11, A.M., '12, Univ. of Minn.
1913, Instructor of Geography, State Normal School, Minot.

OHIO

- 1915 JOSEPH S. HUNTER, A.B., '01, Ohio St. Univ.
1915, District Superintendent of Schools, Butler County, Miami St., Trenton.
- JOSEPHINE F. LEACH, Ph.B., '14, Univ. of Chicago.
1914, Director of City Normal; Supervisor of New Teachers; 1025 Grand Ave., Toledo.
- 1916 C. O. ALLAMAN, A.B., '09, Univ. of Wooster.
Superintendent of Schools, Flushing.
- H. C. AULTMAN, A.B., Antioch Coll.
1914, Superintendent of Clermont County Schools, Batavia.
- HARRIS V. BEAR, A.B., '03, Otterbein Univ.; A.M., '10, Harvard Univ.
1915, Superintendent of Schools, cor. 5th and Montgomery Sts., Miamisburg.
- FRANK H. CLOSE, Ph.B., '10, Lebanon Univ.
1914, Superintendent of Holmes County Schools, Millersburg.
- R. L. COLE, A.B., Univ. of W.Va.
1914, Superintendent of Schools; Box 5, Perrysburg.
- SELDA COOK.
1915, Principal of Waverly School; 5810 Clinton Ave., Cleveland.
- WALTER S. EDMUND, A.B., Capital Univ.
1912, Superintendent of Schools; 334 E. Liberty St., Medina.
- EMMET F. ELDEEDGE, A.B., '02, Mt. Union Coll.; A.B., '02, A.M., '03, Harvard Univ.
Assistant Principal of Glenville High School, Cleveland; res., 321 W. 20th St., Lorain.
- IRVING C. FOSS, A.B., '02, Bates Coll.
With Houghton Mifflin Co., Ashland.
- CHARLES HAYWARD FULLERTON, Ph.B., '08, A.M., '11, Ohio St. Univ.
Principal of East High School; 88, 18th Ave., Columbus.
- AMOS L. HEER, B.Pd., Ind. St. Tchrs. Coll.
1914, Superintendent of Schools, Edgerton.
- CHARLES ELMER HOLLEY, Ph.D., '15, Univ. of Ill.
1915, Instructor in Education and Psychology, Ohio Wesleyan University; 154 N. Sandusky St., Delaware.
- CHARLES H. LAKE, A.B., '09, A.M., '10.
1909, Principal of High School, Hamilton.
- FRANK W. MILLER, A.B.; A.M.; D.Pd.
1916, Superintendent of Schools; 301 Ferguson Ave., Dayton.
- OSMER C. MINNICH, A.B., '09, Miami Univ.
1914, Superintendent of County Schools; 29 Norwood Ave., Norwalk.
- CARL B. NEWLON, A.B., '13, Ind. Univ.
1915, Principal of High School; 223 Jefferson St., Defiance.
- E. M. SAWYER.
Principal of Sands School, Cincinnati.
- L. F. SKEGGS.
1915, Superintendent of Schools, Huron.

OKLAHOMA

- 1916 JOHN T. HEFLET, A.B., '01, Univ. of Okla.
1912, Superintendent of Schools; 306 Cummins St., Henryetta.

PENNSYLVANIA

- 1915 CHARLES HENRY FISHER, A.B., '04, Lebanon Valley Coll.; A.M., '14, Univ. of Pa.
1915, Department of Pedagogy, State Normal School; 509 W. Miner St., West Chester.
- J. DONALD GEIST, A.M., Lafayette Coll.
1899, Principal of High School, Hazleton.
- 1916 JENNIE M. ACKERMAN.
1902, Head of Training Department, State Normal School, Indiana.
- RALPH M. ARCHIBALD, A.B., '13, Grove City Coll.
1914, Supervising Principal of Schools, Waynesburg.
- ALICE C. BOUGHTON, B.Sc., '14, A.M., '15, Tchrs. Coll., Columbia Univ.
4424 Larchwood Ave., West Philadelphia.
- GEORGE GAILLEY CHAMBERS, Ph.D., '08, Univ. of Pa.
Director of Admission, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia.
- HELGA C. COLQUIST, A.B., '13, Univ. of Pittsburgh.
Instructor in German, Southwestern State Normal School, California.
- REUBEN F. CORRY.
Manager, Thrift System of School Savings, 12th and Race Sts., Philadelphia.
- L. R. CRUMRINE.
1914, Superintendent of County Schools; 115 N. Wade Ave., Washington.
- HOWARD G. DIBBLE, B.Pd., '08, N.Y. St. Coll. for Tchrs.; A.M., '12, Yale Univ.
1915, Principal of Central High School; 2230 N. 2d St., Harrisburg.
- JAMES H. DUNHAM, A.B., '01, A.M., '04, Princeton Univ.; Ph.D., '13, Univ. of Pa.
1915, Dean of College, Temple University; Hamilton Ct., Philadelphia.
- ANDREW D. ENDSLEY, Ph.B., '08, Wooster Coll.
1905, Superintendent of Schools; 322 E. 9th Ave., Tarentum.
- HOWARD C. FETTEROLF.
1915, State Supervisor of Agricultural Education, Bureau of Vocational Education, Department of Public Instruction, 22 Union Trust Bldg., Harrisburg.
- GEORGE W. GULDEN, B.E., M.E., A.B., A.M., Penn. Coll.
1911, Supervising Principal of Schools, Penn Argyl.
- DANIEL W. HAMM, A.B., M.Sc., '01, Muhlenberg Coll.
1911, Principal of High School; 510 Allen St., Allentown.
- RAYMOND W. HEIM, B.Sc., '13, Pa. St. Coll.
State Supervisor of Agricultural Education, Bureau of Vocational Education, Department of Public Instruction, 22 Union Trust Bldg., Harrisburg.
- H. N. HENNON.
1912, Principal of East McKeesport School, Broadway, East McKeesport.
- JOSEPH W. HUFF, A.B., '05, A.M., '06, Univ. of Pa.
1909, Supervising Principal of School District of Haverford Township; 6035 Lansdowne Ave., Philadelphia.
- ROBERT B. KELLER, B.Sc., '08, Purdue Univ.
1915, Director of Johnson Manual Training School; 516 Spruce St., Scranton.
- WILLIAM D. LEWIS, A.B., '02, A.M., '05, Syracuse Univ.
Principal of William Penn High School, 15th and Wallace Sts., Philadelphia.
- R. S. PENFIELD, A.M., Grove City Coll.
1911, Superintendent of Schools; 2414 Woodstock St., Swissvale.
- WILLIAM C. SAMPSON, Ph.B., '02, Dickinson Coll.
1914, Superintendent of Schools; 643 Chestnut St., Columbia.
- CHARLES F. SEIDEL, A.B., '14, Muhlenberg Coll.
1916, Assistant Superintendent of Schools; 37 N. 5th St., Allentown.
- HOPE STEWART.
1900, Critic Teacher, State Normal School, Indiana.
- GEORGE VAUX, JR., B.Sc., '84, Haverford Coll.; LL.B., '88, Univ. of Pa.
1906, Chairman, United States Board of Indian Commission, Gulf Rd., Bryn Mawr.
- WILLIAM H. WENTSEL, B.Sc., '08, M.Sc., '11, Pa. St. Coll.
Vice-Principal, Southwestern State Normal School, California.
- ISABEL WHITE.
Principal of North Braddock Printon Avenue School, Braddock.

RHODE ISLAND

- 1916 WILLARD H. BACON, A.B., '00, Brown Univ.
1913, Superintendent of Schools, Westerly.

TENNESSEE

- 1916 CHARLOTTE M. ARMSTRONG, Dip., '12, Tchrs. Coll., Columbia Univ.
1912, Supervisor of Elementary Training Department, Middle Tennessee Normal School; 445 W. Main St., Murfreesboro.

TENNESSEE—Continued

- 1916 MARION STUART HANCKEL, B.Sc., Columbia Univ.
1915, Kindergarten and Primary Supervisor; 1203 Frazee St., Knoxville.
WILLIAM P. MORRISON, A.B., Peabody Coll.
Superintendent of Schools, Dickson.
SAMUEL W. SHERRILL, A.M., '92, Maryville Coll.
1915, State Superintendent of Public Instruction; 714, 16th Ave., S., Nashville.
YETTA S. SHONINGER, B.Sc., '06, Tchrs. Coll., Columbia Univ.
1914, Assistant Professor of Primary Education, George Peabody College for Teachers,
Nashville.

TEXAS

- 1916 ALBERT M. BLACKMAN, L.I.
1913, Superintendent of Schools, Plano.
G. HARTT.
1912, Superintendent of Schools, Timpson.
LOUIS HERMAN HUBBARD, B.Sc., Univ. of Tex.
1910, Superintendent of Schools, Belton.
TRUMAN LEE KELLEY, A.B., '09; A.M., '11, Univ. of Ill.; Ph.D., '14, Columbia Univ.
1915, Adjunct Professor of Educational Psychology, University of Texas, Austin.
TOM H. SMITH
With Rand McNally & Co., Sherman.

UTAH

- 1916 D. C. JENSEN, A.B., Brigham Young Coll.
1912, Superintendent of Schools, Box Elder District; 627 S. Main St., Brigham City.
GUY C. WILSON, B.Pd., A.B.
President, Latter Day Saints University; 750 E. 12th South St., Salt Lake City.

VERMONT

- 1913 FLORENCE M. WELLMAN.
Supervisor of Graded Schools; 30 Western Ave., Brattleboro.

VIRGINIA

- 1903 WILLIAM HOLMES DAVIS, A.B., '02, Randolph-Macon Coll.
1908, Head Master, The Danville School, Danville.
1916 D. A. DUTROW, A.B., Wash. and Lee Univ.
1915, Superintendent of Schools; 129, 28th St., Newport News.

WEST VIRGINIA

- 1916 CHARLES H. ARCHER.
District Superintendent of Schools, Gary.
HENRY K. BARBE, A.M., Susquehanna Univ.
District Superintendent of Schools, McDowell County, Welch.
J. E. EVANS.
1915, District Superintendent of Schools; 116, 19th St., Warwood, Wheeling.
E. H. KNABENSHUE, A.B., '07, W.Va. Univ.
Principal of Clay County High School, Clay.
ERNEST E. KNIGHT, A.B., '15, W.Va. Univ.
1915, Normal Training High School, Sutton.
HARVEY V. MERRICK, A.M., '84, Mt. Union Coll.
1913, Superintendent of Schools; 1215, 4th St., Moundsville.
LLOYD T. TUSTIN.
1915, District Superintendent of Schools, Hundred.
MABEL LOUISE WEST, B.Sc., Tchrs. Coll., Columbia Univ.
1912, Supervisor of Training School and Assistant in Education, Salem College, Salem.
C. L. WRIGHT, A.B., '06, Ohio Wes. Univ.
1915, Superintendent of Schools; 1046, 9th Ave., Huntington.
AUSTIN F. YOUNG, A.B., Bethany Coll.
1911, Superintendent of Schools; Baufield Ave., Follansbee.

WISCONSIN

- 1916 WILLIS P. COLBURN, Ph.B., '05, Univ. of Wis.
1912, Superintendent of Schools; 4 N. Baird Ave., Rhinelander.
J. E. ROBERTS, A.B., '06, Bates Coll.; A.M., '10, Simpson Coll.
1914, Superintendent of Schools; 246 Sheboygan St., Fond du Lac.
H. A. WHIPPLE.
With Houghton, Mifflin Co., Waterloo.
L. W. WOOD.
With D. C. Heath & Co., Owen.

WYOMING

- 1916 J. B. CRABBE, A.B., B.O.
1915, Superintendent of Schools; 164, N. 4th St., Laramie.
GEORGE WILDER, B.Pd., M.Pd., A.B.
1915, Superintendent of Schools; 256 N. Maple St., Casper.

CANADA

- 1912 SAMUEL B. MCCREADY, A.B., '07, Univ. of Toronto.
Rural Science Department, Prince of Wales College, Charlottetown.

REPRINTS FROM THE ANNUAL VOLUMES OF PROCEEDINGS

(BOUND IN PAPER COVERS)

Price per
single copy
by mail

PROCEEDINGS OF THE DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE

1891	Brooklyn	237 pages	\$0.25
1892	Philadelphia	247 "	.25
1893	Richmond	244 "	.25
1894	Chattanooga	204 "	.25
1895	Chicago	220 "	.25
1896	Chicago	205 "	.25
1897	Atlanta	267 "	.25
1898	Milwaukee	228 "	.25
1899	Louisville	287 "	.25
1900	Chicago	284 "	.25
1901	Washington	285 "	.25
1902	Chicago	274 "	.25
1903	Indianapolis	270 "	.25
1904	Mobile	281 "	.25
1905	St. Louis	284 "	.25
1906	Philadelphia	228 "	.25
1907	Cincinnati	244 "	.25

PROCEEDINGS OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL OF EDUCATION

1884	Saratoga	120 pages	\$0.15
1885	San Francisco	71 "	.15
1886	Nashville	68 "	.15
1887	St. Paul	80 "	.15
1888	Toronto	114 "	.15
1889	Asbury Park	86 "	.15
1890	Denver	81 "	.15
1891	Buffalo	78 "	.15
1892	Washington	103 "	.15
1893	Charleston	67 "	.15
1894	Detroit (Henry Barnard Number)	150 "	.15
1895	Boston	76 "	.15
1896	St. Louis	50 "	.10

REPORTS OF SPECIAL COMMITTEES

Report of Committee of Ten on Secondary Schools	240 pages	\$0.30
Report of Committee of Fifteen on Elementary Schools	233 "	.30
Report of Committee of Twelve on Rural Schools	228 "	.25
Report of Committee on Normal Schools	64 "	.10
Report of Committee on Taxation as Related to Public Education	80 "	.10
First Report of Committee on Industrial Education in Schools for Rural Communities	97 "	.10
Report of Committee of Seventeen on Preparation of High-School Teachers	146 "	.15
Report of Committee on Provisions for Exceptional Children in Public Schools	40 "	.10
Second Report of Committee on Industrial Education in Schools for Rural Communities	63 "	.10
Report of Committee on Teachers' Salaries and Cost of Living	328 "	.50
Report of Committee on Instruction in Library Administration in Normal Schools	71 "	.10

SPECIAL MONOGRAPH

The Essential Place of Religion in Education	134 pages	\$0.30
--	-----------	--------

*All orders for reprints should be accompanied by remittance; a discount of 30 per cent will be allowed on orders for ten or more copies to one address, by prepaid express.

*Proceedings of the Department of Superintendence previous to 1891 were printed by the Bureau of Education at Washington, D. C.

*The Report of the Committee of Ten and of the Committee of Fifteen are printed and sold by the American Book Co. for 30 cents each, postage paid.

The Anniversary Volume (cloth bound, 950 pages), which is one of the most valuable of the entire series, will be sent to any address, express prepaid, on receipt of \$2.00. A Table of Contents of this volume will be supplied on application.

All reprints noted above are included in the bound volumes of *Proceedings*, except Report of the Committee of Ten on Secondary Schools; Report of the Committee on Teachers' Salaries and Cost of Living; Report of the Committee on Taxation as Related to Public Education; First Report of the Committee on Industrial Education in Schools for Rural Communities; Report of the Committee on Teachers' Salaries and Cost of Living.

All publications listed above can be obtained of the undersigned.

D. W. SPRINGER, Secretary, N.E.A.
Ann Arbor, Mich.