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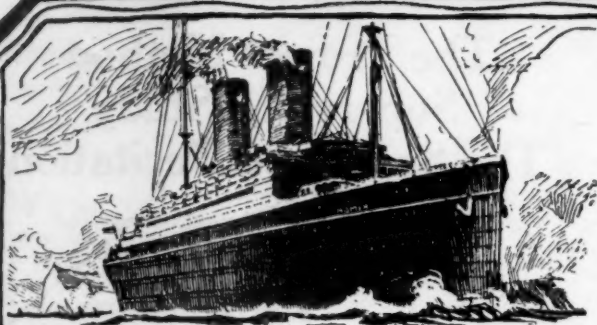
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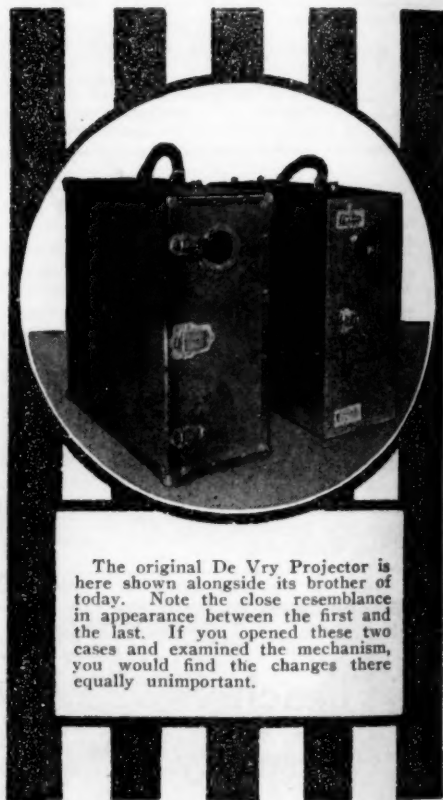
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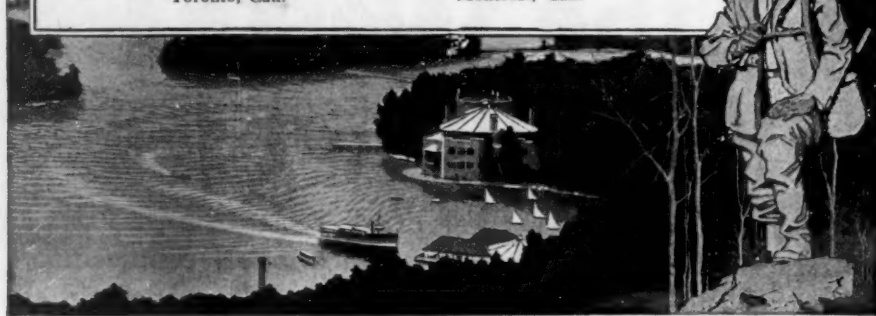
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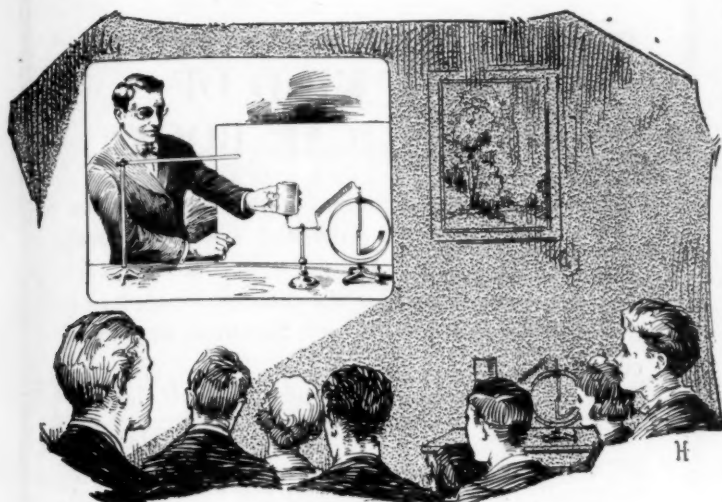
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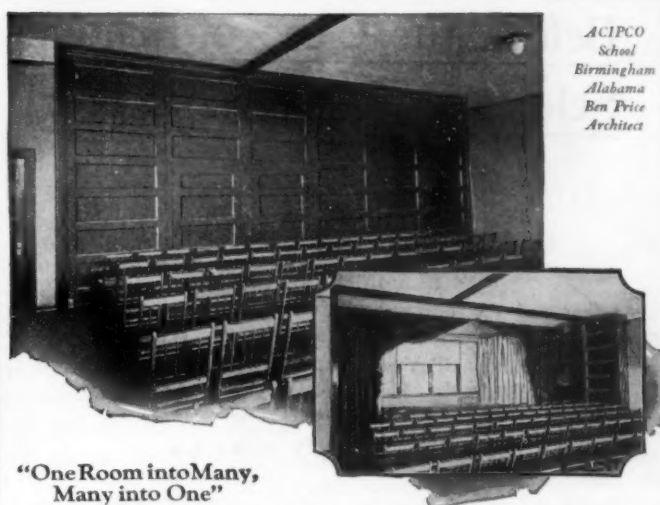
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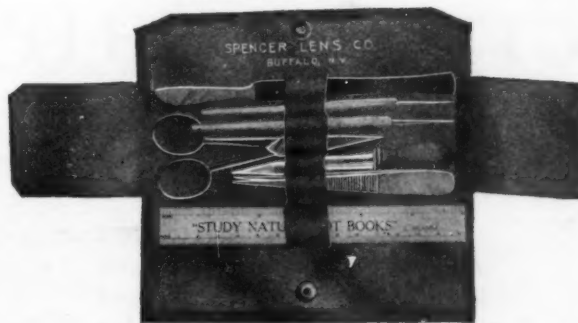
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Teacher Organization in England and America

THE NATIONAL UNION OF TEACHERS in Great Britain is an independent organization corresponding to the National Education Association of the United States. It was organized in 1870, thirteen years after the organization of our National Association. Its membership increased gradually until in the Association's Jubilee Year—1920—it reached 115,400. The present membership is slightly above that figure.

For a number of years the National Union of Teachers has held the honor of being the largest educational association in the world. When it was announced in March that the enrolment in the National Education Association had passed the 100,000 mark and that it might go as high as 120,000 by the time of the Boston meeting, it is said that officials of the English Association became somewhat concerned over the possibility of being thus out-distanced in enrolment. This information may lead to a new membership drive in England and may delay temporarily the time when the National Education Association will hold first place in enrolment. This friendly rivalry for first place will doubtless be of mutual advantage to both organizations.

The supreme authority of the National Union of Teachers, the Annual Conference, assembles at Easter. This Conference corresponds to our Representative Assembly. There were about 2000 representatives authorized to transact the business of the Conference recently held in London. About the same number of State and local delegates will assemble to transact the business of the National Education Association at the Boston meeting, July 3-8. In England and Wales there are fifty-five County Associations which in a sense correspond to the forty-eight State associations in America. The Association in each country has federated or affiliated associations in its outlying possessions.

¹ Prepared for THE JOURNAL by Miss Harriett M. Chase, assistant to the Secretary of the National Education Association.

The purposes and platforms of the two Associations are strikingly similar. A pamphlet of the National Union of Teachers for 1921-1922 giving an ac-

THE CALL TO BOSTON

INSPIRATION is the soul of great teaching. It lifts both teacher and pupil to lofty heights of achievement and releases stores of energy that without it had remained hidden. Inspiration is the secret of power, the magic of leadership, and the hope of democracy.

It is to get inspiration that teachers meet and share their best experiences. The coming meeting at Boston will bring together perhaps 20,000 of the Nation's strongest teachers in a setting of high literary and historic significance. That every teacher who can will be there and that those who cannot will send representatives is my earnest wish.—Charl Ormond Williams, President of the National Education Association.

count of its purposes, activities, and achievements, states its object as

"The establishment of a highly qualified, publicly recognized, independent learned profession, with emoluments and other conditions of service commensurate with their work for the state. In seeking this object the Union labours for

"1. Reforms in the system of training, and the adequate regulation of the supply of teachers.

"2. That social recognition which is given to members of a profession trained and directed free from state assistance and control.

"3. Salaries dependent on qualifications, experience, and efficiency of individual service, and not adversely affected by appointment in infants' departments or in rural schools.

"4. Equal salaries for men and women teachers of the same professional status.

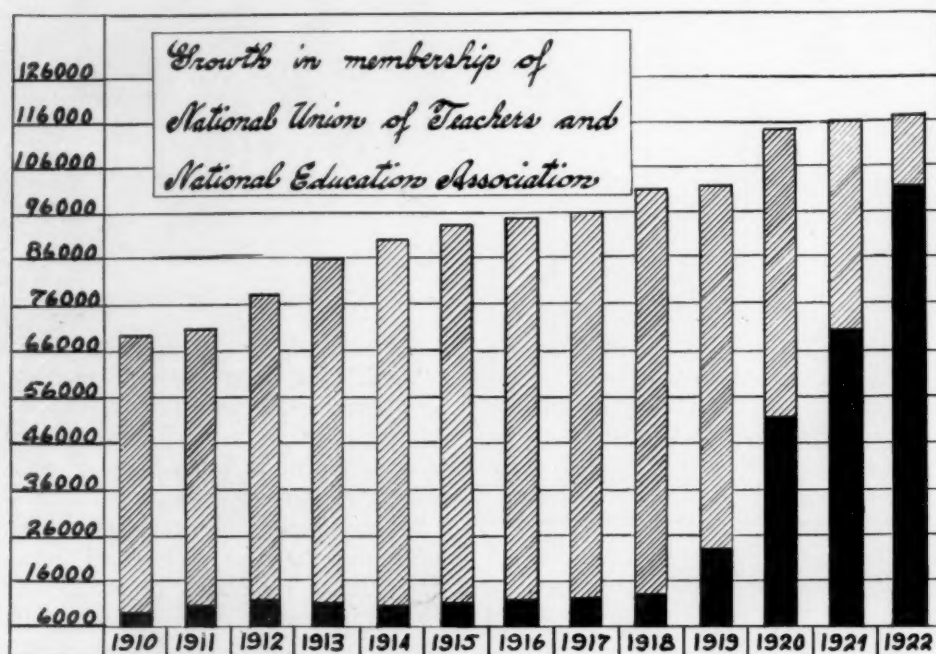
"5. Better conditions of tenure for teachers in secondary schools, and the inclusion in secondary-school schemes of a clause granting right of appeal against dismissal.

"6. The establishment of a court of appeal as a safeguard against the unjust dismissal of teachers.

"7. Greater freedom for teachers in the formation of schemes of work, particularly needlework, suitable to the educational needs of the school.

"8. The removal of unnecessarily irksome conditions of service under some Education Authorities."

The platform of the National Education Association definitely commits the Association to the main points in the program of the National Union. Although much alike in purpose and platform and in certain high standards and ideals, the two organizations are often unlike in the way in which their ideals are carried out. The Union takes special pride in what it does for the individual member, often referring to the fact that the teacher who is not a member will not receive help. The National Education Association takes pride in what it accomplishes for the profession as a whole, rarely referring to the special help that the individual member is to receive and never withholding its support from those who are not members. Does this mean that the Union appeals to the selfish interests of teachers because that seems the best way to win coöperation in England and that the National Education Association makes the appeal through the professional spirit of teachers because that is the best way to win support in America? Such may be the case, and yet this difference may be due entirely to a difference in the working



THIS CHART shows the growth in enrolment of the National Union of Teachers of England, which is represented by the taller columns, and of the National Education Association, which is represented by the black columns.

ideals of those in charge of the headquarters offices. It may be due to a difference in the conditions under which teachers work in the two countries. There is little demand in this country for legal help for teachers. The Union paid approximately \$50,000 in 1920 for legal assistance to members. The Union supports members who suffer in defense of their professional rights. The sustentation grants amounted in 1919 to over \$250,000. The entire budget of the National Education Association is slightly above \$200,000.

The Union has given much more attention to questions of unfair dismissal of teachers than the National Education Association, which has laid more stress on strengthening the ties between the public and its schools. It is possible that the Union pays too much attention to the individual teacher and too little to the improvement of the profession, and that the National Education Association pays too much attention to the needs of the profession as a whole and too little to the needs of individual teachers. When the World Congress on Education is held in the United States in 1923, this topic might very properly be listed for consideration.

The National Union promoted the passage of the Fisher bill which became a law in 1918. Having a membership of over 100,000 when the bill was before Parliament, the Union must have exerted a powerful influence for its passage. This law does for England

what, in a general way, the Towner-Sterling bill would do for the United States. The recent growth of the National Education Association now gives it power similar to that of the Union at an earlier date, and puts a tremendous force behind its legislative program. Civic organizations in England fought for the passage of the Fisher bill as civic, fraternal, and patriotic organizations are now working for the passage of the Towner-Sterling bill.

Teachers in England have been underpaid, perhaps more so than in the United States. When the war broke out in 1914, definite plans were under way for a salary scale which would increase salaries. However, teachers patriotically abstained from pressing for improvements of salaries during the war. Immediately after the war this question was taken up again with renewed energy and a definite scale worked out. This scale, called the Burnham Scale, has four divisions and would have London, with more wealth than any other city, pay according to Scale Four and other cities proportionately. Most local boards like to get their teachers under Scale Two. This system has increased teachers' salaries from a third to a half. The Union resists any projected cut in salaries. Right Honorable H. A. L. Fisher says, "As long as the teachers are under-paid you cannot expect the profession to be contented and you cannot expect the profession to attract men and women of ability."

The high ideals, set forth by each of these great National Associations, are an inspiration to teachers, who enjoy working to bring about the improved conditions for which they stand. Both Associations believe with Thomas Jefferson that, "If a nation expects to be ignorant and free in a state of civilization, it expects what never was and never will be. Ignorance and bigotry, like other insanities, are incapable of self-government. No other foundation can be laid for the preservation of freedom and happiness."



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THIS remarkable aeroplane view of lower New York City shows the giant office buildings and tall skyscrapers, which visitors passing through New York on their way to Boston next July will have an opportunity to see. The tallest tower in the center of the picture is the famous Woolworth "Cathedral of Commerce."

Literary Pilgrimages¹

THE TEACHER who visits Boston next July will find there enough to satisfy the most varied tastes. The Association's meetings will feature our National democratic awakening, its attendant call for leaders and an enlightened citizenship. The city itself will furnish the historical background. But the literary associations of Boston are of scarcely less interest to visitors than its historical, since the city was twice the literary center—first, during the Revolution and again in the nineteenth century when transcendentalism and the anti-slavery movement dominated the intellectual life of the country. Probably no other American city presents such wealth of historic and literary lore, so many haunts of greatness, as does the charming yet dignified capital of Massachusetts. Certainly from no other American city can the sightseer make more short pilgrimages to literary shrines.

Starting at the wharves, we first visit the old Custom House, where George Bancroft, the historian, was collector of the port and Nathaniel Hawthorne, his assistant, was gauger and weigher.

Charles Street, on the river waterside, now a noisy thoroughfare, was for a time the home of Thomas Bailey Aldrich,

Oliver Wendell Holmes, and James T. Fields.

It is not generally known that Edgar Allan Poe was born in Boston, somewhere in the vicinity of the present Hollis Street Theater. In later life he spent some time in Boston, and from here enlisted under an assumed name as a private soldier. Boston did not appeal to Poe, for he characterized its provincial stagnation as "Frogpondium." And Poe did not appeal to Boston. His obscure parentage—ordinary actors—or his plebeian addiction to drink may account for its lack of appreciation of Poe's genius. But then, only slight recognition was afforded Hawthorne when a struggling young writer in the same city.

But our search for the homes of the literati takes us for the most part to fine residential neighborhoods of the city if not to beautiful suburban districts. Several streets in the old residence section are noted for the number of authors, past and present, who have dwelt there. Among these are Mount Vernon, Pinckney, Chestnut, and Beacon streets. Mount Vernon Street, running from the State House down to the river, is essentially English in character. The brick house at 76 Mount Vernon Street reflects the fastidious taste of its erstwhile owner, Mrs. Margaret Deland, who also lived at No. 112. Aldrich lived

at No. 59, and William Ellery Channing, as the tablet in the ironwork of the gatepost tells us, lived at No. 83. Near by is the plain three-storied house where Francis Parkman had a study in his sister's home.



OAK KNOLL, in Danvers, was the last home of John Greenleaf Whittier. It is visited by lovers of "Snow-bound," "Barbara Frietchie," "In School Days," and "The Barefoot Boy."

Pinckney Street runs from Joy Street to the river, down the western ridge of Beacon Hill. Its quaint individuality is made memorable by the famous men who have resided here. At No. 84, Aldrich had another home; in fact, many writers had in succession two, three, or even four Boston residences. The Alcotts lived a short time at No. 20 Pinckney; and the house where A. Bronson Alcott died may be seen at 10 Louisburg Square, a quaint open space connecting Mount Vernon with Pinckney. A few doors away—at No. 4—lived William Dean Howells. No. 11, the neat brick house with iron-railed steps and curved entrance, is the present home of Alice Brown.

Chestnut Street had its celebrities. No. 13 was at one time occupied by Julia Ward Howe; No. 11 was for three years the home of John L. Motley, although his boyhood home was on Walnut Street near by. It has since been torn down. From the home of Francis Parkman, at No. 50, can be seen over on Beacon Street (No. 55) the home of a third great historian, William H. Prescott. It was here in this stately residence that



RALPH WALDO EMERSON lived in this Concord home for forty-seven years. Here he wrote many of his world-famous essays.

¹ Prepared by Miss Jessie M. Robbins, of the editorial department of the National Education Association.

Thackeray found inspiration for *The Virginians*. At No. 241 is the latter-day home of Julia Ward Howe, which has often been occupied by her daughter, Maud Elliott, and her nephew, F. Marion Crawford. Dr. Holmes for almost twenty years lived on Bosworth Street, a court leading off Tremont Street, opposite the old Granary Burying Ground, but his last townhouse was at 296 Beacon Street. Its second-story bay window—vine-covered—is a distinguishing feature.

Across the River Charles, on Mt. Auburn Street, in Cambridge, is the old colonial home of Longfellow. The building, painted buff and white, is separated from the street by an ivy-grown terrace wall and a hedge of lilacs. The name of "Craigie House" was given it by Andrew Craigie, who occupied it after General Washington used it for his headquarters and before Longfellow purchased it. This building is a veritable mecca for tourists, who deem themselves fortunate if, on letting fall the big brass knocker, they are admitted to its restful interior. On the landing may be seen the old grandfather's clock; at the right is the study, left furnished as it was during the poet's lifetime. Here, among other objects of interest, is the armchair carved from "the spreading chestnut tree."

A twenty minutes' walk brings us to Elmwood, the plain wooden three-storied building where the poet, critic, and reformer—James Russell Lowell—was born, lived, and died. Like Longfellow's home, it stands back from the street, low box-bushes separating the grounds from the street. Mount Auburn cemetery lies near at hand, where Lowell, Longfellow, and Holmes—the Cambridge poets, as they have been called—are buried.

A beautiful ride out of Boston is over the Paul Revere route by historic Lexington to Concord, a town of some six thousand inhabitants, delightful in lawns, gardens, and elm-shaded streets. It is another Stratford, for it was the dwelling-place of many of our great thinkers and writers. Our first object of interest is the "Wayside," the only home Hawthorne ever owned, a straggling, irregular structure of varying ages, heights, and styles. In spite of its architecture, it is interesting inside and out. Hawthorne had his study in the tower, and tradition says its only entrance, a trapdoor in the floor, was effectively guarded from intruders by the author's sitting upon it. "Wayside" was

also the temporary home of the Alcotts, but more closely connected with the name Alcott is the "Orchard House" just beyond—a wide-gabled house that stands several rods back from the street at the foot of a pine-topped slope.

On the left, at the Cambridge Turnpike, is the home of Emerson, where Thoreau spent much of his time. It is a substantial square two-storied white building with hip roofs. A wing at the back, a square window projecting at one side, and covered porches over the entrances relieve its plainness.

Passing the Wright Tavern on the left and the road to Sleepy Hollow Cemetery, where Emerson, Hawthorne, Thoreau, and the Alcotts lie, and going out Monument Street we come to the Old Manse, built in 1765 by Reverend William Emerson. Here Ralph Waldo Emerson lived with his grandparents; here Hawthorne brought his bride, Sophia Peabody, and here he wrote his *Mosses from an Old Manse*. It is little changed since then. From the low wall with gateway flanked by rough stone pillars, up through the ample grounds we come to the house, a square wooden two-storied building with its tiny-paned dormer windows, its gambrel roof, and attics. The interior, too, is attractive, with dark wainscoting, low ceilings, and massive overhead beams.

Before leaving Concord, the home of Thoreau claims our attention. It stands on the south side of Main Street, an old-fashioned wooden building, surrounded by trees planted by Thoreau himself. The Alcott family also occupied it at one time. It is said that in the room at the left of the hall Louisa M. Alcott wrote some of her stories.

Only a half hour's ride by train and we find ourselves in Salem, of witchcraft fame. The city, with a population of over forty thousand, is notable for its colonial architecture and its museums, but they offer no attraction until we have seen the little old house at 27 Union Street where Hawthorne was born. Essex Street is Hawthorne's "Main Street"; the Salem Custom House, at 178 Derby Street, is described in the preface of his *Scarlet Letter*, which though written in Salem is laid in Boston; at 53 Charter Street is the Grimshawe House, the scene of Dr. Grimshawe's *Secret*, where Hawthorne's wife lived during their courtship. On this street is the old cemetery where Hawthorne's ancestors are buried. But the spot most sought for in Salem is the *House of the Seven Gables*.

Another day may be profitably spent out Roxbury way. At 39 Highland, near Eliot Square, we see the last home of Edward Everett Hale, the author of *The Man Without a Country*. It is a fine large house with a two-storied Ionic portico in front. At No. 125, on a terrace thirty feet above the street, is Rockledge, which was for the last fifteen years of his life the suburban home of William Lloyd Garrison, the anti-slavery leader. It was in West Roxbury that the "Brook Farm experiment" was staged. A single cottage reminds the visitor of those days when the literary folk donned overalls and "farmed it" in Utopian abstraction.

To those who can linger awhile in storied New England there are numerous two-to-five-day trips out of Boston. For a small sum one can go any summer evening by boat to Portland. The night's trip is restful and inspiring, for as the steamer closely skirts the rugged coast, the twinkling lights on shore and out at sea will long be remembered. Portland's literary attraction is the boyhood home of Longfellow. The Wadsworth-Longfellow house, built by Longfellow's grandfather, stands on Congress Street near the center of the city. It is a three-storied sixteen-room brick building, built in 1785—the first brick building erected in Portland.

A pilgrimage worth making is to the birthplace and boyhood home of John Greenleaf Whittier in East Haverhill. This comfortable old farmhouse, built by Thomas Whittier in 1688, is now managed by an association, which has restored it and keeps it open for visitors. Thousands every year visit it and fondly identify in the old house and its surroundings much of the poet's life and poetry. When Greenleaf was thirty the family moved to Amesbury, and today its residents point with pride to the house the poet lived in. In his later years he spent much of his time with his cousins, in Danvers at Oak Knoll, near the birthplace of General Israel Putnam, and even though Whittier was "the last leaf on the tree" his declining years must have been enjoyable ones in this beautiful home with its lofty verandas, upheld by massive columns and shaded by splendid old trees.

To the student of literature, Boston freely offers her treasures. They are able to illumine his past reading in whatever field—verse, romance, or history—and, better still, in the days to come inspire him to a further acquaintanceship with American letters.

Health Work in the Schools

THOMAS D. WOOD

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GOVERNOR MILLER, of New York State—noted as a budget reducer—in his message to the legislature in January, 1922, gave utterance to the following bit of significant social philosophy: "I deplore paternalistic tendencies which substitute dependence upon the State for self-dependence and self-reliance of the citizen but it is one of the highest functions of the State to safeguard childhood and to protect the public health, and the proper discharge of that function is not paternalistic. . . . No child in the State should be handicapped by a remediable physical defect."

Statistics show that at the present time the children in rural schools throughout the country are handicapped by more uncorrected health defects than are the children in city schools, including even all the children in the slums. It is apparent from much evidence coming from many independent sources that the improvement in hygiene, sanitary science, and the standards of living in general affecting human health has been much more rapid in the cities than in rural regions.

Not only are hookworm disease, malaria, and pellagra in southern States more prevalent in rural sections, but in many localities of the United States typhoid fever, small-pox, and other diseases are relatively more frequent in the country than in the cities.

Within the last decade or two the death rate has been declining in general most rapidly in the States with the largest percentage of population in cities.

What is the significance of this? Should we urge our rural population to emigrate to the cities in search of health? Far from it! A vigorous, flourishing rural population must always be the foundation of our National life. It has always been true of America that most of our best human material—both for the city and country—has come from the farms. For the most part the raw material to supply the needs of civilization, including the best human supply, must continue to come from the soil. This is in accordance with one of the great uni-

versal laws of life. The emigration from country to city, and the consequent depletion of part of the best of our rural life is one of the deplorable phenomena of the past half century.

The quality as well as the quantity of the rural population is important. It is emphatically true that if rural life is not made healthful and sound, the very existence as well as the welfare and prosperity of the Nation will be—if they are not already—seriously endangered. Continuance of the present low standards of rural health and welfare is dangerous, both because it will result in further emigration from country to city, and because of the direct results of disease and ill health upon the population.

An analysis of the factors producing the present low average of health in our rural districts shows that the condition is as unnecessary as it is alarming. Ideal conditions for living are far more possible in country environment than in the city.

It seems that artificial selection—during the past half century especially—has drawn much of the best human stock from the country to the cities. That this is a factor which can only be indirectly controlled must be admitted. But this is not the chief cause of the low vitality of our rural population. The standards of living on the American farm, when tested by the accepted principles of sanitation and hygiene are alarmingly defective. Theoretically, the country offers the ideal environment for healthy living. As a matter of fact, the country home and the country school are on the average less healthful than the city home and the city school. The natural, healthful environment of the country is not utilized. The farmer's home is, as a rule, insanitary in many respects. It is often terribly unventilated and the dwellers in the house are fed many hours a day with bad air. Country water and food are often less wholesome than water and food in the city.

This indictment is all too applicable to the rural school. Much improvement has been made in the last few years in many rural schools in several progressive

States. The rural school, from the standpoint of health and general fitness for its important use, is even yet the most inadequate type of building in the whole country when judged by the minimum standard which it should attain.

These conditions, it must be repeated, are entirely unnecessary. The standard of rural life may be raised; the rural environment may be improved by the health education and health supervision and care of rural-school children. This is true both because the raising of standards of living is essentially an educational problem, and because, by health supervision of school children, it is possible—as has been demonstrated—to obtain a marked positive improvement in the health of the school population. The most vital phase of the problem of rural health relates to the health of the children. Neglect of anything essential for health in the construction, management, and supervision of the rural school is more than an educational sin of omission; it may reasonably be considered a social and civic crime.

More than 400 cities in the United States now have health work in the schools developed to some degree of usefulness. Although health work done in rural schools is much less developed, enough has been done to demonstrate its importance and feasibility.

The essential measures for improving the health of rural-school children include the provision of sanitary school-houses and environment; control of communicable disease; periodic health examinations; provisions for correction of defects; more extensive use of the school nurse; provision for warm lunches at school; provision for wholesome play and recreation; efficient health teaching, and better training for rural teachers, including training for health work.

The health of children is affected vitally by their surroundings. The buildings which house under compulsion, three fifths of the Nation's children of school age for 800 hours each year should be free from unhealthful and unfavorable features. The report of the Joint Committee on Health Problems in Education—*Minimum Health Requirements for Rural Schools*¹—summarizes the necessary conditions for healthful rural schools.

¹*Health Essentials for Rural-School Children* is the report of the committee from which much of the material of this article is taken. This report was prepared primarily to help the rural-school teacher.

If there is fairly intelligent and conscientious coöperation of parents, teachers, and health officers in school and community, there need be no epidemics in the schools. The daily health inspection is of prime importance in the control of communicable disease.

There are certain indications of health disorders, the detection of which should be an object of the daily inspection. These indications are nausea or vomiting; chills or convulsions; dizziness, faintness, or unusual pallor; eruption or rash of any kind; fever; running nose; red or running eyes; sore or inflamed throat; acutely swollen glands; a new cough; failure to eat the usual breakfast, or any other distinct or disturbing change from the usual appearance or conduct of the child.

Upon the appearance of these indications, the teacher should exclude the pupil from school for the day, or until the signs have disappeared, or until the proper health officer has authorized his return.

It is the parent's responsibility, upon observing any of these signs to keep the child at home and to notify the school. The detection of these first signs of health disturbance at home by the parent or child before starting for school is of especial importance in the country where the longer trip to school with greater physical exertion—sometimes in bad weather—would be particularly injurious to a child at the beginning of an illness.

Every school child should have a health examination once a year. More frequent examinations should be provided for individual pupils who need special attention. All health examinations and attention in rural schools should be under the supervision of regularly appointed school physicians, thoroughly trained for their work. Every State should have a State health inspector of schools who should give special attention to the health work of the rural schools.

The general health examinations in the rural schools can often be done advantageously by the school nurse with the help of the teacher. The routine test of vision and hearing can best be made by the teachers, for these tests involve to an unusual extent mental and educational as well as health factors and require the knowledge of pupils possessed by the teacher as well as simple methods of examination, which all capable teachers can easily learn. Of

course, any child who presents evidence of a health defect should be referred at once to a physician. The most serious of the defects commonly found among school children are malnutrition; defective eyes with imperfect vision; defective ears; adenoids; enlarged and diseased tonsils; defective teeth; eruptions and abnormal conditions of the skin; abnormal heart conditions; abnormal lung conditions; deviation of the spine; roundness of shoulders and other postural defects; abdominal hernia or rupture, anemia, and mental defects.

Physical defects should be reported to parents and all possible effort should be made by teachers, superintendents, school nurses, and school doctors to persuade the parents to obtain for the child the care necessary for correction of all remediable defects.

The problem of securing satisfactory means for the removal of physical defects in rural-school children is especially difficult, as hospitals, clinics, nurses, dentists, and surgeons are not easily available.

The county unit of health organization has already proved successful and promises the best results. Every county should have one full-time health officer; one or more school or district nurses; and at least one community health center. Under this plan there may be held county clinics, which are valuable for the whole population, but which are particularly useful for correcting the defects of school children. Clinics for examining eyes and fitting glasses and dental clinics have even been installed and operated successfully in school buildings. Traveling dental clinics have been successfully tried in several States.

The school nurse has already demonstrated the extraordinary value of her services in the health work of the schools. Without the service of the nurse, only from fifteen to twenty-five per cent of the pupils have physical defects corrected following the recommendations sent by the school doctors to parents. On the other hand, with the aid of the school nurse, from seventy-five to ninety per cent of the pupils reported receive remedial attention.

The practice of providing warm school lunches is beneficial for all the school children. The children who have a warm lunch at noon are better nourished and do their school work in the afternoon with better results. For malnourished children—of whom there are usually about twenty per cent in a

school—the warm noon lunch is an essential for the correction of their undernourished condition.

A school-lunch service should be a part of every rural school. It may be obtained, with the exception of the stove, at a cost of from four to ten dollars. The teacher, with the aid of the pupils working in groups in rotation, can prepare the lunches. The preparation of the school lunch makes the best possible demonstration for a lesson in domestic science and cookery. The instruction in selection and preparation of foods in many cases extends through the pupils to the homes and is the most effective way of influencing beneficially the standards of the homes. The school lunch may be made a vital part of the health education of the school.

Effective health training in rural schools should aim decisively at the following results:

a. The establishment of health habits and the inculcation of standards of wise and efficient living in pupils.

b. The extension of health conduct and care to the school, to the homes, and to the entire community.

For this practical and important school task the teacher must have a clear understanding and confident command of the application of facts and principles in the field of health. To be universally successful there must also be helpful and wise supervision in all of the work by a district or county supervisor well qualified to guide the health teaching with the rest of the health program.

It sounds paradoxical to say that opportunity for wholesome play should be provided for rural children. They have all outdoors in which to play, and yet on the whole, they know very little about how and what to play. A school without a playground is an educational deformity, but many rural schools have not enough space for an adequate playground.

Facilities and skilled guidance for play and recreation should be provided at the rural school not only for the school children but for all the young people of the community. Such provision should include athletic games and sports, school and folk dances, and dramatic training and expression.

The National welfare demands that rural life be made successfully attractive to the best people. This necessitates generous provision for the social, esthetic, emotional, and artistic requirements of young people as well as for their intellectual, economic, and health needs.

If the health program in the rural schools is to be successful, it must enlist the coöperation not only of individuals logically concerned, but of all organizations that may by persuasion be interested, such as granges, medical societies, and churches. With the hearty coöperation of the community, there is no reason why the school should not be the vital influence which is needed to raise the standards of living and health in our rural communities.

It is evident from the foregoing that the teacher in the rural school has inevitably a larger opportunity and a greater responsibility for all educational functions than does the city teacher. This is especially true in matters relating to the health and welfare of the pupils. She is further away from the help and services of superintendent, physician, nurse, and other social agencies. The rural teacher should, therefore, be unusually efficient, and should receive an especially thorough training in those matters of health and welfare for which she is more completely responsible than the city teacher.

Ten essentials for health of children in rural schools—1. Daily health inspection by parent and teacher with the coöperation of school nurses and doctors for detection of early signs of health disorders, to control and minimize communicable diseases.

2. General health examination, including dental examinations, at least once a year, for discovery of physical defects and estimation of general health and capacity of the child. There should be scales in every rural school so that each pupil may be weighed once a month.

3. Follow-up health work with provision of medical, surgical, and dental care for correction of health defects, with service of school or district nurse, to make effective the health program in the school.

4. Warm school lunches for all rural school children to be paid for, as far as possible, by the homes. Individual attention for undernourished children.

5. Sanitary and attractive school houses and surroundings which are essential to health of pupils and teachers.

6. Efficiently trained teachers qualified to do their full share in the care of the health and welfare of the children.

7. Practical health training of all pupils for the establishment of health habits and the extension of health conduct and care to the school, to the homes, and to the community in general.

8. Special classes and schools for the mentally and physically defective in which children may receive the care and instruction requisite for their needs.

9. Generous provision for wholesome, character-building play and recreation

both in school and in the community.

10. Organization and coöperation of the home and the school and of interested people and societies to insure to all children the essentials of health and general well-being.

The Way to Permanent Peace

FREDERICK J. LIBBY

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THE WORLD wants permanent peace. Not only do "Our hundred millions want less of armament and none of war," but still more do the war-shattered peoples of Europe crave it. When in August, 1920, talk of war with Russia to save Poland was under consideration in France and Great Britain, the 6,000,000 workmen of Great Britain appointed a Council of Direct Action with power to call a general strike if that war was declared. Impressive demonstrations under the banner "No More War" took place in Germany and France last year on the anniversary of the declaration of war. An invitation to a like demonstration in England next July bears the signature of clergymen, labor leaders, ex-service men and women of worldwide fame. In Germany last year 500,000 men and women, war cripples, war mothers, young people's peace societies, and pacifist groups participated. In Japan educators are organizing to urge the "disarmament of the textbooks," and the rising power of the liberals is directed towards the overthrow of the Japanese Military Party.

Ten years ago this movement would have been impossible. The Great War has made the difference. We had not suffered enough then. Ten years hence it would again be impossible. We should have forgotten. Another great war would be required to create again the situation in which the world now finds itself as the result of war. Crushing national debts, unemployment of unprecedented proportions, business stagnation that affects nearly every farmer and manufacturer in the country, starvation or semi-starvation in large areas of the earth and withal the realization that another war would perfect the means of wholesale destruction which the last war brought to light are sufficient reasons to convince the most hardened and the most frivolous that some way other than war must be found for the satisfactory settle-

ment of international differences.

It is no longer deemed fantastic idealism to believe that war can be abolished. On the contrary, the fact is generally accepted that it must be abolished. Nor must war's causes first be removed. During one century of peace with Canada, five distinct and serious causes of war have flared up and been settled by peaceful methods.

No one would, by any chance, call the United States Chamber of Commerce a wildly pacifist organization, yet at the meeting of the Board of Directors at Asheville, South Carolina, on November 17, resolutions were passed which went beyond those adopted a little earlier by the W. C. T. U.:

"The business men of the United States have declared repeatedly through the National Chamber by resolution and referendum their sentiments concerning reduction of armaments and constructive steps by which governments will unite in the establishment of methods for the prevention of war and maintenance of real peace in the world. We earnestly desire that the momentous conference now in session will formulate and agree upon plans which will not only reduce the great burdens which the people of the world now bear in supporting armies and navies but will result in the *substitution of arbitration and law* in the settlement of disputes between nations and the *removal of the menace of war* with its attendant evil and suffering."

One conference could not bring universal peace. It could only take one definite step towards permanent peace and leave to the people of the world the task of seeing to it that other steps shall follow. How will the goal be attained? The Bulletin of the National Council for Reduction of Armaments carries at the top of its first page the following threefold objective: "Progressive world organization, reduction of armaments, education for peace."

Progressive world organization—It will be observed that the term "League of Nations" or "Association of Nations" is studiously avoided. The issue is above partisanship. World organization under any name, but effective organization, organization that will win the confidence of the nations and will work, is the object to be sought now. We should support any movement that leads in this direction.

The Four-Power Pact is an experiment in regional organization for peace by agreement. It is an attempt to guarantee peace upon the honor of four great nations in a limited area of the Pacific Ocean. As a final step, it would not deserve support, because important nations on the Pacific Ocean are outside the agreement; nevertheless, as a first step, it has had the support of the great majority of the Senate and of the people of the United States.

The League of Nations is an experiment of longer duration in centralized world organization with provisions for the use of economic and military force to carry out the decisions made. The League of Nations is a "going concern." The absence from the League of the United States, Germany, Russia, and Turkey has limited its effectiveness and some of the provisions made in its covenant will, in the judgment of many, require serious modification before the League will win or deserve universal acceptance.

If one may venture a prediction, the conference method will lead to the organization of other areas for peace. A ten-year truce in Europe would be of this nature. A Pan-American agreement as a substitute for the Monroe Doctrine would be of similar nature. The Four-Power Pact by its very nature requires extension to include other powers. But this mode of world organization is clearly bound to demand a centralized body for the administration of affairs which, when entrusted to commissions, will lead to confusion and misunderstanding and perhaps even conflict. A modified League of Nations will probably be the outcome, the present League of Nations and Regional Organization for Peace meeting somewhere in the middle, so to speak.

Progressive reduction of armaments to police status—Secretary Hoover, speaking at Denver, recently said that the Washington Conference "lit a lamp that will light the way to disarmament throughout the world." Leading Japanese statesmen have taken the same view-

point, particularly with regard to navies. A Japanese officer recently appointed to the command of a fleet said when congratulated by an American friend upon his preferment, "I trust that it will prove to be a phantom fleet."

The same point of view is held in Europe. General Smuts, than whom no statesmen of our time enjoys more general confidence, wrote in a letter dated September 2 the following significant words: "There is one piece of work of first-class importance, perhaps the most important work that can be done today in the world for human welfare. I am speaking of disarmament. Nations today are ground down by taxation. The struggle of the future is going to be economy, and those nations who are going into a race of armaments will lag far behind in the economic race which is coming. If the League of Nations were to take up this task and impose on the rest of the world the condition of disarmament which has been imposed on Germany, I think it would be doing a great service. I am sure it will not be attempting too much."

President Harding voiced the growing convictions of men in the speech with which he closed the Washington Conference: "I once believed in armed preparedness. I advocated it. But I have come now to believe there is a better preparedness in a public mind and world opinion made ready to grant justice precisely as it exacts it. And justice is better served in conferences of peace than in conflicts at arms."

This transfer of national reliance from armed preparedness to world opinion will come slowly and gradually. The Naval Limitation Treaty involves such a transfer of reliance in part, since it makes it impossible for us to enforce our will in the Far East. In the interest of world peace we have voluntarily deprived ourselves of the power to compel Japan, for example, to evacuate Siberia. We rested our case at the Conference before the bar of world opinion and now wait patiently for the decision. It may fairly be believed that Japan will obey this mandate sooner than the American people would have consented to begin another world war for the sake of driving Japan out of Siberia.

Education for peace—The hammering out of satisfactory world organization and the hammering down of world armaments will be in vain unless the rising generation is educated for peace. The children must hold what we get, or our efforts will be in vain. They

will grow up ignorant of the horrors of war. Its ancient glamor may beguile them. The "new day" will die at dawn unless the children are taught to walk in the light of it.

General John F. O'Ryan, commander of the 27th Division, a division which lost more than 9000 men during the war in casualties, has been speaking many wise words about preparation for permanent peace. With the remark that a picture of Phil Sheridan, crying "Turn, boys, turn!" was largely responsible for his military career, he urged that teachers should draw more of their hero-stories from the annals of peace than has been the custom in the past. He also urges that the conception of patriotism as national egotism give place to a truer ideal.

It is in the teaching of history particularly that the teacher has opportunity to sow the seeds of peace or war. When most of us were children, we learned to hate the "Redcoats" as a part of the history of the Revolutionary War. A truer picture of it would exonerate the British nation of blame and lay the responsibility where it belongs, upon George III.

A wise teacher whom I know says that in teaching the history of wars he asks the pupils to consider how each of them might have been avoided. This leads to a broader knowledge of the countries involved and a deeper perception of the conditions prevailing when the war broke out than would come from mere acceptance of the war as an historical fact. The Washington Conference stands for better international understanding. The teacher who has caught its spirit will find many ways of promoting this end. Indeed, it will come back largely to the personality of the teacher. A teacher's prejudices are easily impressed upon youthful minds and become almost ineradicable. On the other hand, a broad and generous sympathy for the sister nations, with historic imagination which seeks to comprehend their difficulties, will make itself manifest also in the pupils' point of view.

The international conference of education which the National Education Association is planning for 1923 contains possibilities as momentous as the Washington Conference that has just been held. The disarmament of the textbooks, the new sense of the unity of mankind, the realization that truth is one and the same on both sides of a national border, are matters as important for the future as the limitation of navies and the Four-Power Pact.

The Project, Work, and Democracy

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AMERICAN SCHOOLS have for a long time been looked upon as the nursery of democracy. One of the leading public-school innovations is project work. Is there any fundamental connection between project work and democracy? The basis for the answer to this question lies in another. What is the central element in each of these two concepts?

The search for the fundamental element in project work reveals at once that under this name are included two things: one a *method* of instruction, and the other a *subject* of instruction. It is worthwhile to discuss each of these further in order to make sure that the point of view is clear.

Project work as a method of instruction (project method) has grown directly out of the application of psychology to education. This application was at first intuitive, as in the theory and practice of such reformers as Rousseau, Pestalozzi, and Froebel; and has later been more reasoned, as in the work of James, Dewey, and others. At its root lies the conviction of the intimate relation of mind and body and of their mutual contribution to learning. The demand of Rousseau and Pestalozzi for intimate and active relation to nature; Froebel's principle of "self-activity"; James' "No impression without expression"; and Dewey's "Self-education through activity," are all expressive of the essence of project method. Children are to be tied less to books, less to passive sitting at desks, less to mere memory processes, and are to have more of the active manipulation of *things*, presented to them in such relations as to constitute real thought problems. Thus *learning* is recognized as being everywhere the companion of *doing*. Doing, moreover, as Dewey and McMurtry have so well emphasized in the past two decades, is most effective when carried on in the pursuit of a definite end which the learner himself seeks as a satisfaction of his own primary or secondary desire.

This feeling that there must be more *purposeful activity* in schools if the learn-

ing process is to be most effective and the ends of education most efficiently achieved, is the root of the demand for project method.¹ It is true that the demand has also been reinforced by the desire to bring about more interrelation of subjects of instruction (more correlation) and many projects are, therefore, made compound and cover many subjects. But even here the real spur is the attempt to retain the unity of the child's spontaneous, active life.

Project work as a subject of instruction—The most common name for the project subject is manual training, and project work as a subject of instruction is rooted in the history of the manual-training movement. This movement also had its inception with the eighteenth-century educational reformers, and reached America by way of Finland and Sweden. This subject has always been an "activity" subject, variously termed sloyd, manual training, manual arts, and industrial arts. It has had a rather devious history, and has met and survived many dangers. Among these dangers was that of being made a mere "skill" subject and so of being turned solely in the direction of trade and specialization. Another was the danger of monotony and stagnation from lack of a really distinctive body of subject matter requiring thinking. McMurtry's contribution in the early nineteen hundreds in which he called attention to the possible and essential thought work preceding the really successful constructive activities, and Bonser's development of the industrial arts field conceived as the interpretation of industry in terms of life—both in line with the pace-making psychology of Dewey—completed the necessary foundation for the strongly entrenched subject of today. Thus the implication from the foregoing discussion is that the central element in project work, considered either as a method or as a subject is and always has been "self-education through self-activity."

¹See *The Project Method—the Use of the Purposeful Act in the Educative Process in Teachers' College Record*, Vol. 19:319-335, September, 1918.

The central element in democracy—But what is the central element in democracy? Many answers have been attempted. Few have stood the test and been agreed upon for any considerable length of time. The concept of the equality of man is perhaps the most fundamental idea that has been advanced. But the declaration that "all men are created equal" has necessarily been modified as the result of physical, psychological, and other knowledge. The new dictum is that all men are entitled to equal opportunity. But equal opportunity for what? Suppose that the answer is: Equal opportunity to get into the game of life and to make the most of their unequal endowments. Then the question becomes: What is the central element in this life participation? There can be but one answer. The central element in question is *activity*. Activity is the law of life. It cannot be escaped. Stagnation is death itself, both because organs which are not active decay, and because activity must support and defend life. And *purposeful activity* so pursued as not to interfere with others in the exercise of the same right is the higher law of human life. Therefore, with democracy conceived as equality of opportunity for entering into life, and with purposeful activity as the central thing in life, democracy becomes equality of opportunity to pursue one's purposeful activities.

The relation of project work and democracy—Project work is self-education through purposeful activity. Democracy is equality of opportunity to pursue one's purposeful activities.

Thus interpreted democracy and activity are inseparable when each is conceived in its highest type. Democracy demands equality of opportunity for the individual to educate himself through his purposeful activities, not only in schooldays but throughout his whole life. This demands the project method, and its relation to the project subject will be clearer when attention is called to the fact that purposeful activities are either *work* or *play*. Moreover, the difference between the two is not fundamental in this connection, since one man's work is another man's play and *vice versa*, and more than that, one man's work at one time may become the same man's play at another time. Change from work to play might just as well be called change from one kind of work to another kind of work with a temporarily more agreeable purpose.

Work, then, is the central element in both project and democracy. It is the law by which life remains life; it is the law by which life saves itself and makes itself effective. But in order that the full significance of this may be clear there must be recalled the close relationship between mind and body, and emphasis must be put upon both physical and mental work. No work is wholly physical or wholly mental. Remembering "No impression without expression" a little thought will easily recognize the fact that in some work the physical predominates and the mental is reduced to its lowest terms; in other work the mental predominates and the physical is reduced to its lowest terms, and there are many gradations between. Physical work and mental work are but different names for differently balanced combinations of the same elements. Physical and mental work should therefore be comrades, allies, each feeling the need of the other and its own impotence when alone.

Since work, or purposeful activity, has such supreme significance, it would seem strange if some specific effort were not found in school curricula to introduce youth to this recognized significance. Although the evidence cannot be set down here, it is the belief of the writer that even a cursory examination of the history of the manual training movement (the project subject) is convincing proof that the aim of this subject has from the beginning, with varying degrees of vagueness and definiteness, been that of introducing pupils to the significance of work to life. The danger of focusing upon skill or mere knowledge of tools and processes has until recently been present; but with the introduction of thought work and industrial arts courses which make life-applications the essential thing, those dangers are passed. There remains, however, the danger that work will be too narrowly conceived, and that primarily physical work (hand-work) will be emphasized out of proportion to that work which is primarily mental. If industrial arts courses, instead of dealing primarily with an interpretation of industrial or physical work with relation to life, were made to deal with all work and so to include business, professions, and the like, as well as trades and industries, there could be no better way of introducing young people to the significance of that central thing—work. Without the necessity for preaching, the experiences could be

Law of Clean Play

The Good American Plays Fair

CLEAN play increases and trains one's strength, and helps one to be more useful to one's country. Therefore:

1. I will not cheat, nor will I play for keeps or for money. If I should not play fair, the loser would lose the fun of the game, the winner would lose his self-respect, and the game itself would become a mean and often cruel business.
2. I will treat my opponent with politeness.
3. If I play in a group game, I will play, not for my own glory, but for the success of my team and the fun of the game.
4. I will be a good loser or a generous winner.

The prestige of a good high school is sometimes placed in jeopardy by the display of poor sportsmanship on the part of its student body at athletic contests.

To show how they love her, their own darling May,
Tis with blushes as pink as the dawn of the day,
That each apple tree turns to a blooming bouquet.
—Ada Stewart Sheldon.

THIS IS THE MAY page from the Cleveland calendar-code of morals. Other pages published in previous issues of *The Journal* have aroused unusual interest among teachers. The code was prepared by Dr. William J. Hutchins, now president of Berea College, Berea, Kentucky. Copies of the code in pamphlet form may be had free on request from the Character Education Institution, 3770 McKinley Street, Washington, D. C. Inquiries about the code as arranged in calendar form together with fourteen points of mental and physical health, by Dr. Lillian J. Martin, should be addressed to the Division of Publications, Board of Education, Cleveland, Ohio.

so arranged that the elements in the significance of work would be apparent and right attitudes toward those elements built into the very fibre of the character of future citizens.

The progression of the course would no longer be merely in models to be constructed, or in tools or processes to be understood, nor yet merely in ideas of the relation of industry (hand-work) to life. The progression would be in the changed attitude of the pupil toward all work, and these attitudes would change because of the growing conception of the significance of work. That significance is in part at least: (1) that work is necessary because (a) of the biological fact that the non-workers—the indolent, the non-active—tend toward decay, and (b) all necessities of life are supplied through work, and therefore, that the non-worker is a parasite sustaining himself upon the work of

someone else; (2) that all work is equally dignified in so far as it is required by human necessities; (3) that work is not a calamity, but rather the one great blessing of the world, since only through it can the destiny of man be achieved; and consequently to do some work to the best of one's ability is the supreme joy; (4) that in modern life all work must be divided and each must find that phase of the world's work for which he is best fitted.

There is great need for such a course in America. The tendency to form casts here has its roots in the relations of capital and labor, and everything possible should be done to combat the situation. The tendency to shirk work as a calamity and as an irksome thing; the growing indications of class strife represented by the labor and capital controversy, and fostered by extreme and ill-considered social doctrines; the increased social snobbishness which causes workers to be looked down upon by a leisure class, and which causes all rich to be envied, if not cursed, by those who have less; the increasing tendency for housework to be regarded as menial; the too many bizarre and unfit choices of occupation—all of these call for a subject whose particular social significance is that of making intrinsic in character a knowledge of the significance of work, right attitudes toward work, true knowledge of the complementary character of different combinations of mental and physical work, and a keen insight into the choice of a life work for which one is peculiarly fitted.

A manual training course, so expanded as really to produce citizens with the attitudes toward work which have just been mentioned, would be the true project course. And combined with a project method used in all other courses would go far toward insuring the growth of that democracy for which we hope. That man who has realized the necessity for work, the equal dignity of all types of necessary work, and who with a deep and abiding joy pursues with his best effort some phase of work to the benefit of himself and of his comrades—that man is the true democrat. The bolshevist may look upon democracy as an opportunity to get out of work; the true democrat looks upon democracy as an opportunity to get into his right place in work—as an opportunity, through a life time, to educate himself through his work in the service of himself and of his fellows.

Thrift in the Schools

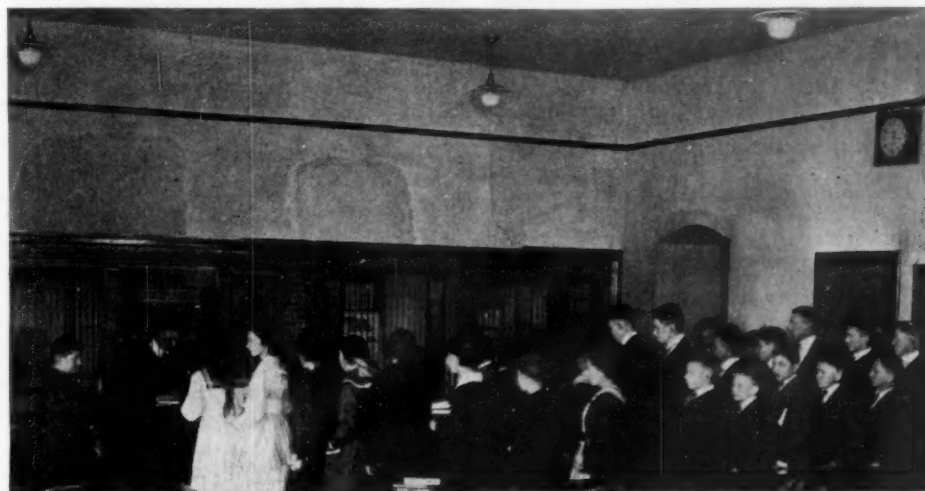
E. E. OBERHOLTZER

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THE PUBLIC SCHOOL is the place to stress ideals and habits which end in the achievement of deeds worthwhile. Thrift training will relate itself to economic and civic training throughout the entire school period. Every child has a right to demand of society, especially the home and school, such opportunities, advantages, and privileges as will enable him to become a successful, prosperous, and happy citizen. To this end the public schools of Tulsa have set up a thrift system which has become a part of the school work, which affords an opportunity in the practice of thrift as related to life and which is meeting to some degree the demand upon the school to bring to the child the privileges and opportunities for such training.

The thrift system is organized about the idea of a savings system, which has for its organizing agency The Tulsa Juvenile Thrift Bank. The director, J. T. Horner, is now in his third year and gives practically his full attention to thrift training in the city schools. Originally the director was connected with the commercial department of the high school and gave a little extra time to the thrift bank, which originated with

the banking class and later was enlarged to reach the student body and teachers as an organized institution. Following is a description of the growth of this organization:



THRIFT is at the very heart of good citizenship. Habits of thrift in money matters are easily made the basis of a thrifty attitude toward time, health, and other essentials of success.

The Tulsa Juvenile Thrift Bank was organized in 1918 as a school project with a double purpose. First, the sale of Thrift and War Savings Stamps; second, the promotion of thrift among

teachers and pupils of the Tulsa city schools. Capital stock is divided into shares of one dollar each, and no person can own more than one hundred shares. The money accumulated was invested in Thrift and War Savings Stamps and these were sold to the city schools on demand. About \$1000 was invested in this way. The War Savings Stamps were purchased by the capital stock furnished by the stockholders of the bank. The interest which accumulated on the



IN the Thanksgiving parade, the officers and customers of the Tulsa Juvenile Thrift Bank give the public an inside view of their work.

War Savings Stamps from month to month was credited to an interest fund which was divided as dividends among the stockholders at the end of the year, which made the interest on capital about ten per cent. The next year this fund grew until the stockholders realized as much as twenty per cent, but as capital increased the amount of dividend per share diminished and the last dividend was only ten per cent. Capital stock is treated as a savings account. It may be withdrawn upon demand, but if it is left in the bank six months interest, or dividend, is added to it, provided it was on hand at the beginning of an interest period. Dividends are added November 1 and May 1. During the first year of the bank's existence about 500 shares of capital stock were sold and about half of it was withdrawn at the end of the school year. The second year capital passed the \$1200 mark and about \$400 was withdrawn at the end of the year. The third year the capital passed the \$1500 mark. This is the fourth year and capital has already passed the \$3000 mark.

According to this project a student must have one dollar to invest before we

could get hold of him. Feeling the need of some plan whereby children could save small sums of money from week to week and month to month, an automatic receiving teller was installed in the Central High School in 1919 as an experiment. The high-school students saved about \$2000 by depositing one, five, ten, and twenty-five cents at a time in this machine during the year. Five more tellers were placed in the ward schools and these proved as successful in proportion as the high-school machine. In 1920 the plan was extended to every public school in the city. From September 15, 1920, to December 18, 1920, \$5000 was collected from the children through these automatic receiving tellers. The total deposits in these machines to date is more than \$15,000. The automatic receiving teller vends thrift stamps in denominations of one, five, ten, and twenty-five cents, according to the coin deposited. These stamps are attached to folders made to fit an ordinary pocket. Upon each folder are printed many thrift mottoes and also specific instructions as to how it may be converted into a savings account at a bank.

The activities of this bank are so planned that every public-school pupil and teacher in the city may participate. It is governed by by-laws and regulations the same as those used by any corporation. The stockholders meet twice per year for the election of directors and the annual meeting for the election of officers is held in September at the opening of the school year. Following are the officers elected for the present school year: president, E. James Downing, high-school senior; first vice-president, Harry W. Day, eighth grade, Lee School; second vice-president, Norma Clay, opportunity teacher; third vice-president, Helen E. Jones, high-school senior. The by-laws provide for a bank manager, who is the teacher of banking in the high school, and he has the power to appoint the cashiers and bookkeepers. These officers bear largely the responsibility of the banking business of the entire school system.

Originally capital stock was used for the supply of Government Thrift Stamps and War Saving Stamps, but since this stress of time has passed the capital stock has been used in a limited way for investment purposes and for the aid of worthy causes—in every case the funds bearing interest and fully protected. Through certain loans the in-

terest saving has never fallen below ten per cent. Ownership of stock is limited to one hundred shares for one individual. Among the four hundred twenty stockholders, holding approximately 3500 shares of stock, we find nothing but enthusiastic support and interest in the organization.

Estimating the surplus and assets, the stock now approximates \$14.45 for each shareholder. Through the influence of the thrift bank and the organized system of saving, approximately ten thousand school children have become depositors during the past year—the total deposit amounting to \$8647.38. This report indicates a lower average deposit than previously given. This can be accounted for only by the general financial depression. Approximately two thirds of the deposits were made in the early months of the school year. In many of the schools enthusiasm and interests reached the point where every child has become a saver. The Jefferson, Central Grade, and Lombard Schools are listed as one hundred per cent schools in thrift, while Riverview with a standing of ninety-six per cent will soon join the list.

The success of the Tulsa Juvenile Thrift Bank is largely due to the co-operation of principals and teachers and to the unselfish and broadminded spirit of the Tulsa Clearing-House Association and banking institutions. The manager of the thrift system never loses an opportunity to bring the object lesson of thrift before the children of the city schools.

Before the thrift bank was organized the Tulsa High School Thrift Club required its members to keep a daily record of cash receipts and expenditures. The credit side of the pocket cash book was divided into columns showing expenditures for necessities, luxuries, gifts, education, and investments. These books were balanced at least once per week and graded by a bookkeeping teacher. If pupils kept this record faithfully and correctly for an entire semester they received a one-half credit for their work. A plan similar to this is being carried out successfully at present with the sixth, seventh, and eighth grade pupils at the Robert E. Lee School. A teacher is directing this work among the departmental students. This pocket cash book method of forming the thrift habit is made a part of the work of the arithmetic classes. While no definite credit is given for this work as formerly at the

high school, the manner in which a pupil keeps his receipts and expenditures record is an important factor in determining his arithmetic grade. These pupils are urged to keep this record through the vacation periods.

The most remarkable effect on the economics of the community is in the candy sales at stores adjacent to almost every school. After the thrift stamp vending tellers were installed in the schools, these merchants complained that their candy sales had greatly diminished. Even the candy jobbing salesmen complained that their orders from Tulsa merchants were greatly diminished both in amounts and frequency.

The janitors noticed that their labors were lessened by the thrift movement. Paper candy and chewing-gum wrappers are no longer found on the schoolroom floors at the close of the school day. Owing to the fact that statistical data is not yet thoroughly organized by our city banks, exact figures from the increased savings accounts cannot be given at this time, but it is admitted that the volume of children's savings has greatly increased.

The Tulsa Juvenile Thrift Bank is the financial institution for the handling of all funds belonging to the high school and the general funds belonging to the public schools, obtained from voluntary contributions, plays, and other sources not under the control of the board of education directly. The bank at the present time handles funds and serves as a laboratory for teaching banking in the high school—the clerical work being carried on almost entirely by the advance banking students. A daily balance is kept and a regular monthly audit made.

We have found this a valuable institution from the standpoint of the service it gives in handling these funds, as well as the service it renders as a clearing-house for thrift accounts and savings of the various schools. Thrift is an idea of little value unless it finds its way into practice. Only by putting his knowledge and belief in thrift into daily use can the average boy or girl acquire the habit. It is believed that the children of Tulsa have been benefited greatly by the training in thrift practice which this organization has promoted.

Additional material on the thrift movement may be had from the reports of the Association's Committee on Thrift Education, published in the annual volume of proceedings of the National Education Association.

The County Unit School System

THERE IS substantial unanimity of opinion among educational leaders that the county unit of school organization and administration with provision for a professional superintendent with satisfactory tenure is the soundest basis yet found for an adequate system of rural education. In her biennial report for 1919-1921 State Superintendent Annie Webb Blanton, of Texas, states the arguments for the county unit plan as follows:

1. Under the present plan of electing the county superintendent by the people, the people have little choice as to who serves in this office. The best trained men and women will not, as a rule, offer themselves for a position for which they must make an expensive political campaign every two years. The only choice which the people have is frequently a choice between two or more poorly trained candidates. The people as a whole cannot examine into the qualifications of candidates and select the best qualified for the work, as is possible with a school board.

2. Under the present plan, the county superintendent, even though he may be doing excellent work for a county, is frequently changed after four years' service, because of the political prejudice against more than two terms. Thus the county loses the advantage of his experience and of his knowledge of county conditions, and begins again with an untried person who has not this knowledge and experience. The State also loses the advantage of his services because he cannot secure a similar position in another county. When a capable county superintendent is secured, his position ought to be permanent so long as he gives satisfaction.

3. The country child and the country teacher need, even more than do the city child and the city teacher, the supervision of trained superintendents, and supervisors. The method of selecting city superintendents by a city board has proved generally satisfactory. The country child should have the advantage of the same method of selection of a superintendent for country schools.

4. Under the present plan, if the county superintendent will not perform his duties efficiently, there is no way of protecting the interests of the people. He may neglect his duties or he may re-

fuse to obey the school laws, but he can continue in office. Even though his certificate be cancelled, he can remain county superintendent to the end of his term. Under the proposed plan, if the county superintendent does not perform his duties, complaints can be carried to the county board, which can investigate charges, and discontinue his services whenever it deems such a course justifiable. Thus the school interests of the people will be protected.

5. Such a plan does not "take the power out of the hands of the people." The people will elect the county board, just as the city people elect the city board, and will delegate to them power to manage their schools. At present, the city, as well as the country people, vote for the county superintendent, so the country people have not very much power in selecting that officer. In selecting the county superintendent, we should consider the country child, and not the adult politician.

Since the argument is made that to have the county board elect the county superintendent gives too little representation to the people, a plan might be tried in Texas which has given satisfaction in Iowa and other States. In the election or dismissal of a county superintendent, the power would rest in a county board of school electors. This county board of school electors is composed of the members of the county board of school trustees, of the presidents of the board of trustees of each of the common school districts of the county, and of the presidents of each of the independent districts having fewer than 500 scholastics. By such a plan, each district under the administration of the county superintendent is given representation in his election or dismissal, and those districts over which he has no authority are deprived of any such power.

6. Our present plan is not economical. Under it each little district stands to itself. Much money is wasted in providing separate superintendents for each small school. The county board can group these and secure more competent superintendents for each group, devoting much of the money thereby saved to better salaries for more competent teachers. When the county board has more power the position will be sought by the best business and profes-

sional men and women of the county. These will conduct the financial and other business affairs of the country schools in a more systematic and businesslike way than has been the rule in the past.

7. Better teachers will be obtained when these are selected by a county board and county superintendent, who arrange a just salary schedule for the country schools of a whole county, and make it worth while for teachers to return to the same positions with increases of salary. These positions will become more permanent and will be sought by experienced teachers.

Under a county administration, teachers who are deserving and striving for efficiency will have greater opportunities for advancement and reemployment in the county, even though they may not have met with entire success in a given situation. Under the eye of a county superintendent, who is responsible for the general character and ability of the teaching corps and who is looking for ability whenever it can be found, the teacher will have another opportunity of demonstrating her power in a different position.

Again, the teacher who is incompetent and undeserving will have less opportunity to inflict herself upon school districts in the same county.

Preparation of teachers for the work of supervision of rural schools is impracticable under the present law. The proposed law widens the field so that teachers may take courses in supervision and be employed either in county or city, and thus build up a class of professional supervisors. In this way the county as well as the city would secure expert service. The county unit plan should lead to a uniform local tax and a uniform term, and all schools under one management should accomplish the same work during the year.

8. The position of *ex-officio* county superintendent should be abolished. The county judge has usually little leisure and no training for school work. The sparsely settled districts need the services of trained schoolmen and women.

9. Experience of other States has proved that a county unit plan, such as is here outlined, is the best for small schools of a State. Under such plans, immediate and steady improvement has resulted. No State, having tried this plan, has ever returned to the old one-district system, with a county superintendent elected by the people.

Physical Education Problems

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FROM THE DAY Adam and Eve left the Garden of Eden down to a time that is within the memory of people now living, man earned his bread by the sweat of his brow. Except for the few who owned beasts of burden, his single source of energy was his muscles. He knew five methods of locomotion: walking, running, jumping, swimming, and climbing. He had five ways of handling objects: lifting, pushing, pulling, throwing, and striking. To protect himself and gain subsistence he was driven to strenuous and almost ceaseless activity.

The physical struggle for existence was a long one. Ancient Hebrew writers estimated it at 200 generations; modern students estimate it at 20,000 generations. Whatever the exact figure may be, it was long enough to fix in the human constitution several features that are now inherited by each succeeding generation: muscles that make up forty per cent of the body; an erect posture; a nervous system in which the ten fundamental movements just mentioned are natural coordinations; heart, lungs and digestive system suited to an output of 3000 to 6000 calories of energy per day; habits of eating, sleeping, and activity in harmony with the age-long program.

Then almost over night something happened that disrupted this program of muscular exertion completely and for all time. Machines of new design were put on the market—engines that fed on water, coal, and petroleum—and the human body, which had held a monopoly of mechanical power since time began, awoke one morning to find its occupation gone. With machinery now in operation turning out a hundred times as much energy as the total man-power of the Nation could provide, there is very little chance for muscle to regain its lost position. As a source of energy it is obsolete—sent to the junk heap along with the tallow candle and the spinning wheel. In a few years the coolie will be as extinct as the dodo.

The industrial revolution has caused an enormous increase in the numbers attending school above the elementary grades, a big increase in the leisure time of people in school and out, and a com-

plete cessation of the vigorous activity that earlier life enforced. These changes must be met by an extensive readjustment of our system of education, if the race is to survive and cope successfully with the changed conditions.

Increased school and college attendance has necessitated great building programs that have shocked conservative tax-payers. The building program is of interest in this discussion because it has resulted in neglect of the problems of leisure time and physical education. The problems of increased attendance are simpler and were taken up first for that reason. The church, the Y. M. C. A., and the play movement have been trying to solve the leisure-time problem. So little was done for physical education down to war time that one third of all drafted men had to be rejected as too unfit to be worth training. This jarred the more intelligent classes of people, and as a result twenty States have now passed laws requiring physical training in the schools.

It is becoming more and more evident year by year that the school must have a large part in solving the problems regarding the use of leisure time. Voluntary agencies of charitable nature, like the church, the Y. M. C. A., and the playground associations, can at best reach only one or two corners of the field. Park boards and other municipal agencies are too much in politics and lack the educational viewpoint. Commercial amusements are too closely related to commercialized vice, which has ruined more races and nations than war, pestilence, and famine. The school needs the space and equipment for recreative activities, and is better able, when equipped, to conduct them than any other agency.

It is also becoming more and more evident that these two educational problems—how to provide wholesome activity for leisure time and how to promote the health and vigor of the people—are essentially one and the same problem; the right solution of the one is the best solution of the other. The most attractive amusements in childhood and youth are active games and plays involving the fundamental bodily move-

ments inherited from primitive life: running, jumping, swimming, throwing, and striking. They are the most enjoyable because they are the things which, from immemorial practice, man is better able to do than anything else; at the same time they are the best to develop vigor and health, for they use so much energy that they determine the amount of food needed and of waste to be eliminated, and therefore control indirectly the activity and development of heart, lungs, breathing muscles, and all the organs on which health and vigor depend.

Another good thing about active games and plays is the fact that they are not exclusively motor, as some schoolmen have assumed, but well-balanced combinations of motor, sensory, and mental activity. Games require for success a clear head and a quick eye quite as much as speed or muscular power. School children, college students, and all others engaged as they are in sedentary occupations, have plenty of sensory and intellectual activity but suffer in comfort, health, and interest, because they lack the motor training to give a balanced development of the nervous system.

To begin the solution of this problem in any adequate way will require at least 40,000 trained teachers—about one for each 500 pupils. This is eight times the total enrolment of students preparing for this field in 1920-21. Heads of departments and supervisors should have four years of training as a minimum; elementary teachers under a supervisor can be prepared in two years, for a time at least. The institutions preparing these teachers are at present graduating teachers at the rate of 2000 per year; it will need four times as many to supply the need, after the work is under way.

One half of the special teachers of physical education are now being supplied by the private normal schools of physical education. Universities and State normal schools are taking up the work. They must do still more of it. The private normals were the pioneers and have done a great service, which they will continue, but they can never meet the need. In the first place, tuition must provide the funds for these schools, and that makes tuition high; with limited funds they cannot provide the staff and equipment the universities and normal schools can afford.

The course of study for preparing this special group should include four lines:

cultural studies, such as history and mathematics; courses in the principles of education, to fit the teacher to become an intelligent member of the school or college staff; physical education theory and the sciences underlying it—atomy, physiology, hygiene, chemistry, biology and diagnosis; finally, physical practice in gymnasium, field, and pool.

Lacking the provision for public recreation that we are proposing, individuals and families are buying commercial amusement at an enormous price: automobiles, pianos, victrolas,

wireless, theater, movies, professional games, pool, amusements of the Coney Island type; tobacco, soft drinks, cosmetics, and bad whiskey. The sums spent for these things prove the ability of taxpayers to support the physical education program, which is in the long run vastly cheaper. The success of the physical-recreation project depends most of all on our educational leaders, especially presidents of normal schools and universities and superintendents of schools; what they recommend with enthusiasm the people will supply.

comply this end three alternatives have been proposed.

First, the organization of the National Government's educational activities under the present Bureau of Education; second, the establishment of a Federal Board or Commission of Education; and third, the creation of a Department of Education with a secretary in the President's Cabinet.

There are few who would argue in favor of delegating to the Bureau of Education all of the duties and responsibilities with respect to education now divided among the various bureaus, divisions, departments, and administrations of government which deal with education. There is not even a remote possibility of such an organization being brought about. The assembling of these various administrative agencies under one head would require that this officer hold a position superior to that of a bureau chief.

There are those who have argued in favor of the second alternative, a National Board or Commissioner for Education, who should choose a National Commissioner of Education. It has been suggested that this Federal Board of Education might be directly responsible to the President but without the status of an executive department, and thus free from political influence. The analogy of the State and city board of education has been invoked. But the relationship of the National Government to education is not the same as that of the State and local governments. State and city boards of education are responsible for the certification of teachers, for the adoption of textbooks, for the development of courses of study, for the levying of taxes, in general, for the control, administration, and supervision of the schools. The National board of education could do none of these things. The National Government cannot and should not control or administer the schools within the several States. The functions of a National department of education are to promote and to encourage education, and to conduct such inquiries or investigations as will lead to the development of a more efficient system of schools to represent this most important function of democracy in the councils of the Nation, to provide through reports, and by means of conferences competent leadership. Those who base their argument for a National Board of Education upon the analogy with State and local boards have, it seems to me, failed to keep

The Need of a National Organization for Educational Service¹

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RELIGION, morality, and knowledge being necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind, schools and the means of education shall be forever encouraged. This preamble to the Ordinance of 1787 expressed an ideal and a relationship which have been consistently maintained by our National Government from its earliest history until the present day. By the setting aside of lands, by the distribution of surplus revenue, and by appropriations for specific purposes the National Government has sought to provide for the common good by the encouragement of education in the several States. During the last fiscal year the National Government appropriated for education the sum of \$149,800,000. These funds were administered by bureaus distributed through seven of the ten departments of government and by three independent establishments, the Federal Board for Vocational Education, the Veterans' Bureau, and the Commissioners of the District of Columbia.

In the year 1866 the National Association of School Superintendents of the National Teachers' Association at a meeting held in Washington took action in favor of the creation of a Department of Education and presented a memorial to Congress. A Department of Education was created in 1867. The

National Teachers' Association expressed its appreciation of the work of the new department and evidently took it for granted that it would be developed and extended as had been the Department of Agriculture established five years earlier. There were those, however, who sought to destroy the Department before it could demonstrate its usefulness, and before it was two years old a bill was slipped through Congress abolishing the Department of Education and transferring its functions to an office in the Department of the Interior. That those who sought to reduce in importance the office of the Commissioner of Education by the abolishment of the Department were successful is evidenced by the fact that for the last fiscal year of the \$149,800,000 expended by the National Government for education the U. S. Bureau of Education, exclusive of the money spent for the education of natives in Alaska, was allowed the sum of \$162,000.

Good administration demands that the National Government's participation in education be organized under a single head. There is at present no coordination of the many agencies responsible for the educational activities encouraged, or carried on, by the Federal Government. The duplication, overlapping, and working at cross purposes, which is characteristic of the present situation, can be remedied only by means of the establishment of a single governmental agency dealing with education. In order to ac-

¹An address delivered before the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association at Chicago, Monday evening, February 27, 1922.

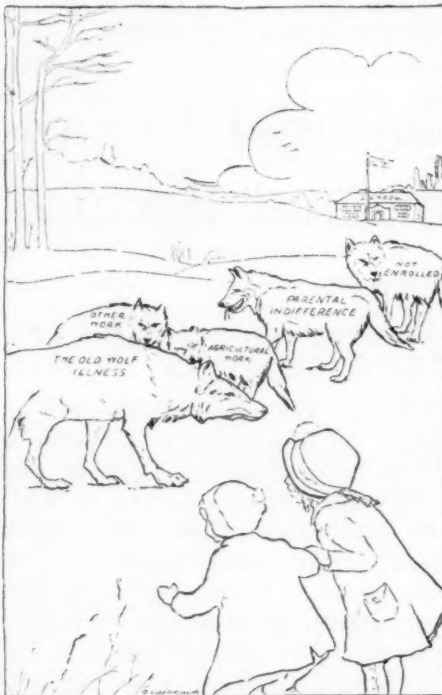
clearly in mind the distinction in function existing between them.

It has been argued, that a Federal Board of Education, charged with the responsibility of choosing a commissioner or director, would remove the office from politics and make possible the continuance in service of any incumbent of the office who proved efficient. Presumably the members of the Federal Board of Education would be appointed by the President and confirmed by the Senate. Have we any reason to believe that this Board would be any less likely to act without relation to political considerations than would the President of the choice of the members of his Cabinet? Membership upon the Board itself would be just as likely to be determined by political considerations as would the appointment of a Secretary of Education. A Board made up in this manner could no more be expected to appoint a commissioner or director without political considerations than could the President be expected to choose his secretary upon the same high plane. It may be noted in passing that we have had in our National Government in the Department of Agriculture a man continued in office through the administration of presidents of the opposing political parties because of his acknowledged fitness for the place which he held.

If the Federal Board of Education were made up of men of National reputation, it would be extremely difficult to secure their attendance upon board meetings held in Washington. If the Board were made up *ex officio*, it would suffer from all the weaknesses of all boards so constituted in that none of its members would consider the work of the Board of Education as of primary importance. The Director or Commissioner of Education, under the Federal Board scheme, could not under the constitution be an officer of the National Government, but merely an employee of the Board of Education. If it be argued that the President appoint the executive officer of the Board, the supposed advantage in removing the Director or Commissioner from the realm of politics entirely disappears.

Our National Government is organized on a departmental basis. The number of these departments has been increased as the functions of the National Government have been differentiated or the responsibility of the Nation for the welfare of all of the people recognized. We have in the National Government today seven departments—state, treas-

ury, war, navy, justice, post-office, and interior—which are organized for the administration of certain functions over which the general Government has sovereign power. On the other hand, we have three departments—agriculture, commerce, and labor—which are commonly known as welfare departments. These agencies of our National Government are organized to promote the general welfare. It is significant, however, that the Secretary of Agriculture, the



Secretary of Commerce, and the Secretary of Labor have seats in the Cabinet and sit at the table around which are discussed all of those questions of policy with which the executive branch of our Government is concerned.

There is today no more serious problem before the Nation than that which centers in the education of all of our people. With more than half of the teachers in our public schools with inadequate education and professional training; with approximately one fourth of the adult male population, as revealed by the army tests, unable to read the English language; with millions of foreign-born who have little appreciation of American ideals or American institutions; with an alarmingly large per cent of the adult population physically handicapped because of neglect during childhood and youth; with the gross inequalities that exist throughout the Nation in the opportunity provided for education, there can be no problem more important for consideration at the counsel table of the Nation than is education.

If the public-school service is to be adequately represented at Washington, there must be a Secretary in the President's Cabinet. If the Nation is to continue its support of those educational activities and agencies already receiving Federal aid, it will be because a member of the Cabinet makes known the needs of this service in the preparation of the National budget. If the scientific investigation which should be carried on by the National Government is to be undertaken and carried forward on a truly National basis, the director of this enterprise should surely take rank with the Secretary of Commerce, the Secretary of Labor, or the Secretary of Agriculture. If education is to have the status, the dignity, and the influence in our Federal Government necessary for the establishment of National leadership we must have a Secretary of Education.

It is significant that the National Education Association and this Department of Superintendence have again and again during the past fifty years, and more especially during the past three years, recorded themselves in favor of the establishment of such a Department. It is even more significant that at this time millions of men and women outside of the profession, through organizations national in their scope, are working shoulder to shoulder with us for the realization of our purpose. One of these organizations has appropriated \$125,000 to carry forward our program as expressed in the Towner-Sterling Education Bill. Shall we keep faith with them, or shall we confess that our repeated endorsement of this measure, the history of fifty years of consistent advocacy for a Department of Education, is to be abandoned because it is not expedient for us to stand fast? Shall we admit that we cannot carry on because we find opposition to our program? Shall we notify Congress that we repudiate our former action? I believe that the answer will come from this body in no uncertain terms. We will stand because our cause is just, because our program is conceived in the interest of the public welfare. Good administration, the structure of our National Government, the practical importance of education in our National life—all call for the recognition of education in our Federal Government through the establishment of a National Department of Education with a Secretary in the President's Cabinet. We will not give up the fight until our program has become the law of the Nation.

Educational Progress in Mississippi

H. M. IVY

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THE LEGISLATURE OF 1920—The Legislature of 1920 passed a compulsory education law which could be enforced. It resulted during the past session in bringing into our schools more than sixty thousand boys and girls who would not have been there otherwise. The appropriation for the common schools was increased sixty per cent and provision was made for an equalizing fund to provide equal school terms and equally well-trained teachers throughout the State. Bonds were issued to the extent of four million dollars for new buildings and equipment at the University, the Agricultural and Mechanical College, the State College for Women, the Normal College, and the Agricultural and Mechanical College for Negroes.

Improvement in rural schools—Consolidation in Mississippi began in 1911. There are now six hundred and thirty-four consolidated school districts, one hundred and seventeen of which have teachers' homes. Vocational agriculture and vocational home economics, under the provisions of the Smith Hughes Law, are being rapidly introduced into these schools. In fact ninety-five per cent of such appropriations in this State are spent in the rural schools. More than thirty-five thousand children were transported in these districts during the past session. Approximately five million dollars have been spent in the last four years in the construction of these schools, which have displaced two thousand one-teacher schools. This movement has been less rapid in the negro schools, because of the fact that negroes are gregarious and consolidation is unnecessary. However, more than fifty one-teacher negro schools have been consolidated into two- and three-teacher schools. Up to July the first, 1921, more than two hundred Rosenwald schools have been erected at a total expenditure of one million dollars. Vocational work is being rapidly introduced into the negro schools also. During the past year there were twenty-four supervisors of vocational work, one to the county. These supervisors were jointly supported by the Jeanes Fund and the county.

Higher standards of certification—Although the legal requirements for a teacher's certificate for rural schools do not demand more academic preparation than the first year of high school, more than seventy-five per cent of the teachers coming into the schools during the past year have had the equivalent of high-school graduation or more. Seventy per cent of the teachers in the four-year high schools hold degrees from standard four-year colleges, and fewer than ten per cent of them have less than two years of such college training.

Growth in teacher training—In order to improve the qualifications of the teachers, there were held during the summer of 1921, sixteen normals of six weeks' duration, which were attended by three thousand white teachers. There were in addition to these twenty-three summer normals of six weeks' duration for the benefit of the negro teachers with an attendance of three thousand five hundred. More than eight hundred secondary school teachers attended recognized professional institutions such as Peabody College, Tulane University, University of Chicago, and Columbia University. The Normal College enrolled twelve hundred during the past session. It is now a junior college, but the rapid development of the rural high schools makes it imperative that it move up to senior college grade.

In addition to the colleges of the State, there are eight denominational colleges offering courses in education, and each of these teacher-training departments work in harmony with the State in the preparation of teachers. In addition to the above, there are thirteen negro colleges in the State, each maintaining a teacher-training department with a good enrolment.

High-school development—Mississippi has in operation forty-nine county agricultural high schools. They are supported jointly by the county and the State. Each has one or more dormitories and maintains a standard four-year high-school program of study with vocational training in both agriculture and home economics. Many of the consolidated districts have full four

years of high-school work, and every town and village has a school offering that amount of work. There are altogether eight hundred white schools doing one or more years of high-school work. The standardization of these schools has been begun, and they are rapidly meeting the requirements. One hundred and sixty have been approved as full four-year high schools, nineteen of which are approved by the Southern Commission on Accredited Schools, one of the standard accrediting agencies of the Nation. There are 102 three-year high schools, 252 two-year high schools, and 242 one-year high schools. There are also twelve private secondary schools, one of which is approved by the War Department, and two by the Southern Commission.

Until very recently it has been difficult to retain negro children in school above the elementary grades. However, there are at present twenty secondary schools giving four years of standard high-school work, and fourteen county training schools, each of which maintains a three-year high school with vocational training, home economics, agriculture, and farm mechanics.

Increased salaries for teachers—Teachers' salaries, both white and colored, have increased within the past three years on an average of fifty per cent. The increase for rural teachers has been sixty-six and one-half per cent. In spite of the financial depression there was practically no decrease in the salaries for the session 1921-22.

Better support of negro education—The favorable attitude of the white people toward the education of the negro may be illustrated by the fact that the city of Hattiesburg in which the ratio of white to colored is five to one recently voted six to one for a seventy-five thousand dollar bond issue to erect a high school for the negroes. The valuation of the consolidated negro school buildings erected during the last two or three years varies from one thousand dollars to one hundred thousand dollars. The Supervisor of Negro Schools with four negro assistants is rapidly developing the work of their schools.

Professional organization—Through the State Department there is an organization of the county superintendents which meets annually for the discussion of their problems. Each county has an organization of rural school trustees. There are two State teachers' associations, one enrolling seven thousand of the eight thousand white teachers, and

the other two thousand five hundred of the four thousand negro teachers in the State. The white teachers' association maintains a permanent organization and issues monthly a magazine. The Executive Secretary has his office in the State Department and manages the business affairs of the magazine.

Growth of public sentiment—Only fifteen per cent of the population of Mississippi is urban. According to the Federal classification there are only thirty towns with a population of more than 2500. Each of these towns has its own white school and its negro school. Within the past five years these schools have been rapidly changing to the twelve-grade organization, the six-six

plan being most frequently used. More than half of the towns have organized a junior high school. The city of Jackson has just completed a junior high-school building at a cost of \$250,000 that is modern and up-to-date in every respect. The people take great pride in their schools and in general use at least half of their local taxes to support the public-school system.

The sentiment of the people of Mississippi toward education is far more favorable than ever before. We believe that we are justified in the statement that our educational efficiency has improved not less than twenty per cent during the past three years.

is freedom to act, to act wrongly or rightly, that any moral issue is involved. Otherwise the intelligence has no opportunity to discern right from wrong; the disposition to do right has no chance to function positively. We cannot develop in children a sense of responsibility to act rightly when we deny them freedom of choice as to their actions. Ethical conduct is socially regulated activity, and it is evolved only by social experience in an environment freed from external control.

Civics teaching as it is today conducted is far less effective in its reflex upon social action than it might be. Isolated as it is, just a "subject" crowded into a curriculum with many others, it often fails to impress the child with a sense of reality . . .

When the school is organized as a social community in which is being built up a body of facts as a basis for social action, when desirable attitudes and dispositions are being developed with regard to social matters, when this social philosophy has continual opportunity to function in situations engendered by the school experience, all the resources of the school are being utilized for realizing the social mission of education. The school cannot be a preparation for social life unless it reproduces within itself the conditions of social life. Education progressing in a school organized as a social laboratory is not merely a preparation for citizenship, it is an apprenticeship in citizenship.

The great battles "to make the world safe for democracy" remain yet to be won—in the schoolroom. Let us then refuse longer to bind the new life to the life that is passing. Let us be no longer willing to shackle the experimental spirit of the youth of the world, or to place a ban upon creative and explorative thought. Let us unite to raise up a body of men and women thinkers—not partisans—animated by a great social consciousness, and standing ready to face their problems eager and unafraid. It is only in this way that we can make of education a great liberalizing agent for the release of democratic forces. It will take long, patient, painstaking effort; it will require a body of whole-hearted experimenters, fired by the philosopher's vision, willing to submit every action to rigid scrutiny, and to extract from every failure that bit of good which will lead to its better application in the future. Are we ready for the great experiment?

Moral Education¹

THE MORAL code of the race has been gradually built up out of its experience as an effective method of forwarding social advancement. Society has learned to approve those actions which tend to the advantage of the community. The moral creed of a particular group is nothing more than the conviction implanted in the minds of its members of the propriety of the manner of life imposed upon them. The standards thus evolved represent public opinion as to what is right and just. The moral is the social; the immoral is the anti-social. Any moral idea found to be socially valuable is retained, those found to be no longer relevant to the social situation are gradually eliminated; those which are universally applicable remain as a permanent part of the moral code.

The foregoing discussions reveal the moral value of activity in education. Since our moral standards are not something remote from experience but engendered by experience itself, moral training cannot be inculcated by giving children a set of maxims; it must be gained through the give and take of social life itself. To provide a child with a set of maxims is to bind him an unthinking slave to the past; to give him the power to realize the moral implications of his own conduct and to evolve a code of ethics for evaluating social experience, from the experience in which he is himself engaging, is to make of him an active agent of civilization. It is for this reason that activities in school are a fundamental necessity in guiding con-

duct. They give opportunity for situations that bring about moral training through experience itself. A school régime that encourages the passive absorption of knowledge for its own sake, that isolates pupils into individual units and emphasizes competition, that makes communication among pupils a sin, is training its pupils in a code of ethics which is not in accordance with what is advocated in life outside of school, and it fails to take advantage of the two great opportunities for moral training of life in a social group—the training in coöperation and social sympathy. The participation of even small children, however, in projects of common interest to them calls for coöperation with all the moral training that it involves. The experience of a child in the company of his fellows is the best moral training he can have. Social disapproval has a quick and direct way of reforming conduct that is worth a dozen homilies or moral lessons. We must interpret moral character more scientifically, more psychologically and adjust our pedagogical action accordingly. Moral character must be regarded as an organic growth, not a series of specific achievements. It is developed through the formation of habits, through experiences. It is a disposition to order one's conduct with reference to the welfare of others. It is only through constantly meeting situations that give opportunity for the exercise of moral ideas that these habits and this attitude can be developed. Discipline from this point of view means not external compulsion, but inner control. Moral preference is exercised only in making a choice. It is only when there

¹ From Gertrude Hartman's *The Child and His School*, E. P. Dutton & Company, 1922. 248 pp. Bibliography. \$3.

The Education of an American Citizen---The Main Issue

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The Union must be preserved: and hence all indispensable means must be employed.—Abraham Lincoln, in his Annual Message to Congress, December 3, 1861.

OF THE FUTURE we may be sure of only this: it will differ from the present and still more from the past. Education deals with the future, of necessity. Its returns are always deferred: in the individual, for a generation; in the nation, for periods or epochs. Crises occur before either success or disaster: probably long before and in times of quiet and security; hence they tend to slip by undetected, and the menace shows itself only when it is too late to avert it. So it was in 1914; so also in 1861; and doubtless the historian could cite unnumbered instances, great and small. Hence the supreme need for vision in the educator, and yet he is constitutionally given to 'hindsight'!

Napoleon, perhaps the shrewdest and most successful of men, said, "Always consider yourself on the verge of disaster, to be saved therefrom only by the most strenuous exertions." Just now, while still shuddering from the after-horror of the latest catastrophe, it is not too soon, and we trust it may not be too late, for us to heed his maxim, and at least suspect that a crisis may be here and now, demanding our thought and action. The astonishing National solidarity of wartime is gone, and internal dissension—long familiar—lifts its head again. National unity is still an indispensable National need: at least as much in peace as in war. The very progress being made toward the banishment of international war is a call for a new solidarity within, of a type which rises above the level of the past, never requiring to be fired and fused by fear and hatred of the foreign foe, but self-subsistent and self-sustaining. The fatally wrong situation is that of the German Empire just prior to the War, in which the existing political order had to choose between war and revolution.

The World War has effectively raised the question of an organized system to

end war—that is, to make impossible even one more international "free-for-all": it is quite certain that part of the main issue in American education will relate to this problem and consist in the extension of the conception of union and democracy to the inhabited world. For our present purpose let us note that if war-patriotism is to be eliminated, as men and nations now hope, it is high time to study and labor on the task of generating and invigorating that truer love of country that has no admixture of hatred or contempt for other nations or races and that truer unity which need in no wise cut us off from the wider sympathy with the whole race of Man nor impede the broader citizenship which alone will guarantee international peace.

The principle of political democracy is for us settled beyond all controversy, even though we are still far from the full attainment of government by the people, or even for the people: the flagrant inequality of chattel slavery was definitively wiped out, by a long struggle culminating in the totally useless yet inevitable bloodshed of the Civil War. Yet the main issue of Americanism lives on, and is as shrewd a hazard now as in the Revolutionary War or in the sixties. Like Franklin, watching day by day the painted sun in the convention hall during the debate on the Constitution, we may still wonder whether it is a rising or a setting sun: at least it would be folly indeed to sit in slothful ease, counting on the forces of nature to guarantee the full glory of our National destiny.

Frederick the Great, in sceptical mood, it is said, once demanded of his old chaplain, a proof of the scriptures in one word. However that may be, the issue of Americanism can be put in two words, taken from the original charter of our Nation: those words are *All Men*. As the infinite manifold of the world's flora and fauna has evolved from original protoplasm, so, one might almost say, the boundless richness of the distinctive characteristics of American

common life evolves from this pregnant phrase. The Declaration is imbued with this idea: nowhere is any power admitted superior to that of "the people" except Nature and Nature's God; and contrary to nearly everything theretofore, government, of whatsoever sort, is the mere creature and tool of the governed. The preamble is a magnificent gesture, in which the Declarators turn away from the Royal Potentate whom they have so long vainly petitioned, and address themselves, as men, to mankind; the only obeisance, not of servility but of noble courtesy, is that fine phrase, "a decent respect for the opinions of mankind."

The Declaration is not a variation, it is a mutation: the monarch whom they have been venerating—in words at least—becomes now a Despot against whom a long indictment in many counts is rendered. As one reads the impassioned utterances and realizes how recently most of the authors had been sincerely loyal, one is overcome with a sense of change in the very substance of politics: it is *Homo politicus* standing up on his two feet and looking all kings in the face with defiance. True, these men had had their first lesson from Englishmen in Stuart times, but they had assimilated the lesson so well that they had almost forgotten its origin, and moreover they were bettering the instructions, for the good of Englishmen as well as of Americans.

Words that mean Man pervade the whole document: human events, people, mankind, men, the governed, the public good, representative houses, population, the civil power (versus military), and so on. Even the British people, in sharp contrast with the British King, are named only in kindness and sorrow as "our British brethren," and blamed only for their blind support of the Tyrant: they, too, are after all, as men, "our common kindred," and credited with "native justice and magnanimity." The deference and compliments long used toward kings are turned now to people, even when those people have failed to see the justice of our cause.

The other great words of the Declaration and of all Americanism since then are mainly attributes of the subject *All Men*. *Equality* is the first, *Liberty* the second. They are both intensely practical and dynamic. How are we succeeding in linking subject and attributes even within the limits of our own National fold?

Equality is the straight edge by which American polity is judged. We must say polity, even though we mean politics in the true sense of the word, lest we hazard a narrow and futile interpretation. Whatever the Nation does as a Nation, the State as a State, the county as a county, the city as a city—whatever any official unit of Americans does officially—must square with the test of equality. This is what we call equality before the law, and is presumably what the Declaration meant by its assertion that all men are created equal. In spite of all shortcomings and defaults—some of which we shall indicate shortly—it is probably safe to say that the United States and its constituent States have been far in advance of other great governments in the degree of equality attained, provided we consider the period of our National existence as a whole. That we are now actually ahead might be questioned. Consider, for example, one single fact, dating from before the War,—the presence in the British Parliament of more than fifty workingmen, elected specifically to ensure representation for their class. Since the War, evidences come almost daily of astounding advance toward equality even in hitherto undemocratic quarters. This morning (January 29) press dispatches announce that the anti-alcohol legislation in Poland is due to the force of *women* members of the Diet. Are we not now among the conservatives?

Liberty means nothing except as it embraces all. This was the logic which ceaselessly and inexorably impugned chattel slavery. In vain did the advocates of the institution, honest or hypocritical, invoke divine ordinance that black men ought of right to be subject to white men. In vain did the Douglas type deride the idea that black men were in any sense the equals of white. Everything, even economic necessity, had to yield to the impact of the argument from the Declaration: "in the right to eat the bread, without the leave of anybody else, which his own hand earns, he is my equal and the equal of Judge Douglas, and the equal of every living man."¹ This was a sentiment that went straight to the hearts of millions of common men throughout the North, and doubtless to those in the South where the air was clear enough from the confusing fog of the slavery tradition. It is a sentiment which must always ap-

peal to common people, without special privilege or advantages, who of necessity are the outweighing majority.

If we can believe Lincoln's own oft-repeated words, it was the Declaration of Independence which most clearly marked the course in those stormy times; it was the Declaration which stirred him more than anything else to those impassioned utterances which so seldom but so strikingly broke into the clear calm of his logic: "Come back to the truths which are in the Declaration of Independence. You may do anything with me you choose, if you will but heed those sacred principles—drop every paltry and insignificant thought for any man's success. It is nothing. But do not destroy that immortal emblem of Humanity—the Declaration of American Independence."

Far be it from us to attribute any superhuman or inviolable authority to a mere document, even the most sacred, either political or religious: it is the truth and not the declaration that must reign. Freedom for all is necessary because it is the only guarantee for freedom for any: "In giving freedom to the slave, we assure freedom to the free—honorable alike in what we give and what we preserve." A society no more than a Nation can survive half slave and half free. Without equality there is no law, any more than there is a triangle without three sides. The master was enslaved by his ceaseless struggle to keep his slave enslaved: still more clearly were all the "poor whites" of the slave States as hopelessly unfree as the black slaves themselves. It was this overpowering sense of the inexorable law of life that so fired the imagination and heart of the more conservative anti-slavery men, and underlay the first alarms uttered by Seward in his warning of an "irrepressible conflict" and the words of Lincoln when he predicted that the country could not endure half slave and half free. It was not in the nature of things that slavery could dwell in the land of the Declaration.

Today no less than in other days of our country, it is the *immortal truths* of the Declaration on which we must fix our eyes and by which we must be guided. Mere bandying about of phrases, however lofty and sacred, is worse than useless—every people with great ideals has suffered by empty and insincere "Fourth of July" oratory. Not patriotism, as cynical Dr. Johnson said, but pseudopatriotic lingo is the last refuge of the

scoundrel: and what is worse, because far more prevalent, empty liturgical repetitions in speeches and National songs, pass with millions of honest men for one-hundred-per-cent Americanism. We have heard much of "calamity-howlers"; one may hazard the guess that "prosperity-howlers" are quite as dangerous. Let us condemn in the same verdict the malcontent who denounces everything as all wrong, and the smug patriot who insists that everything is perfect. Each looks through lenses which magnify his own sensations and shut out the bulk of the Nation, to say nothing of humanity.

Liberty and equality must be made to *work*: and to work for all. This is the permanent order of business for American citizenship: it is the main issue in American intelligence and purpose and therefore in American education. To have a genuine sense of the truth and beauty of these two cardinal points of our National polity and to be awake perpetually to the task of linking them to their appropriate subject, All Men, is the vital grammar of Americanism. It has a past tense, full of meaning, carrying warning and enlightenment; it has a future far better than either past or present: and the reasonable ambition of every citizen is to be an effective force, however modest or splendid, in making that future real.

For the Nation as a whole, and especially for the privileged classes, nothing is more essential than a frank and clear recognition of the imperfection of our National achievement in both equality and freedom as well as in those closely associated values—life and happiness. It is the fashion to deride equality as scientifically absurd and economically undesirable or impracticable, and nothing is easier than to make out good logic for both of these: it was easy to prove the utter inequality of the black slaves, and the history of the negro since emancipation affords no little warrant for the arguments. Yet the people of the United States by overwhelming majority did decide to give the blacks at least the deed to freedom and equality; and in spite of Klu-Klux, reconstruction, race wars, and the still unsolved negro problem, they have never for a moment changed their minds: they knew then and know now that it had to be done. We are now engaged, with many vicissitudes, with ebb and flow of waves but inexorable advance of tide in extending the bounds of both

¹Lincoln, Ottawa debate, August 21, 1858.

equality and freedom. The present problem is certainly no easier than that of the sixties, and probably far harder, but it is our problem which we cannot evade.

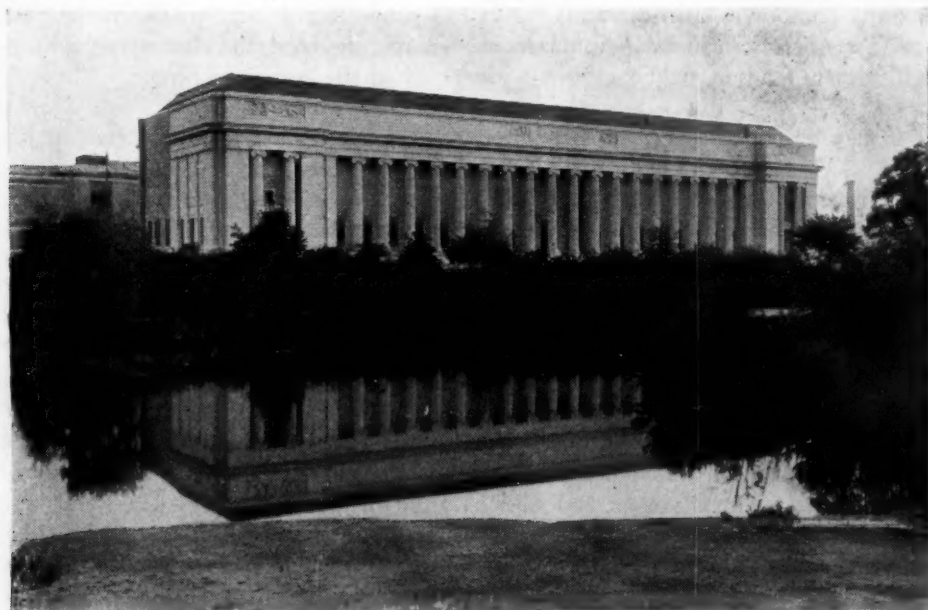
Another great attribute of Americanism, a fitting third to Equality and Liberty, is Union. Not explicit in the Declaration, it was born from it, or rather from the same stormy crisis which bore the Declaration itself. It is the "given name" of our country, as an adjective in our official designation, and as a noun when we speak of the Union. The idea of union was born hard, and had a rather feeble and precarious youth, culminating in the terrific malady and surgical operation of the Civil War: since which, politically, it is the giant of the world in strength and vigor. The first official compact, the Articles of Confederation, of luckless memory, began with a warning against too much union—"Each State retains its sovereignty;" but in spite of all vigilance the last paragraph contained the indispensable germ of the future by twice declaring the Union to be *perpetual*. And, as everyone knows, the Constitution proclaims that its purpose is to form a *more perfect union*. The arbitrament of the great Civil War was prophesied by Webster: "Liberty and Union, one and inseparable, now and forever!" Can equality be brought in, too?

Political union is an accomplished fact: thirteen petty colonies were united into the first feeble National body: now forty-eight mighty commonwealths are grown into indissoluble organic oneness. This is probably the greatest phenomenon of a union of multitudinous individual wills into a "general will" which the world has yet exhibited. It is a momentous spectacle and may well turn out to be a model for political units yet in embryo. So much for the task done—the binding of many States into one Nation: next, the greater problem—the task not yet accomplished, indeed not even set or stated until but yesterday—the binding of a hundred million free men into a social union. This is the problem of the Union today. In this problem at least we may expand the formula of Webster and announce: "Liberty, equality, and union, one and inseparable, now and forever." For the Declaration set out only to achieve liberty and equality, believing these the guarantee of life and happiness in Man. Union came as the means to these ends. As a means it is of course mechanical and subordinate; yet it may easily turn out to hide within itself an even deeper human truth than either of the others: what if liberty for Man and equality too, were organically bound up in the higher unity with his fellows of which political bonds are but the garment or form?

The main issue for America is multiplying liberty, equality, happiness by a hundred million. This is the rigorously logical inference from the Declaration's subject, *All Men*. Whenever the process is multiplication, the proof is division, and the proof of the success of America is found by dividing by a hundred million and examining the quotient. No, this does not mean anything so simple as a distribution of dollars, equal or otherwise; it is neither socialism nor communism in their political form. If socialism or communism should appear to be the true mechanism for the fullest multiplication of liberty, equality, happiness, among our hundred million people, then the Declaration itself would require us to adopt that mechanism. Only let us remember that liberty, equality, happiness, are all states of human souls and not outward social or political forms. Whosoever would be a true promoter of the vision of the Declaration must keep the nature of Man in mind, and most of all must the teacher do this.

The dominant group in America—the business and professional men, employers, college professors, big and little "taxpayers"—the "better-dressed class," as a careful writer has called them (or *us*)—are in the grip of a hazardous fallacy, that they are the people of America: that they are the *All Men* of the Declaration. The fallacy is partly naive and unthinking, perhaps mostly so, for a large proportion of the individuals in this group are men of honor and good feeling, who really intend to be first-class citizens in every respect. It is partly rather stupid and bull-headed and partly wide-awake and deliberately autocratic.

Fortunately we can here refer to a great American book, dear to the hearts of millions of our people and particularly to the "better-dressed class," almost half of which is really an exposition in vivid and concrete form of this domination—I refer to Theodore Roosevelt's *Autobiography*. Page after page of the fascinating narrative by this very conservative progressive is full of the story of the well-dressed, prosperous American just taking it for granted that the United States is for him and his fellows and associates, with the ominous corollary so easily reached that even laws and courts have no right to balk him from his aims. Just as bait to induce liberal re-reading of this *Odyssey* of vital Americanism, let us quote the



THE BOSTON Museum of Fine Arts and its treasures was described in the March number of the Journal. It ranks with the Metropolitan Museum in New York City, the Art Institute in Chicago, and the Corcoran Art Gallery in Washington, D. C., as one of the four greatest art collections in America. It is especially rich in paintings of leaders in American history and will be a mecca for thousands of teachers during and after the meeting of the Association in July.

"prominent lawyer" who took the young crusader in hand on the very first round of his political ladder and explained that it was time for him to drop the "reform play," at which he had succeeded so well, "leave politics and identify himself with the right kind of people, *the people who would always in the long run control others and obtain the real rewards that were worth having.*" (Page 78, italics mine.)

The worst of this philosophy of life is that it is fifty per cent true; it is another example of the universal fact that a hundred per-cent lie is never very dangerous for the simple reason that it promptly refutes itself. It is the same sort of perilous fallacy as Douglas's doctrine of the negro being divinely ordained to be a slave, or the present contention that labor is not wise enough nor unselfish enough to rule even its own affairs.

If Roosevelt is already obsolete—as he certainly is in some degree—let us take a modern instance. There is or at least was less than a year ago, an organization whose very name is a synonym for the All Men of the Declaration and whose announced aim is "to bring together all self-respecting, law-abiding, God-fearing Americans, of whatsoever political predilections or religious faith, rich and poor alike;" yet out of one hundred sixteen names of officers and members printed in the prospectus, including scores of persons of national or wider note, only one is listed as having any connection with the greatest of all national groups, the so-called working class, and not a single one in the list could by any stretch of the imagination be called "poor"—except in the grotesque sense of the word as used by millionaires. Yet in the list are several names of secretaries of certain associations which are looked upon, rightly or wrongly, by labor men as the enemies of labor organization and labor aims. By all means these men should be in an all-American association, but by all means they should be balanced by an abundant representation of the extreme other end of the social or economic scale. This is in no sense intended as a reflection upon the honesty and sincerity of the great association or of the men directing it; on the contrary, it is meant to show that even the best of motives and highest of aims do not avail to correct the organic bias of operative thought in their class.

So I wrote the above paragraph, but must now confess error and make cor-

rection. But I leave unchanged what I wrote, as my own error is another item in proof of my main contention. Even while writing I was haunted with a suspicion that there must be a mistake about this one lonely labor representative: finally I made inquiry, and found that the supposed labor organization of which he is an official, is not a labor organization at all, but only another association of employers! The name misled me, so little did I really know of this great class whose absence from our feasts I was remarking. So out of the hundred sixteen there was not a single working-class representative.

Let us sharpen the cutting edge of the issue, using again the potent authority of Theodore Roosevelt: "By the time I became President I had grown to feel with deep intensity of conviction that the fight was really for the abolition of privilege; and one of the first stages of the battle was necessarily to fight for the rights of the workingman." (*Autobiography*, p. 476.) These are strong words,—nouns, adjectives, verbs: *battle* occurs once and *fight* twice, and an absolute ultimate—*abolition of privilege*—four verbal blows to denote intensity of mental action. So far as the world knows Roosevelt died unrepentant of any of these utterances. He is dead and may be partly obsolete, but his utterances and actions have in this respect set up a monument of Americanism which still stands firm.

Only one other American thus far in the Twentieth century can compare in achievement and in public esteem with Roosevelt,—Woodrow Wilson; whatever may be their differences they agree here. They both fought the Invisible Government, which was privilege, usurping political sway; as Roosevelt wielded the Big Stick against privilege Wilson characteristically speaks in idealistic terms, "The awakening of conscience has extended to those who were *enjoying special privilege.*" The italics in the type are Mr. Wilson's; for our purpose in quoting we should italicize *conscience*. We may well assume that the Big Stick cannot yet be laid aside, but also that the final victory will never be won except by conscience: if only those who still enjoy privilege will awake to conscience, the Republic will be saved.

Here is the present crux of our National life and of the vital reality of our faith and loyalty to the Declaration of our fathers, in Roosevelt's words, the

abolition of privilege and the defence, or rather progressive creation of the rights of the workingman, or the common man, or the vast majority of the All Men of the charter. If another mighty national conflict comes, here is where it will arise, and if it arises it bids fair to dwarf all previous struggles by comparison. Unless the American citizen is educated to this, all the rest of his training and culture is in vain.

If anyone doubts the pervasive existence still of privilege and inequality, let him read "Justice and the Poor," written by an expert jurist and published by the Carnegie Foundation. If anyone is unaware of the passionate sense of injustice among the working people themselves, let him read even the most conservative labor papers and note what they say of courts, of legislatures and congress, of injunctions and strike-breaking processes. After making all the admissions in the world of the mistakes and misdeeds of workers and labor organizations, we might better adapt the motto of the big store, "The customer must be satisfied" and make our National motto, "The man who does the work must be satisfied." The plan works as well for the merchant as it does for the customer in business: why not in National life?

The main issue in America is still a vision, but it is not visionary; on the contrary, it is the only salvation of America. "The strength of America is proportioned only to the health, the energy, the hope, the elasticity, the buoyancy of the American people. The welfare, the very existence of the Nation, rests at last upon the great mass of the people; there can be nothing wholesome unless their life is wholesome; there can be no contentment unless they are contented." What can America render in goodwill and intelligence? What healing and creative streams of human spiritual power can she generate? How much faith can she muster in the *immortal truths* of the Great Charter? How large is her sympathy? Can she be a melting-pot not only for the immigrant who comes from foreign shores, but for the immense host of diverse and contrasting human beings born and living under her flag? Can she rise in spite of provincialism and selfishness toward the starry heights prophesied in the inexorable logic of the words, All Men? This is the main issue for American education and for the educator himself.

PRESIDENTS OF STATE EDUCATION ASSOCIATIONS—1922



*Alabama—T. W. Palmer,
Pres. Ala. Tech. Inst. and
Col. for Wom., Montevallo.*



*Arizona—A. O. Neal, Di-
rector of Research, Uni-
versity of Ariz., Tucson.*



*Connecticut—L. T. Gar-
rison, State Inspector of
Schools, Willimantic.*



*Florida—F. A. Hathaway,
County Superintendent
of Schools, Jacksonville.*



*Georgia—K. T. Alfried,
Pres. Georgia Military
College, Milledgeville.*



*Illinois—J. O. Engleman,
Superintendent of
Schools, Joliet.*



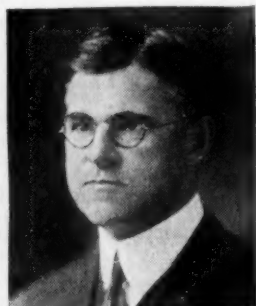
*Iowa—L. H. Minkel, Su-
perintendent of Schools,
Fort Dodge.*



*Kentucky—Mrs. M. L. Hall,
County Superintendent of
Schools, Shelbyville.*



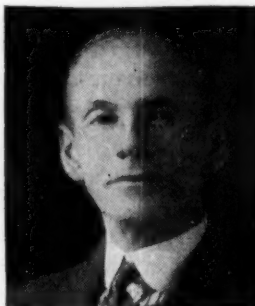
*Louisiana—P. H. Griffith,
Superintendent of Schools,
Baton Rouge.*



*Maryland—N. W. Cameron,
Pres. Teachers' Training
School, Baltimore.*



*Massachusetts—Mary Mc-
Skimmon, Principal of
Pierce School, Brookline.*



*Michigan—A. S. Whitney,
Dean, Dept. of Education,
Univ. of Mich., Ann Arbor.*



*Mississippi—H. L. McCles-
key, State Normal and
Train. Col., Hattiesburg.*



*Montana—J. M. Hamilton,
Dean of the College of
Agriculture, Bozeman.*



*Nevada—E. L. McKeown,
Superintendent of Schools,
Carson City.*



*New Hampshire—F. T. Clay-
ton, Assistant Supt. of
Schools, Concord.*



*North Carolina—C. E.
Brewer, Pres. of Merc-
edith College, Raleigh.*



*Oregon—C. A. Howard,
Superintendent of Schools,
Marshfield.*



*Rhode Island—Ella L. King,
Pres. R. I. Inst. of In-
struction, Central Falls.*



*Tennessee—R. L. Jones,
President State Normal
School, Murfreesboro.*



*Texas—M. H. Moore, Su-
perintendent of Schools,
Fort Worth.*



*Utah—B. R. Lewis, Head
of Eng. Dept., Univ. of
Utah, Salt Lake City.*



*Vermont—Etta M. Frank-
lin, Principal of Lincoln
School, Rutland.*



*Wyoming—Katherine A.
Morton, State Supt. of
Public Inst., Cheyenne.*

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A Hundred Thousand Strong

THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION now has over a hundred thousand active members. Before 1918 the active membership was less than 10,000. This phenomenal growth is striking evidence that the Association's great program of service has made a strong appeal to the rank and file of the teaching profession. It is also evidence of the desire of the individual teacher to pay the debt that every practitioner owes his profession. It is suggestive of the time when the membership will be several hundred thousand. At the present rate of increase it would exceed 200,000 during 1923. Let us hope that by 1925 half of the 700,000 teachers of the Nation may have united their influence in this representative Association.

The reasons which impel teachers to join the National Education Association are many. Some join because of its program of legislation. Others join because of its notable work in bringing to the public the fundamental importance of adequate salaries for properly trained teachers. Others join because of some special help the Association has given in the solution of State or local educational problems. Still others join to obtain THE JOURNAL or the PROCEEDINGS, and many join for several of these reasons. Over and above such

reasons and including them all is the really important one—the desire to share in the work of an organization which is dedicated to the supremely important task of building a better America through better schools in charge of professionally-minded teachers. Many a citizen contributes to worthy causes because of a sense of their importance to the community. He thinks not of any immediate benefit to himself; perhaps he sees no tangible service to the community, but he has the vision to see the intangible results—the spiritual quickening of the community, the radiant influence of inspiration and enthusiasm, the enormous social value of great ideals fostered by common action. It is for reasons like these that professional organizations exist, and the power of the ideals for which they strive gains in proportion as their membership increases.

The power of the hundred thousand in the cause of education cannot be fully appreciated at this time, but years from now, when the historian of education evaluates the forces that have shaped our democratic progress, one of the outstanding characteristics of this period will be the dynamic power of the National Education Association.

Summer Schools

THE GROWTH of summer schools has been phenomenal. As shown in the January JOURNAL for the 410 institutions reporting, the figures are 191,006 for 1920 and 253,111 for 1921—a gain of thirty-two per cent. When liberal allowances have been made for students in other lines of work, there remains at least 175,000 of these summer-school students who are training for teaching. This is a fourth of the teachers in the Nation! The enrolment in the summer schools of 1922 promises to be even greater.

This is as it should be. Large numbers of inexperienced teachers enter the schoolrooms of the land each September. Hundreds of thousands of teachers have not yet had the amount of training that is accepted as the minimum by educational leaders generally. The science of education is rapidly developing. The demands of citizenship for which schools must train grow severer year by year. A score of reasons point to the need of larger provision for teacher training.

That school officials recognize this need is shown by the growing willingness of boards of education to provide

automatic increases in salary for summer-school attendance. That teachers recognize the need is indicated by the tens of thousands who attend summer schools with no assurance that they will receive any additional reward. Teachers of education show their appreciation of the situation by the enthusiasm with which they devote themselves to their task when many others are enjoying vacations. Heads of teacher-training institutions are perhaps more than any other single group responsible for summer-school growth. In season and out of season they have pleaded the cause of the trained teacher; they have been expert salesmen of professional training; through correspondence and travel they have carried the inspiration to train for teaching into the remotest hamlets. They have seen into the future and have built for the better citizenship of tomorrow.

Educational Journalism

IN NO COUNTRY in the world is the value of the educational journal in the professional life of teachers appreciated as in America. There is clear recognition on the part of educational leaders that the reading of two or more educational journals should be a part of the pre-service training of every teacher and a still more important factor after the responsible career of teaching has been entered upon. Notwithstanding the large part which periodicals for teachers have played and now play in American educational progress, there is promise of much greater development.

There are the following well-defined fields in educational journalism which may be expected to grow in importance: (1) The local educational newspaper, published either by the board of education or by a local education association and serving as a mirror of the educational enthusiasms and standards of the community; (2) the State educational journal, published either by private enterprise or by the State Association and reflecting the news, special interests, programs, and enthusiasms of the educational leaders of the State; (3) journals of general appeal and national in scope which reflect the initiative and creative energy of independent educational leaders; (4) journals dealing with special phases of the science of education; (5) journals appealing to groups working in special fields or levels of the educational service.

There is enough educational thought in America to fill all such journals which now exist, to improve them still further, and even to establish others. There is enough potential educational advertising to support much larger enterprises in educational journalism than have yet been undertaken. Let any journal set for itself a well-defined field of needed usefulness, maintain high and consistent editorial standards, insist on being printed attractively, and make a virile campaign for advertising and success is almost certain. The National Education Association, with its broad interest in the improvement of education regards it as its duty to encourage the development of every worthy educational journal.

A Challenge to Certain Eminent Educators

COPIES of the Towner-Sterling bill have been called for as copies of no other bill have ever been called for is the report of the Public Printer. It has become a tidal wave of public sentiment such as has never been demonstrated for any other law."

This statement made in an editorial in the *Journal of Education* (March 23) is particularly significant because of the neutral position that Dr. Winship has frequently taken and which he reaffirms in the same editorial when he says: "We confess to having had some sympathy with the non-bureaucratic arguments, with the feeling that perhaps a compromise was wise, but the people who will vote next November do not care what I think, or what any university president or professor thinks, or what the editor of any daily paper or magazine thinks. The people have assumed that the public schools are at stake and they are going to put them upon the throne at whatever cost."

It has long been clear that opposition to the bill very quickly overshot its mark and became a veritable boomerang. The reasons are obvious. The "perils" that the opposition exploited, such as the danger of "Federal domination," the bugaboo of "politics in education," and the alleged iniquities of the "fifty-fifty" principle of distribution, were seen by intelligent readers of the bill to be conspicuous by their absence. These readers naturally inferred that an opposition which needed to be bolstered up by misrepresentations was at basis insincere, and that the real motives for fighting the

bill were such as would not bear the light of open acknowledgment and frank publicity. From this premise it was an obvious conclusion that the principle of public education was at stake—that it was, indeed, the development and progress of the public schools that the opponents of the measure really feared.

The National Education Association, however, has assumed that some of the opposition to the bill was sincere even if it seemed to be misinformed. It has invited the free and full discussion of the measure from every point of view, asking only that the arguments for its own program be given a fair hearing. From the first distribution of the provisional bill in the spring of 1919, it has sought advice, counsel, criticism, and suggestion from every possible source. It has given to criticisms and to rival programs an abundant consideration, as the published records of its proceedings indisputably show.

After three years of frank and open discussion, the conclusion is inescapable that the Towner-Sterling bill is right. It will be enacted into law because it is right, and, we trust, for no other reason. If it fails of enactment it will be because a better measure takes its place. If there is a better measure that measure should be presented and without delay. The opponents of the Association's program can now see how negative and destructive criticism has strengthened the Association's cause. Criticism so exclusively destructive by bringing into relief the constructive proposals and by suggesting unworthy motives in their opposition is almost certain to advance the cause against which it is directed. But the field is still open for a rival program that will be positive and constructive. If the opponents of the Towner-Sterling bill can frame a program that promises to advance public education more, and correct recognized defects better, than the Towner-Sterling bill, not only would their program be welcomed but every ounce of strength now back of the Association's program, we are confident, would be directed toward the establishment of the better proposals.

Here, we submit, lies the golden opportunity of the opponents of the Towner-Sterling bill. With the opportunity goes a correlative responsibility. *Up to date the opposition has achieved nothing more than a tragic bankruptcy of constructive ideas.* We make this charge deliberately and in the hope that it will sting, for a sting is justifiable if there is any prospect whatsoever that it

may stimulate wiser planning for a cause so fundamental. We direct it particularly toward the four or five members of our own profession who, in their apparently sincere criticism of the Association's program, have given aid and comfort to those forces of opposition that are malicious and insincere. These critics now owe it to their profession and to the cause of education to justify their position by something more substantial than doubts and forebodings. Otherwise they must and will be placed in the position of condoning the inefficiencies and inequities which the Towner-Sterling bill aims to correct. If Dr. Winship is right in his prediction that the Towner-Sterling bill will override all opposition—that it will pass without "changing a comma"—this seems to be about the "last chance" for the gentlemen in question to "save their country."

Education and National Income

NATIONAL INCOME is the product of natural wealth and producing power. Producing power rests on individual efficiency, which in turn has its foundation in education. Those communities have become most wealthy which have maintained the highest level of general intelligence. It would logically be expected therefore that the amount spent for education would increase as wealth and income increase. Such has not been the case. National income in the United States was 28.8 billions of dollars in 1909, 33.2 billions in 1914, and 61 billions in 1918. These figures do not take into account the rise in prices, but neither do the figures which represent the amounts spent for public education, which as shown by the report of the U. S. Commissioner of Education, was \$401,398,000 in 1909; \$555,077,000 in 1914; and \$763,678,089 in 1918.

American wealth is abundantly able to finance education. It should be willing to pay the price. In fact it cannot afford not to pay the price, for as wealth increases and the processes of civilized life become more intricate and complex, the demands made upon the individual citizen grow heavier and individual responsibility increases. Increased expenditure for education is therefore demanded not only that each child may spend more years in school but—which is even more essential—that every American child may come under the influence

of teachers who are so competent, mature, and well-established that they will be living and inspiring examples of sound democratic citizenship. Without the

stabilizing influence of such teachers, democracy is doomed; under such influence the possibilities for the development of democratic civilization are limitless.

Sources of Revenue for Public Education

HUGH S. MAGILL

Field Secretary, National Education Association, Washington, D. C.

IN DISCUSSING sources of revenue for the support of public education it is necessary to consider first a few fundamental principles underlying the establishment of our free school systems in America.

It must be kept clearly in mind that the primary purpose of public education from the standpoint of the community, the State, and the Nation, is to develop better American citizens. The free school was established as an institution essential to the life of free government.

The original laws authorizing the levying of taxes for the support of free schools were contested in the courts on the ground that it was inequitable and unconstitutional to tax the property of a citizen who might not have children to educate other people's children. The decisions handed down by the courts in these cases held, in substance, that in a government of the people an intelligent citizenship is essential, and that, therefore, it is good public policy to tax all the wealth of all the people to educate all the children of all the people who are to be the future citizens of our country, and who will determine its destiny.

The free school idea originated in New England and was first purely a local institution emanating from the town meeting, the essence of pure democracy and local self-government. It was soon realized, however, that the free public school in its broader aspect was essential to the welfare of the entire commonwealth and should therefore receive the sanction and support of the State. Accordingly, State laws were enacted establishing free schools and providing for their support by public taxation.

It took a long, hard struggle, extending over more than a half-century, to establish the principle that the State is

responsible for the education of all its youth. Opposition came primarily from two sources—those who objected to being taxed for the support of free schools, and those who claimed that education was not a function of the State but exclusively a function of the home and the church. The responsibility of the State for the education of its future citizens has at last become universally accepted, and every commonwealth in the American Union has established and maintains a more or less perfect free school system.

It is a generally accepted fact that each community should contribute through local taxation to the support of its public schools, and that it should assume, under State laws, the responsibility for their conduct and management. It is also coming to be generally recognized that in order to equalize taxation and provide equality of educational opportunity to all the children of the State, the State must share liberally in the support of all its schools.

Since it has become an established policy that the State is primarily responsible for the education of all the youth within its borders; since all public schools are established and conducted under State laws, the local authorities exercising no powers except those conferred by the constitution and statutes of the State; and since the purpose of education is the development of good citizenship, in which the State is primarily interested, therefore, the State cannot escape the responsibility of bearing its part in furnishing the necessary revenue.

It should be accepted as sound policy that all the wealth of the State, wherever that wealth is found, should be taxed to educate all the children of the State wherever they may reside. The duty and responsibility of the State ex-

tends to every child within its jurisdiction, whether that child may happen to live in a poor, remote district or in a prosperous, wealthy community.

The sources from which the State should derive the necessary revenue for carrying forward the great work of public education deserve the most careful study and investigation. Many new sources of revenue can be found. It is certainly a sound principle that the natural resources of a State should contribute liberally to the support of an institution which is essential to the welfare of society and to the perpetuity of free government.

The support of public education should not be limited to the local community and the State, if we accept the principle that the purpose of the public school is the development of good citizenship. Not only is the welfare of the community and the State subserved by public education, but the entire Nation as well. Washington, speaking from the National standpoint, declared that "In proportion as the structure of government gives force to public opinion it is essential that public opinion be enlightened." Our country must develop competent leadership. But it must do more. It must develop an intelligent citizenry, capable of selecting wise, patriotic leaders—voters who shall be capable of discriminating between the false but alluring promises of the demagogue, and the frank, sincere statements of the honest, clear-visioned statesman.

Since the citizenship of our Nation is but the aggregate citizenship of all the States, our Federal Government must always be vitally interested in the promotion of public education. The management and conduct of the public schools should remain under the control of the State and local communities, but in recognition of the vital importance of public education to the Nation, and for the more perfect equalization of educational opportunities throughout our country, the Federal Government should contribute to the encouragement and support of education in all the States.

To guarantee to every child beneath our flag a chance to realize the highest physical, mental, and moral development of which he is capable, is but the fulfillment of the promise of equality of opportunity set forth in the Declaration of Independence and the Preamble of our National Constitution. "To establish these rights governments are instituted among men."

ENROLMENT and AFFILIATION

Completed Enrolments

THE following schools have completed their reports for one hundred per cent membership enrolment in the National Education Association since the list was published in the April JOURNAL:

- AUBURN, IND., *Riley School*, Lydia B. Teeters, Principal.
- AUBURN, MAINE, *Lincoln School*, Mary G. Carroll, Principal; *Merrill School*, Harriett Starrett, Principal.
- AUGUSTA, MAINE, *Webster School*, Caroline S. Tracy, Principal.
- BATTLE CREEK, MICH., *School Number Ten*, Mrs. L. M. McBain, Principal.
- BENNINGTON, VT., *Cora B. Whitney School*, Annie E. Dakin, Principal.
- BERKELEY, CALIF., *Cragmont School*; *Hawthorne School*; *Le Conte School*; *Longfellow School*.
- BLOOMFIELD, N. J., *Fairview School*, Fred S. Bush, Principal.
- BOSTON, MASS., *Boston Normal School*, Wallace C. Boyden, Headmaster.
- BROOKLINE, MASS., *Brookline Teachers' Club*, J. J. McGlew, Corresponding Secretary.
- BROOKLYN, N. Y., *Lou Wallace Junior High School*, Joseph F. Wingeback, Principal; *Public School No. 61*; *Public School No. 66*; *Public School No. 73*, Ambrose Cort, Principal; *Public School No. 180*, Rosa V. Marshall, Principal.
- BRUNSWICK, MAINE, *Brunswick High School*, Philip H. Kimball, Principal.
- CASPER, WYO., *N. C. School*, Eleanor McLaughlin, Principal.
- CASTINE, MAINE, *Eastern State Normal School*, William D. Hall, Principal.
- CHELSEA, MASS., *Cary School*, Adelaide Pierce, Principal.
- CLINTON, IOWA, *Junior High School*, Cosbe Cummings, Principal.
- COLORADO SPRINGS, COLO., *Curtis School*, Celia Gormley, Principal.
- COLUMBUS, NEBR., *Williams School*, Mrs. Myrtle C. Nanninga, Principal.
- CORRY, PA., *Washington School*, Mrs. Eleanor D. Griswold, Principal.
- CORTLAND, ILL., *Cortland Public School*, Edyth Garman, Principal.
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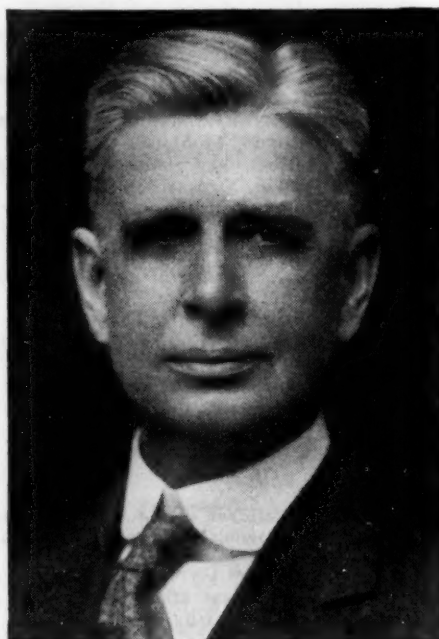
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Books for Visitors to Boston and New England

THE THOUSANDS of teachers who visit Boston next July will expect to take home with them something of the rich literary and historic atmosphere of New England. The wealth of interesting places and associations is so great that the person who prepares in advance for the things that he wishes to see, will add greatly to the profit of his trip. The following list of books was prepared especially for the JOURNAL by Mr. Frank H. Chase, Reference Librarian of the Boston Public Library. Teachers may borrow these books from their local or county libraries or from secretaries of State Library Commissions. It will pay those who are planning to attend the meeting to buy one or two of the titles listed—perhaps one guide book, *The Book of Boston* by Shackleton, or Sargent's *Handbook of New England*.

Boston

There are four good guide books of Boston, each having its particular value.

BACON, EDWIN M. *Boston: a Guide Book*. Revised Edition. Ginn & Co. 1922. 205 pp. 50c.

RAND, MACNALLY & CO. *Rand, MacNally Boston Guide*. Chicago. 1919. 124 pp. 50c.

SWIFT, LINDSAY. *Literary Landmarks of Boston*. Bost. Houghton Mifflin Co., 1903. 58 pp. 25c.

BACON, EDWIN M. *Walks and Rides in the Country Round About Boston*. Bost. Houghton Mifflin Co., 1898. 418 pp. \$1.25.

The first of these is the best general guide to Boston and vicinity, by a man whose life was spent in the study of the subject. It covers everything of interest and importance in a wholly trustworthy way. The second has the advantage of being up-to-date and is finely illustrated. The third is a unique and practically exhaustive guide to points of literary interest in and about Boston. For the visitor who is spending considerable time in the neighborhood of Boston an excellent guide is *Walks and Rides*. This little book, which was published for the Appalachian Mountain Club, covers thirty-six towns and cities within a radius of twelve miles from the State House, and forms an admirable manual for the leisurely visitor who cares to know intimately the points of historic, literary and scenic interest in the country around Boston.

To these should be added two books of a less formal character:

SHACKLETON, ROBERT. *The Book of Boston*. Phila. Penn Publishing Co., 1916. 332 pp. \$3.50.

BACON, EDWIN M. *Rambles Around Old Boston*. Bost. Little, Brown & Co., 1914. 205 pp. \$3.50.

Of these two books Shackleton's is a delightfully spicy account of Boston and its life, as seen by a bright Philadelphia journalist; it is wonderfully suggestive, and is easily the most interesting book about Boston. In the *Rambles*, Mr. Bacon touches sympathetically many quaint or romantic points of the Boston which he knew so well; the book is illustrated with drawings by Lester G. Hornby.

The best popular history of Boston is:

HOWE, M. A. DE WOLFE. *Boston, the Place and the People*. N. Y. Macmillan Co., 1903. 397 pp. \$2.50.

This is a systematic account of the development of Boston's life, well illustrated.

The most interesting period in Boston's history is ably and interestingly described in FRENCH, ALLEN. *The Siege of Boston*. N. Y. Macmillan Co., 1911. 450 pp. \$2.50.

This recounts all the military facts of the Revolutionary period in Boston.

Delightful sidelights on the life of Boston in two successive periods of its history are shed by Miss Mary C. Crawford's chatty volumes, all of which are very fully illustrated:

CRAWFORD, MARY C. *St. Botolph's Town. An Account of Old Boston in Colonial Days*. Bost. Page & Co., 1908. 365 pp. \$2.50.

—*Old Boston Days and Ways, from the Dawn of the Revolution Until the Town Became a City*. Bost. Little, Brown & Co., 1909. 463 pp. \$3.

New England

The one indispensable book for every visitor to New England is:

SARGENT, PORTER E. *Handbook of New England, 1922*. Bost. 1922. 927 pp. \$3.

This is the best guide which has yet been published for any large section of the United States. It describes all the important motor routes and gives adequate accounts of practically everything noteworthy in New England, from the point of view of historical and literary interest and of scenic beauty. The book is crammed with picturesque incidents and stories, and is an ideal traveling companion.

Less formal guides will be found in:

HALE, LOUISE CLOSSER. *We Discover New England*. N. Y. Dodd, Mead & Co., 1915. 314 pp. \$2.50.

JOHNSON, CLIFTON. *Highways and Byways of New England*. N. Y. Macmillan Co., 1915. 299 pp. \$2.25.

These books touch their subjects lightly. Each treats of New England from a fresh and personal point of view. The first, illustrated by the author's husband, whimsically recounts the adventures of a motor trip around and across New England; the second is primarily an attempt at rendering local flavor.

The most interesting book of New England history is still

FISKE, JOHN. *Beginnings of New England*. Bost. Houghton Mifflin Co., 1889. 296 pp. \$2.50.

This book, a master's description of the first century of New England history, is too well-known to need further comment. Beside Fiske must now be placed

ADAMS, JAMES F. *The Founding of New England*. Bost. Atlantic Monthly Press, 1921. 482 pp. \$4.

This history, which is at once vivid, comprehensive, and scholarly, is the latest work on New England origins, embodying many important results of recent investigation.

For the more local aspects of history two good books are:

POWELL, LYMAN P., editor. *Historic Towns of New England*. N. Y. Putnam, 1898. 599 pp. \$5.

NORTHEND, MARY H. *Historic Homes of New England*. Bost. Little, Brown & Co., 1914. 274 pp. \$3.50.

The first of these is made up of chapters on some fifteen towns, each written by a competent authority. The second tells the romantic story of twenty-two famous houses, and is admirably illustrated.

A comprehensive account of New England and its resources as they looked before the war is:

FRENCH, GEORGE, editor. *New England. What it is and What it is to be*. Bost. Chamber of Commerce, 1911. 431 pp. \$2.

This volume is made up of chapters by specialists in various fields, describing the more practical aspects of New England and its possibilities.

Special Topics

1. Plymouth and the Pilgrims

BURBANK, ALFRED S. *Guide to Historic Plymouth*. Plymouth. Burbank, 1917. 96 pp. 15c.

The one good Plymouth guide.

ADDISON, ALBERT C. *The Romantic Story of the Mayflower Pilgrims*. Bost. Page & Co., 1918. 214 pp. \$2.50.

CRAWFORD, MARY C. *In the Days of the Pilgrim Fathers*. Bost. Little, Brown & Co., 1920. 331 pp. \$3.

LORD, ARTHUR. *Plymouth and the Pilgrims*. Bost. Houghton Mifflin Co., 1920. 178 pp. \$1.50.

USHER, ROLAND G. *The Pilgrims and Their History*. N. Y. Macmillan Co., 1918. 310 pp. \$2.

Of these four books on the history of the Pilgrims, Mr. Addison's is chiefly valuable for its illustrations; Miss Crawford's is a chatty account of the Pilgrim adventure, in England, Holland, and America; Mr. Lord's is brief, but most suggestive; and Mr. Usher's is an orderly rendering of the story of the Plymouth Colony by an historian of repute.

2. Harvard University

HARVARD MEMORIAL SOCIETY. *Official Guide to Harvard University*. 5th Edition. Cambridge. The University Press, 1917. 194 pp. 50c.

GARDINER, JOHN H. *Harvard*. N. Y. Oxford University Press, 1914. 333 pp. \$2.

The first of these books is a full and adequate guide to all departments of the university. Mr. Gardiner's book is a history and description, in which the story of the university is given in a good deal of detail.

3. Cape Cod

BANGS, MARY R. *Old Cape Cod: the Land, the Men, and the Sea*. Bost. Houghton Mifflin Co., 1920. 298 pp. \$3.50.

BRIGHAM, ALBERT P. *Cape Cod and the Old Colony*. N. Y. Putnam, 1920. 284 pp. \$3.50.

PRATT, AGNES EDWARDS. *Cape Cod, New and Old*. Bost. Houghton Mifflin Co., 1918. 239 pp. \$2.

All these books are excellent accounts of the most picturesque part of Massachusetts. The first is perhaps the most comprehensive for one who wants to get a complete idea of the Cape and its life. Mr. Brigham's book

is written from a geologist's point of view, but is also sufficient on the historic side. "Agnes Edwards'" volume is somewhat slighter in scope, but a delightfully chatty account of each of the Cape Cod towns. It is supplemented by

PRATT, AGNES EDWARDS. *The Old Coast Road from Boston to Plymouth*. Bost. Houghton Mifflin Co., 1920. 232 pp. \$2.50.

This volume covers the coast towns between Boston and Plymouth in the same way in which the preceding volume treats the towns on Cape Cod.

4. White Mountains

APPALACHIAN MOUNTAIN CLUB. *Guide to the Paths and Camps in the White Mountains*. 4th Edition. Bost. 1920. 469 pp. \$2.75.

KILBOURNE, FREDERICK W. *Chronicles of the White Mountains*. Bost. Houghton Mifflin Co., 1916. 467 pp. \$3.

The Appalachian guide is the official book on the White Mountains; no one should undertake a tramp in the mountains without it. It is everything that a mountain guide book should be, and is supplied with ad-

mirable maps showing all the trails and paths. The "Chronicles" is an interesting account of the history of the mountains, and contains many exciting stories.

5. Towns of Special Interest

FRENCH, ALLEN. *Old Concord*. Bost. Little, Brown & Co., 1915. 198 pp. \$3.

This is an interesting account of the historic events and literary personalities which have made Concord famous. The book is delightfully illustrated by Lester G. Hornby.

ESSEX INSTITUTE. *Visitors' Guide to Salem*. Salem. The Institute, 1922. 160 pp. 75c.

This is both a history and a guide book. It provides all the knowledge necessary for understanding the significance of Salem in the life of America.

MARTIN, GEORGE H. *The Evolution of the Massachusetts Public School System*. N. Y. Appleton & Co., 1915. 284 pp. \$2.

This is a careful account of the development of education in Massachusetts, which is fundamental in the history of American education.

courses, increase their attendance, and standardize their work on a college basis.

3. The movement should receive encouragement from all friends of public education. Legislatures which have been responsible for the legal enactments which have created these teachers' colleges should back them up financially and make it possible for them to develop a physical plant and the faculties necessary for the work which they have been authorized to undertake.

4. The universities should evince a coöperative spirit toward the teachers' college movement. In the great work of education there is room and glory for all. The universities will find their resources taxed to the limit to care for those who desire to enter their doors. Any spirit of rivalry or over-zealous competition between the educational institutions of a State should cease. The universities and the teachers' colleges should be colleagues and firm friends in advancing the interests of education within their respective States.

5. The normal schools which advance to the rank of teachers' colleges should take the name college. It is idle to ask what is in a name, for there is much in a name. In public thinking the term "school" is applied to an institution below college rank. The name "college" has an appeal which the name "normal school" does not have, and as soon as a normal school is authorized to take up senior college work it should take the name indicative of its rank.

6. The teachers' colleges should address themselves to the task of standardization. If they are to be colleges in name they should be colleges in fact. This means that for the entrance requirements, student's load, content of courses, academic preparation of faculty, faculty load, number of weeks' teaching a year, *et cetera*, they should "square" with college standards. Teachers' colleges may never hope to have the respect and recognition of the colleges and universities and the public in general until this task of standardization is achieved.

7. And as aid to this standardization, the committee suggests that a more detailed study be made of the organization and administration of teachers' colleges and of the content of the course of study, such report to be made by the present committees or by some other committee authorized for that particular purpose.

The complete report of the committee will appear in the Association's PROCEEDINGS in October.

The Teachers' College Movement

THE RAPIDLY growing movement to convert two-year normal schools into four-year teachers' colleges is sound in policy and should be encouraged by all the friends of public education. These are the conclusions reported to the National Council of the National Education Association at its meeting in Chicago, February 27, 1922, by its Committee on Teachers' Colleges. Under the chairmanship of President Charles McKenney, of the Michigan State Normal College, Ypsilanti, the Committee included Dr. William C. Bagley, of Teachers' College, Columbia University; President David Felmley, of Normal University, Normal, Illinois; President W. A. Jessup, of the State University of Iowa, Iowa City; President John R. Kirk, of the Missouri State Teachers' College, Kirksville; and President Robert H. Wright, of Teachers' Training School, Greenville, North Carolina.

The two main objectives of the study were:

1. To discover the scope of the teachers' college movement, i. e., to what extent normal schools are advancing in rank to teachers' colleges.

2. To gather data which would reveal the practices and standards obtaining in teachers' colleges and their relations to practices and standards generally accepted in college and university circles.

The Committee reached the following conclusions:

1. In the opinion of this committee the teachers' college movement is sound in policy. The normal schools began as secondary schools with a professional purpose. As public education progressed they advanced to the rank of junior colleges and with the further progress of public education it is perfectly natural that they should develop into professional colleges. This development is in complete harmony with the general advancement of organized education. Moreover, it is a necessity if we are to have a body of trained teachers with a professional attitude toward their work. Especially is it important that we should have teachers' colleges in view of the disposition of teachers in service to continue their education. Thousands of such teachers find the work offered by the teachers' colleges during the summer session their greatest single opportunity for academic and professional advancement.

2. The teachers' college movement is still in the experimental stage. While a few institutions have established themselves firmly in the college field and have received general recognition for their work, probably three fourths of the so-called teachers' colleges are just advancing to senior college rank. It will take a number of years for them to establish their

GUIDE TO NEW BOOKS¹

BRILL, ABRAHAM ARDEN. *Fundamental conceptions of psychoanalysis*. N. Y. Harcourt, 1921. 344 p. \$2.50.

Brill refuses to exploit the sensational aspects of psychoanalysis. He makes most popularizers of the subject look like conjurers elaborately putting up their sleeves before startling their audience. Brill performs a real service in telling what psychoanalysis can not do. He makes you realize that it is a method and not a patent medicine, "in fine, it cannot make a normal person out of an idiot, and it does not give a philosophy of life to a person who has not brains enough to formulate one himself." His terminology is simple.

CANBY, HENRY SEIDEL. *Saturday papers, essays on literature from the Literary review*; the first volume of selections from the *Literary review* of the New York evening post, by Henry Seidel Canby, William Rose Benét, Amy Loveman. N. Y. Macmillan, 1921. 133 p. \$1.

These essays by three professional literary critics will be helpful to the average reader in helping him to clarify and arrange the sometimes confused and chaotic impressions left by the bewildering diversity of contemporary literature.

DEVINE, EDWARD THOMAS. *Social work (Social welfare library)*. N. Y. Macmillan, 1922. 352 p. \$3.

A study of the whole field of social work grouped under the heads: Introductory, with special chapter on the Standard of Life—Poverty—Disease and disability—Crime—Improvement of conditions—General considerations. For the student and general reader.

ELDRIDGE, FRANK R. *Trading with Asia*, by Frank R. Eldridge, jr. N. Y. Appleton, 1921. 474 p., map. \$3.50.

Designed as a textbook, with test questions following each chapter, but useful for anyone wishing a better understanding of industrial conditions in the Orient. Considers the countries of Asia in four groups: China and Japan—The Philippines and the Dutch East Indies—British India, Burma, and Ceylon—Malaysia, French Indo-China, and Siam; with separate bibliography for each group.

HEMON, LOUIS. *Maria Chapdelaine*; tr. by W. H. Blake. N. Y. Macmillan, 1921. 288 p. \$2.

A quiet book, with scarcely more action than Gray's *Elegy*, yet holding the attention

by the poetic beauty of its description and characterization, delineating with truth and simplicity the pathetic story of Maria, the life of the Canadian pioneer, the loneliness, privations, and hard labor. Briefly, Maria's lover is lost in a snow storm, and she comes to hate the wild dreariness of the encroaching forests and unceasing toil of the pioneer woman's life, but later when an opportunity opens the way for her escape, she decides to stay with her people in the primitive environment of which she is a part.

HIGGINSON, HENRY LEE. *Life and letters of Henry Lee Higginson*, by Bliss Perry. Bost. Atlantic monthly, 1921. 557 p., illus. \$4.

Not a thrilling biography but one of simple kindliness, revealing a sensitive nature with wide, generous impulses whose talents were used invariably for the pleasure of those about him, winning him to friendship of many well-known people whose activities have been sympathetically written into a pleasing account. The founding of the Boston symphony orchestra and its maintenance for many years was one of his best loved benefactions.

HUMPHREY, GRACE. *Heroes of liberty*. Indianapolis. Bobbs-Merrill, 1921. 298 p., illus. \$1.50.

The inspiring stories of twenty-two heroes of sixteen countries who devoted themselves to the cause of liberty. Some are well-known figures of history, others are little known. A bibliography and index add to the value of the book.

LENNES, NELS JOHANN. *The story of Columbus*, by N. J. Lennes and Paul C. Phillips. Phil. Lippincott, 1921. 168 p., illus., maps. \$1.25.

An interesting simple biography in supplementary-reader form. Accurate and complete, with many excellent maps and illustrations. For fourth to sixth-grade children.

MACDONALD, WILLIAM. *A new constitution for a new America*. N. Y. Huebsch, 1921. 260 p. \$2.

An extremely interesting, thoughtful, and clearly presented argument for a complete revision of the constitution to suit the present

¹Titles and notes selected from the March *Booklist* of the American Library Association, 78 East Washington Street, Chicago, Illinois, by some members of the senior class of the Library School of the New York Public Library, under the direction of Miss Margaret Jackson, supervisor of advanced courses. Teachers may borrow these books from their local public or county libraries. A selection of the best books listed in *The Booklist* during 1921, published in pamphlet form, may be had from the American Library Association for twenty-five cents.

needs of the country; likely to provoke much discussion between the staunch upholders of the constitution in its present form and those who agree with the author that it is outgrown and inflexible, entirely unsuited, in spite of numerous amendments, to situations which could never have been foreseen by its framers.

Manners and conduct in school and out, by the deans of girls in Chicago high schools. Bost. Allyn & Bacon, 1921. 28 p. 40c.

Definite rules of good breeding for boys and girls of high-school age. Classified by place and occasion, rules to be observed in the street, the classroom, lunch room, duty to your hostess, table manners.

PENNELL, JOSEPH. *The graphic arts; modern men and modern methods*. Chic. Univ. of Chic., 1921. 315 p., illus. \$5.

The Scammon lectures for 1920 at the Art Institute of Chicago. Informal and compelling of its terse vigor which gives due need of praise to good examples of wood cutting, etching, and lithography but does not spare the "commercial artists" and producers of comic supplements whom Mr. Pennell holds responsible for the degradation of contemporary art. Many good illustrations.

SEABY, ALLEN W. *Drawing for art students and illustrators*. N. Y. Scribner; Lond., Batsford, 1921. 209 p., illus. \$3.75.

A more general work than Salway aimed to supplement the regular instruction of the art schools, emphasizing the points which the author's experience in teaching has impressed him as being essential, especially the feeling for proportion and sincerity.

SMITH, SOLOMON CHARLES KAINES. *Looking at pictures*. N. Y. Doran; Lond., Methuen, 1921. 151 p., illus. \$1.75.

A very readable little book based on the author's experience as lecturer at the National gallery in London. Does not pretend to exhaustive treatment of the subject but will be helpful to the layman wishing intelligent appreciation of art.

TAPPAN, EVA MARCH. *Heroes of progress*. Bost. Houghton, 1921. 263 p., illus. \$1.25.

Stories of twenty-nine American men and women who have made themselves known through their contributions to art, industry, science, exploration, and education. Much of the material is difficult to find elsewhere. Well and accurately written. Will be of great use in elementary-school reference work.

TARBELL, IDA MINERVA. *Boy scouts' life of Lincoln*. N. Y. Macmillan, 1921. 247 p., illus., map. \$2.

A popular yet authoritative life of Lincoln emphasizing his character and public accomplishments. Though written for Scouts, it will be read by intermediate girls and adults as well. For all libraries.

SCHOOL-BUILDING PROGRESS

Bond issues, architects, contracts let, and other essential information. School officers are requested to send reports on all new buildings. More reports have been received than can be published in this issue. Others will appear later.

Name of State and County	Name of Town or District	Name and Kind of Building	Seating Capacity	Cost of Building or Amount of Appropriation	Date Authorized	Date Contract let or to be let	Name of School Officer in Charge	Name of Architect
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Arizona								
Pima.....	Tucson.....	Grade.....	1500	\$750,000	4/19/21	—/—/22	C. E. Rose.....	Lyman & Place
Arkansas								
Sebastian.....	Fort Smith.....	Grade.....	400	75,000	2/28/22	4/ 1/22	C. J. Tidwell.....	C. W. Dawson
California								
Alameda.....	Castro Valley.....	Grade.....	250	40,000	1/ 3/22	1/10/22	J. C. Shaver.....	J. C. Smith
Alameda.....	Hayward.....	Grade.....	600	100,000	5/—/21	11/—/21	Jacob Harder.....	
Alameda.....	Livermore.....	Grade.....	550	115,000	11/—/21	—/—/22	Chas. Nissen.....	Henry Meyers
Alameda.....	San Lorenzo.....	Grade.....	250	40,000	—/—/—	—/—/22	R. P. King.....	
Alameda.....	Tennyson.....	Grade.....	160	11,000	4/—/21	7/—/21	E. G. Lang.....	
Alameda.....	Valle Vista.....	Grade.....	90	8,000	5/—/21	7/—/21	N. Bauer.....	
Glen.....	Willows.....	Union Elementary	630	185,000	1/15/21	6/—/21	S. M. Chaney.....	W. H. Weeks
Imperial.....	El Centro.....	Elementary.....	500	85,000	5/—/20	10/—/21	A. P. Shibley.....	D. V. Wells
Kings.....	Lemoore.....	Grade.....	200	22,600	—/—/—	9/10/21	E. G. Henley.....	E. J. Kump
Kings.....	Hanford.....	Grade.....	210	41,777	—/—/—	7/ 7/21	J. A. Crawshaw.....	
Connecticut								
New Haven.....	Waterbury.....	Grade Addition.....	196	121,000	—/—/21	1/16/22	Com. on Schools.....	T. M. Freney
New Haven.....	Waterbury.....	Grade Addition.....	196	88,000	—/—/21	2/13/22	Com. on Schools.....	T. M. Freney
New Haven.....	Waterbury.....	Grade Addition.....	98	37,000	—/—/21	12/ 1/21	Com. on Schools.....	F. A. Webster
Delaware								
New Castle.....	Newark.....	Grade.....	180	35,000	—/—/21	—/—/22	J. H. Odell.....	Guilbert & Betelle
Kent.....	Caesar Rodney.....	Grade.....	200	30,000	—/—/21	—/—/22	J. H. Odell.....	Guilbert & Betelle
Sussex.....	Lewes.....	Grade (Colored).....	120	20,000	—/—/21	—/—/22	J. H. Odell.....	Guilbert & Betelle
Sussex.....	Lewes.....	Grade (White).....	500	250,000	3/—/21	—/—/22	J. H. Odell.....	Guilbert & Betelle
Sussex.....	Laurel.....	Grade.....	500	250,000	2/—/21	—/—/22	J. H. Odell.....	Guilbert & Betelle
Sussex.....	Seaford.....	Grade.....	180	30,000	6/15/21	10/ 5/21	Bd. of Education.....	Guilbert & Betelle
Florida								
Orange.....	Orlando.....	High (White).....	1070	250,000	8/ 8/21	8/ 8/21	S. Johnson.....	F. H. Trimble
Orange.....	Orlando.....	High (Colored).....	320	50,000	8/ 8/21	8/ 8/21	S. Johnson.....	F. H. Trimble
Georgia								
Tattnall.....	Cedarbow.....	Grade.....	200	12,000	9/28/21	—/—/22	C. L. Clifton.....	Willis Irvin
Tattnall.....	Glenville.....	High.....	200	15,000	7/ 1/21	10/19/21	C. L. Cowart.....	Willis Irvin
Iowa								
Buchanan.....	Lamont.....	Consolidated.....	300	93,000	2/—/21	12/28/21	I. E. Lang.....	Keffer & Jones
Dallas.....	Washington Twp.....	High and Consolidated	200	90,000	4/—/21	2/18/22	O. L. Morgan.....	Proudfoot, Bird & Rawson
Jackson.....	Maquoketa.....	High.....	700	200,000	2/15/22	—/—/22	B. S. Moyle.....	Arthur Ebeling
Winneshiek.....	Decorah.....	High.....	450	150,000	12/16/21	—/—/22	C. C. Gamertsfelder.....	Temple & Burrows
Kansas								
Chautauqua.....	Chautauqua.....	Rural High.....	100	40,000	12/ 2/21	1/16/21	M. H. Edwards.....	Brown
Haskell.....	Satanta.....	Rural High.....	600	85,000	6/28/20	—/—/22	G. R. Hickok.....	Smith & Beatty
Haskell.....	Sublette.....	Rural High.....	500	41,500	4/11/20	—/—/22	J. T. Miller.....	Smith & Beatty
Kentucky								
Daviess.....	Owensboro.....	High and Grade.....	600	300,000	2/ 3/22	—/—/22	J. L. Foust.....	A. F. Hussander
Maine								
York.....	Kennebunk.....	High and Grammar	280	85,000	3/ 7/21	8/ 5/21	Bldg. Committee.....	Hutchins & French
Massachusetts								
Worcester.....	Bolton.....	Grade.....	168	30,000	2/ 6/22	—/—/22		L. C. Greenleaf
Missouri								
Dade.....	Greenfield.....	High.....	200	40,000	—/—/21	5/—/21	Pres. Sch. Board.....	Hawkins & Hoerner
Montana								
Carter.....	Alzada.....	Two Room.....	60	5,500	—/—/21	9/—/21	Clare Richardson.....	
Carbon.....	Belfry.....	Grade.....	400	30,000	7/16/21	—/—/22	W. E. Ogden.....	Ed. Frates
Nebraska								
Frontier.....	Stockville.....	Grade.....	100	10,000	—/—/21	—/—/21	G. M. Wagner.....	
Frontier.....	Curtis.....	Grade.....	400	80,000	10/—/21	—/—/22	Dean Johnson.....	
New Jersey								
Sussex.....	Franklin Bor.....	Jr. High & Grade.....	1100	187,000	10/—/21	2/—/22	C. K. Clopper.....	
Union.....	Elizabeth.....	Junior High.....	1200	700,000	9/—/20	1/—/22		C. C. Poggi
No. Carolina								
Buncombe.....	Asheville.....	Grade.....	675	117,500	11/—/21	4/—/22	W. L. Brooker.....	Ronald Greene
Buncombe.....	Asheville.....	Grade.....	585	100,250	11/—/21	4/—/22	W. L. Brooker.....	W. J. East
Buncombe.....	Asheville.....	Grade.....	720	129,500	11/—/21	3/ 2/22	W. L. Brooker.....	Smith & Carrier
Buncombe.....	Asheville.....	Grade.....	600	122,540	11/—/21	12/—/21	W. L. Brooker.....	Ronald Greene
Richmond.....	Rockingham.....	High.....	400	100,000	2/21/22	4/ 8/22	L. W. Bell.....	C. C. Hood
Ohio								
Athens.....	Jacksonville.....	High.....	100	35,000	—/—/21	—/—/22		Murray & Stover
Cuyahoga.....	Cleveland.....	Junior High.....	3500	1,700,000	3/—/21	3/—/22	George Fox.....	W. R. McCormack
Erie.....	Castalia.....	High.....	400	90,000	11/ 8/21	11/—/22		Frank Packard
Erie.....	Milan.....	High and Grade.....	350	140,000	2/—/21	2/ 6/22		G. E. Scott
Erie.....	Perkins.....	High and Grade.....	450	150,000	4/27/20	—/—/22	I. S. Winner.....	Millot & Parker
Marion.....	Mont. Rural.....	High and Grade.....	200	60,000	—/—/21	—/—/22	Pres. Bd. Ed.....	Fred Jacobs
Monroe.....	Sardis.....	High.....	200	50,000	11/—/21	12/24/21	J. W. Rush.....	
Richland.....	Mansfield.....	Senior High.....	1200	800,000	11/ 4/19	—/—/22	J. B. Moke.....	Althouse & Jones
Scioto.....	Portsmouth.....	High Addition.....	500	250,000	—/—/21	—/—/22		A. Pretzinger

LUXURY TAXES—YEAR ENDED JUNE 30, 1921

The taxes paid in connection with the sale and manufacture of various articles are here listed by States. These articles may be classified either partly or wholly as luxuries. The figures represent the taxes paid and not the purchase prices. The tax on chewing gum, for example, is three per cent of its wholesale price. To find the amount spent for chewing gum, multiply the amount paid in taxes by thirty-three and a third, and then double this figure to obtain the retail price. The tax on chewing gum, as given in this table, was \$1,332,267.44; there was spent approximately \$88,817,829.32 to purchase this gum. The total cost of public education during 1919-20, as given by the United States Bureau of Education, was \$845,308,212.19 as compared with \$763,474,910.50, given below as a partial statement of luxury taxes. This table is compiled from the Annual Report of the Commissioner of Internal Revenue for the fiscal year ended June 30, 1921, by the Research Department of the National Education Association.

States and other units	Tobacco, non-alcoholic beverages and soft drinks, candy and chewing gum	Automobiles ¹ and accessories, State fees, yachts and motor boats	Admissions to theaters, cabarets, motion picture films, social and sporting club dues	Luxuriously priced articles; articles made of fur	Jewelry	Sporting goods, firearms, playing cards, pool halls	Musical instruments	Perfumes, cosmetics and patent medicines	Total taxes paid on luxuries
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
UNITED STATES.....	335,664,326.14	240,262,361.28	103,461,145.61	29,455,842.94	24,303,936.91	12,958,494.31	11,568,034.90	5,800,768.41	763,474,910.50
Alabama.....	1,013,564.97	1,205,817.15	601,651.63	149,121.72	171,811.73	14,350.60		22,773.05	3,179,090.85
Arizona.....	151,368.00	207,883.60	250,205.75	66,102.89	45,541.87	16,294.72		14,054.24	751,451.07
Arkansas.....	477,740.71	728,659.99	399,678.83	117,817.94	113,217.66	11,393.89		37,627.01	1,886,136.03
California.....	7,221,977.62	8,180,642.19	6,244,801.25	1,918,127.46	1,469,532.17	176,017.20	32,987.85	399,222.55	25,643,308.29
Colorado.....	888,749.45	1,119,171.19	1,146,862.86	225,418.85	201,998.42	42,750.65	2,408.28	80,370.31	3,707,730.01
Connecticut.....	1,397,659.20	3,209,334.99	1,357,153.81	158,140.98	361,918.05	2,612,590.17	1,305,979.11	58,532.43	10,461,308.74
Delaware.....	623,877.36	384,309.38	167,012.34	16,897.25	33,366.50	7,976.76		21,769.12	1,255,208.71
Florida.....	3,667,393.12	788,353.07	588,459.79	132,189.04	172,864.75	10,953.47	51.12	40,790.62	5,401,054.98
Georgia.....	1,757,020.08	1,835,415.02	953,948.60	241,101.10	270,942.10	12,585.63	916.54	42,463.40	5,114,392.47
Idaho.....	186,667.12	855,921.53	321,293.99	48,593.51	52,890.34	17,205.01	36.80	1,966.38	1,484,574.68
Illinois.....	13,781,485.22	11,271,406.06	8,824,907.53	2,469,973.97	2,447,003.07	1,608,144.03	2,257,260.83	647,669.74	43,307,850.45
Indiana.....	3,281,185.20	11,120,306.84	2,427,137.27	354,316.44	493,011.06	139,724.03	306,129.41	147,091.40	18,268,901.65
Iowa.....	1,614,838.61	8,045,042.14	1,923,135.65	340,910.24	381,229.50	87,094.04	8,822.69	128,873.21	12,529,946.08
Kansas.....	707,481.90	3,125,317.04	1,097,507.29	231,702.27	247,210.67	43,924.94	705.69	50,373.66	5,504,223.46
Kentucky.....	6,940,449.31	1,917,384.56	1,049,998.80	200,176.48	200,062.15	104,347.19	54,279.52	59,124.29	10,525,822.30
Louisiana.....	2,390,473.79	530,861.08	1,076,429.12	289,302.45	277,170.99	18,620.99	5,315.27	75,584.75	4,663,758.44
Maine.....	380,998.72	1,114,933.64	532,790.28	49,135.59	112,504.55	59,353.92	1,470.37	13,511.21	2,264,698.28
Maryland.....	4,475,789.83	2,679,315.53	2,420,475.89	483,264.34	592,712.19	51,875.13	22,230.54	198,414.53	10,924,077.98
Massachusetts.....	6,633,103.94	7,234,429.27	5,050,607.29	1,071,429.12	1,245,547.70	1,002,224.72	293,608.40	106,993.14	22,637,943.58
Michigan.....	6,954,268.85	60,965,102.62	3,792,399.29	871,839.86	873,604.87	271,280.00	174,612.74	198,871.60	74,101,979.83
Minnesota.....	1,993,980.29	5,835,988.14	1,993,838.06	592,406.77	459,944.71	123,106.63	32,232.66	215,293.23	11,246,790.49
Mississippi.....	561,429.25	560,271.92	254,704.38	94,753.93	67,429.14	6,806.75		9,515.41	1,554,910.78
Missouri.....	13,520,726.53	3,654,140.59	2,908,468.76	843,530.93	732,267.04	136,419.34	18,376.20	352,269.14	22,166,198.53
Montana.....	210,613.48	605,668.62	434,389.20	84,419.05	64,620.13	21,838.55	86.40	15,133.64	1,436,769.07
Nebraska.....	672,824.07	2,971,214.42	1,085,469.40	213,526.20	213,221.88	46,860.00	321.24	62,111.73	5,265,548.94
Nevada.....	59,296.64	106,752.82	104,730.94	20,534.97	19,726.45	4,776.88		2,479.07	318,297.77
New Hampshire.....	741,737.69	930,966.28	362,798.95	20,213.21	60,623.40	124,984.98		10,757.17	2,252,081.68
New Jersey.....	23,288,816.84	5,904,002.13	3,315,600.85	284,005.77	459,304.98	399,362.34	3,398,080.69	111,996.83	37,161,170.43
New Mexico.....	74,966.96	261,298.84	120,094.41	25,016.09	30,349.56	11,078.59		3,947.98	526,752.43
New York.....	58,992,383.46	23,477,106.35	23,758,389.93	11,263,323.59	5,098,210.85	2,435,148.26	2,793,303.43	849,028.19	128,666,894.06
North Carolina.....	80,541,151.72	2,361,722.35	594,290.19	113,799.76	189,476.50	6,742.93	2,704.56	24,390.69	83,834,278.70
North Dakota.....	168,984.36	693,508.53	264,971.70	41,510.28	58,238.75	31,440.16	35.60	12,736.88	1,271,426.26
Ohio.....	18,831,301.30	26,627,060.30	6,266,306.15	1,354,672.56	1,455,570.81	2,520,820.95	218,997.30	450,166.75	57,724,896.12
Oklahoma.....	671,511.43	2,686,735.06	1,123,219.18	406,393.92	240,510.40	30,137.14		54,466.80	5,212,973.93
Oregon.....	551,725.61	2,386,490.82	1,021,944.30	226,783.39	236,217.87	31,325.22	4,997.53	68,395.10	4,527,879.84
Pennsylvania.....	31,943,199.32	12,574,634.81	8,220,916.60	1,661,816.06	2,243,996.24	302,820.49	317,072.57	523,330.49	57,787,786.58
Rhode Island.....	446,346.87	932,461.91	623,303.38	80,725.65	133,224.81	20,100.46	1,549.24	39,268.04	2,276,980.36
South Carolina.....	837,996.43	811,058.00	390,448.08	71,092.63	107,326.53	7,951.58		14,875.93	2,240,749.18
South Dakota.....	303,949.78	737,984.43	363,269.45	51,412.02	61,801.98	32,740.63		12,735.18	1,563,893.47
Tennessee.....	4,361,418.38	1,436,877.21	764,132.65	252,039.43	286,246.82	20,123.87	5,028.49	105,690.48	7,231,557.33
Texas.....	2,588,606.82	2,391,695.28	2,866,439.09	1,064,124.94	854,442.80	15,100.48	709.81	104,967.23	9,886,086.45
Utah.....	432,041.44	459,077.63	488,520.10	81,544.01	85,712.06	17,272.82		31,903.60	1,596,071.66
Vermont.....	133,180.31	699,853.68	206,152.58	14,487.72	43,126.37	17,219.10	9,596.94	739.09	1,124,355.79
Virginia.....	19,523,535.70	2,201,271.94	955,126.60	171,293.20	266,969.32	36,128.05	26,626.60	101,898.20	23,282,849.61
Washington.....	1,025,514.24	3,030,854.56	1,756,367.77	384,013.42	357,576.34	52,995.16	175.76	98,567.17	6,706,064.42
West Virginia.....	2,976,619.08	1,655,938.91	702,227.03	169,212.42	193,141.15	35,040.31	1,387.67	62,860.48	5,796,427.05
Wisconsin.....	4,534,847.49	7,403,379.02	1,958,101.20	366,665.12	438,813.36	141,625.12	269,579.28	99,769.41	15,212,780.00
Wyoming.....	82,955.38	296,403.36	203,298.38	38,965.67	31,386.50	11,570.52		1,458.95	666,038.76
Hawaii.....	100,712.61	48,336.48	127,169.04	27,998.73	50,319.82	8,249.91	357.77	13,938.91	377,083.27
Philippine Islands.....	945,859.66								945,859.66

¹ Includes state license fees as reported by the American Automobile Association, but does not include local automobile taxes, estimated at \$100,000,000 for the country.

Elementary School Salaries in Massachusetts

Maximum Salaries as of December 1, 1921, as published in Common Ground, the official organ of the Massachusetts Teachers Federation

Name of city or town	No.	Increase contemplated or requested	Elementary Teachers	Primary Principal	Grammar Principal	Name of city or town	No.	Increase contemplated or requested	Elementary Teachers	Primary Principal	Grammar Principal
1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
Boston	1		\$2000	\$4044	\$4044	Milton	71		\$1550	\$1950	
Worcester	2		1600			Amesbury	72	\$100	1300	1400	1400
Fall River	3		1500	2000	3000	Belmont	73		1500	1520	2500
New Bedford	4		1700	2850	3350	Andover	74		1400	1600	1550
Cambridge	5		1512	2000	3220	Montague	75		1500	1525	1550
Lowell	6		1700	1750	3100	Marblehead	76	100	1360	1550	
Springfield	7		1900	3200		Whitman	77				
Lynn	8		1300		2500	Stoneham	78		1300	1325	1700
Lawrence	9		1600	1880	2920	Swampscott	79		1400	1900	
Somerville	10		1500		3000	Rockland	80		1400	1500	2000
Brockton	11		1440	1440	3000	Stoughton	81		1150		1350
Holyoke	12		1850	2150		Reading	82		1400	1500	
Haverhill	13		1400		2500	Maynard	83		1500	1400	
Malden	14		1500	1800	2800	Hudson	84		1300	1400	1400
Chelsea	15	\$400	1500	1900		Concord	85		1500		2150
Newton	16	100	1750		3650	Great Barrington	86		1250		1700
Quincy	17		1600		3000	Needham	87	100	1500	1550	2400
Fitchburg	18		1650			Franklin	88		1200	1250	
Pittsfield	19		1500			Wellesley	89		1600	1800	
Everett	20		1500	1700	2900	Fairhaven	90		1250	1350	1800
Salem	21		1300	1450	2500	Ipswich	91		1050	1150	1450
Taunton	22		1300	1400	2500	Ludlow	92		1200	1350	1500
Medford	23		1500	1800	2200	Grafton	93		1200	1300	1600
Waltham	24		1400	1560	3000	Spencer	94				1000
Chicopee	25		1300	1500	1900	North Andover	95		1350	1450	1700
Revere	26	100	1500	2220	2220	Westboro	96		1200	1250	1251
Gloucester	27	200	1150	1275	2000	Winchendon	97		1250	1275	1350
Beverly	28	50	1450		2050	Mansfield	98		1300	1300	2000
North Adams	29	200	1250	1500	1500	Abington	99		1350		2050
Northampton	30		1450			Canton	100		1400	1400	1700
Peabody	31		1300	1800	2300	Amherst	101		1200	1300	1500
Attleboro	32		1500	1550	2500	Lexington	102	100	1500		1900
Leominster	33		1300	1424	1525	Walpole	103		1500		
Melrose	34		1600	1700	2000	Orange	104		1300		1600
Woburn	35		1200		2150	Dartmouth	105		1050		1800
Marlboro	37		1300		1900	Millbury	106		1100	1300	
Methuen	38		1350			Hingham	108		1350	1400	
Brookline	39	75	1900	1850	3500	Chelmsford	109		1200		1400
Westfield	40		1350	1830	2275	South Hadley	110		1500	1700	1700
Watertown	41	100	1450		2500	Wareham	111		1150	1250	1250
Gardner	42		1300	1500	1500	Easton	112		1200		1600
Frammingham	43		1300	1500	2200	Barnstable	114		1300		1500
Arlington	44		1500		2100	Uxbridge	115		1100		1150
Southbridge	45		1300	1350	1600	Randolph	116		1100		1300
Weymouth	46		1200	1200	2000	Lee	117		1150		1230
Milford	47		1300	1425	2100	Dudley	118		1350		
Adams	48		1200	1400	1750	Rockport	119		1050	1075	1075
Clinton	49		1550			Warren	121		1050	1300	1300
Plymouth	50		1400	1800	1800	Templeton	122		1000	1000	1100
Wakefield	51		1350	1350	2550	Williamstown	123		1050	1100	1100
Winthrop	52		1500			Falmouth	124		1400		
Greenfield	53		1500		2250	Dalton	125		1250		1350
Webster	54		1400			Foxboro	126		1000	1100	1200
West Springfield	55		1350			East Bridgewater	127		1000		
Danvers	56		1400	1500	2300	Blackstone	128		1100	1180	1400
Natick	57		1400		2100	Medfield	129		1200		
Dedham	58		1500		2300	Oxford	131		1150	1150	
Norwood	59		1500	2460		Barre	132	100	1300	1350	1350
Saugus	60		1200	1300	1400	Somerset	133		950		1000
Winchester	61		1500	1600		Billerica	135		1200		1800
Easthampton	62		1300	1350	1850	Lenox	136		1100	1200	
Athol	63		1400	1400	1500	Nantucket	137		1200		
Palmer	64		1200		1500	Holbrook	138		1150		1200
North Attleboro	65		1300	1400	1500	North Brookfield	139	100	1100		
Bridgewater	66		1200		1600	Manchester	140		1500	1600	1900
Ware	67		1400	1200	1650	Pepperell	143		1000		1100
Braintree	68		1350	1350	2400	Cohasset	145		1350		
Northbridge	69		1444	1501		Shrewsbury	146		1000		1500
Middleboro	70		1200	1300	1800	Aver	148		1200		

Serve Democracy's Greatest Need

America's best talent should be dedicated to the training of the youth for citizenship. The National Education Association appreciates the efforts of its members to enlist in the educational army the strongest men and women in every locality. It is recommended to our best young people that they consider the following advantages of the profession of teaching:

- 1. Teaching pays. Besides ever-increasing financial compensation, the teaching profession offers the highest social sanctions and rewards.*
- 2. Teaching is a growing profession. The Nation now requires the services of 700,000 teachers. There is a strong demand that teachers be better trained. As training increases, the financial and social rewards likewise increase.*
- 3. Teaching offers a growing career. The well-trained teacher need have no fear of unemployment, but may look forward to increasing opportunities commensurate with added training and growth in personal fitness.*
- 4. Teaching offers mental and moral growth. The soundest mental and moral processes are involved in the making of good citizens.*
- 5. Teaching is building. The teacher shapes the unfolding life of childhood and radiates ideals and purposes that in the citizenship of tomorrow will become the fabric of an improved social structure.*
- 6. Teaching inspires high ideals. There is nothing nobler or more practical than to shape and to guide the ideals and practices of the young citizens who are soon to be the Nation's responsible leaders.*
- 7. Teaching is service. Those who enter this high calling enjoy the spiritual development and true happiness that come from rendering real service to the Republic.*
- 8. Teaching insures big opportunities. With growth and inspiration come multiplied opportunities for self-improvement, for rearing the family in a wholesome atmosphere, and for living and building on life's best side.*
- 9. Teaching is practical patriotism. Inspiring young citizens and directing problems of citizenship practice is a ministry essential to a democracy.*
- 10. Teaching is the profession of professions. Measured by the standards that make life genuinely rich and happy, teaching offers opportunities beyond those of other professions. Teaching is the clearing-house of the past, the guide of the present, and the prophet of the future. It is therefore necessary that the Nation's finest talents should be consecrated to public education upon which the perpetuity of American ideals and the salvation of the Republic depend.*

Minneapolis Makes Good

EFFIE MACGREGOR.

President of the Grade Teachers' Section of the Minneapolis Teachers' League, Minneapolis, Minnesota

SINCE MAY, 1921, the Grade Teachers' Section of the Minneapolis Teachers' League has been affiliated with the National Education Association. This section now has over nine hundred active members. Its membership in the Association last July entitled it to two delegates to the meeting of the Representative Assembly, held in Des Moines. Its present membership allows a quota of five delegates with a fair prospect that growth in membership will increase the number of delegates to six by June 1, 1922. How to pay the expenses of these delegates to the Boston meeting next July was solved by a plan of coöperation that has done much to familiarize Minneapolis people with the National Education Association.

The women of Minneapolis have been working for some time for better movies. The proprietors of the Blue Mouse Motion Picture Theater have been co-operating in this movement. Certain motion picture distributors are also interested in promoting better pictures. From one of these companies was obtained a film—*Our Mutual Friend*—based on Dickens' novel. This picture, while not known as a best seller in the theatrical world, has real merit. Consequently, the Grade Teachers' Section felt that it would be rendering a service to bring it to the attention of the public.

A coöperative advertising campaign was therefore undertaken. The Wid-Gunning Company, which furnished the picture, supplied photographs, posters, and printed matter. The Blue Mouse Theater extended its house avenue of advertising. The Minneapolis Journal, besides giving all the space needed for daily write-ups, conducted a prize essay contest on *Our Mutual Friend*, offering cash prizes to the extent of two hundred dollars.

Much valuable publicity came from statements which each of the larger stores ran daily at the head of its main advertisements as follows: "The Grade Teachers' Section of the Minneapolis Teachers' League invites you to see Charles Dickens' masterpiece, *Our Mutual Friend*. This will be held at

the Blue Mouse Theater, commencing Saturday, March 4. Buy your tickets at our special booth on the main floor." A feature of the advertising campaign was a telegram from Mr. Will H. Hays, director of the National Association of Motion Picture Producers and Distributors, expressing his appreciation of the efforts of the Grade Teachers' Section to create an interest in better pictures.

Tickets for adults were sold for fifty-five cents each—twenty cents for the Grade Teachers' Section, thirty cents for the theater, and five cents war tax. Children's tickets sold at twenty-two cents each—seven cents for the Grade Section, thirteen cents for the theater, and two cents war tax. We believe that ten cents for children's tickets would be a better arrangement.

Through the showing of this picture the Grade Teachers' Section has cleared \$1618.49 with which to pay the expenses of delegates to the Representative Assembly at Boston. The owners of the Blue Mouse Theater will send as their special representative to Boston, Miss Florence Gee, a member of the Grade Teachers' Section.

State Maintenance of Teachers in Training

UNDER the terms of the Towner-Sterling bill it would be possible for a State to expend a portion of whatever allotment it received for the training of teachers in providing scholarships for qualified students in normal schools and teachers' colleges. Dr. W. S. Hertzog has recently published a monograph¹ dealing with the general problem involved in this provision. After examining the evidence afforded by other occupations which provide subsidized training for their recruits and considering the arguments for and against the policy, Dr. Hertzog reaches the following conclusions:

1. State subsidy for prospective teachers extends the policy of assistance [such as free tuition and textbooks] already adopted by central authority and proposes to attack vigorously the prevailing lack of sufficient preparation among teachers. . . .

2. Trained teachers are more valuable than incompetent recruits because they are likely to teach longer as well as more efficiently. Subsidy will attract a sufficient number of candidates to allow selection of those who possess the best ability. State assistance will make it possible to prolong the training of many high-school graduates whose ability should be utilized by the State but whose economic conditions now compel them to give up further study.

3. Aid in the form of scholarships offered in other fields of activity [army and navy service, the ministry, scientific research, nursing, various industries, telephone service] . . . has proved to be stimulating. . . .

4. Students selected for assistance in other fields have proved worthy of such aid. They have been successful in school and in their chosen work. The State's need for teachers which results from its control of public education justifies assistance by the State without extending the policy to other occupations.

Dr. Hertzog also offers the following detailed suggestions as to conditions that a subsidy law should meet:

Scholarships shall be established worth at least \$300 annually, in addition to free tuition, to be devoted to the maintenance of students in the teacher-training institutions of the State for two years of professional work. These scholarships shall be payable to the training institutions in semi-annual instalments upon the certificate of the president of the institution that the conditions of the law have been fulfilled by the scholarship holders.

Candidates for scholarships shall be graduates of three-year high-school courses or the equivalent. . . . Each must present a certificate of good health . . . and be a resident of the State for one year and a citizen of the United States. They shall be selected by competitive examination under regulations adopted by the State Board of Education.

Scholarship holders shall pledge themselves to teach the next four years after completing the course in the public schools of the State or return a proportionate part of the money granted by the State for the years of service omitted. They shall pledge themselves to complete the course in the training school.

For the proper performance of the pledge, the student shall give bond signed by a responsible property holder covering the entire sum of \$600.

¹Walter S. Hertzog; *State Maintenance of Teachers in Training*. Baltimore. Warwick and York, 1921. 133p. \$1.60.

Ill health or failure to carry the work of the training school successfully will exempt the student from his pledge and the bondsman from liability.

The State should guarantee to the teacher [so trained] a salary equal to that paid for the same grade of preparation in the best schools of the State.

NOTES and ANNOUNCEMENTS

ALL INQUIRIES relating to local arrangements for the Boston meeting should be addressed to Mr. E. V. B. Parke, Convention Manager, 15 Beacon Street, Boston 9, Massachusetts. Requests for hotel reservations should be sent to Mr. Parke as early as possible. Thousands of rooms in private homes will also be available at reasonable prices. A table of hotel rates appears on another page of *THE JOURNAL*.

ROUND TRIP RATES—The railway passenger associations have promised round trip rates of one and a half fares for the Boston meeting. Tickets will be on sale in ample time for persons living in any part of the country to reach Boston for the opening of the meeting. Tickets may be extended for two weeks after the convention closes by paying a fee of one dollar and depositing them with the ticket agent at Boston.

An effort will be made to arrange summer excursion rates, good through October. West of the Mississippi River the excursion tickets would read to Boston and east of the Mississippi they would read to resorts other than Boston. For example, members living east of the Mississippi River would purchase tickets to Marblehead—one of the Boston resort suburbs.

Members wishing to take advantage of the special one and a half rate should

secure Identification Certificates at once from their State Director or from Secretary J. W. Crabtree, 1201 Sixteenth Street N. W., Washington, D. C.; and should speak to local passenger agents sometime before the meeting to make sure that round trip tickets are on hand.

EXPENSES OF DELEGATES from the various counties of Minnesota to the Association's meeting in Boston will be paid through the cooperation of business men, according to a plan which is being worked out by the Association's State Director, Philip E. Carlson, and other educational leaders. An appeal was made to the county superintendent and county commissioner in every county. Twelve counties made arrangements immediately to pay \$100 toward a delegate's expenses and the movement promises to be highly successful.

FIELD SECRETARY HUGH S. MAGILL recently spent over a week in Iowa, during which time he delivered twenty addresses in twelve cities to teachers' and civic organizations in support of the progressive educational program being carried forward by the Iowa State Teachers' Association.

Official Meetings and Business Sessions, Boston, July 3-8—**EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE**—2:00 o'clock Saturday afternoon, July 1, to consider Secretary's report, prepare a financial report for Board of Directors, and to transact other business.

BOARD OF DIRECTORS—10:30 o'clock Monday forenoon, July 3, to consider report of Executive Committee, Secretary's report, and to prepare recommendations for the Representative Assembly; other business.

DELEGATES BY STATES—5:00 o'clock Monday evening, July 3, delegates of each State to meet to elect a member of the Nominating Committee, a member of the Resolutions Committee, a member of the Credentials Committee, and a member of the Necrology Committee.

COMMITTEE ON CREDENTIALS—10:00 o'clock Monday evening, July 3, to meet, organize, and arrange for handling cre-

dentials of delegates; to prepare a report for the Representative Assembly.

COMMITTEE ON RESOLUTIONS—10:00 o'clock Monday evening, July 3, to meet, organize, arrange for considering recommendations and decide on plans for report to Representative Assembly.

COMMITTEE ON NOMINATIONS—9:00 o'clock Wednesday forenoon, July 5, to meet, organize, place in nomination names for the various offices in the association and to prepare the report for the business session.

COMMITTEE ON NECROLOGY—5:00 o'clock Wednesday afternoon, July 5, to meet, organize, and decide on policies and plans for the year.

BOARD OF DIRECTORS (NEW)—2:00 o'clock Friday afternoon, July 7, to arrange to put into effect the action taken by the Representative Assembly; new business.

BOARD OF TRUSTEES—4:00 o'clock Friday afternoon, July 7, annual meeting; regular meeting.

THE REPRESENTATIVE ASSEMBLY—9 to 12 o'clock Wednesday forenoon, July 5, first business session; presentation of committee reports; action on reports; passing on credentials of delegates.

THE REPRESENTATIVE ASSEMBLY—9 to 12 o'clock Thursday forenoon, July 6, second business session; presentation of committee reports; action on reports.

THE REPRESENTATIVE ASSEMBLY—9 to 12 o'clock Friday forenoon, July 7, third business session; report of Executive Committee; report of Trustees; Secretary's report; resolutions; election of officers; other business.

A BEAUTIFULLY ILLUSTRATED DESCRIPTIVE BOOKLET on Washington, D. C., may be had free by writing to Mr. W. B. Calloway, Passenger Traffic Manager, Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, Baltimore, Maryland, asking for the *Guide to Washington*. Teachers of geography and persons who expect to pass through Washington on their way to the Boston meeting will find this booklet highly useful.

AUTOMOBILES will be used by many educators who plan to attend the Boston meeting. Several parties have expressed a desire for organized post-conference automobile trips through New England. Efforts are being made to provide for such trips under expert leadership. Persons interested in this feature of the meeting may address Automobile Department, National Education Association, Washington, D. C.

THE ADVERTISING PAGES should be read carefully by all members. Persons

ONE-WAY RATES TO BOSTON

City	Fare	Pullman Lower Berth
San Francisco.....	\$119.93	\$33.50
Salt Lake City....	96.03	25.50
Dallas	66.82	19.50
Omaha	58.89	14.63
Kansas City.....	56.36	14.63
Memphis	52.65	14.63
Birmingham	43.82	13.50
Chicago	40.96	10.13
Atlanta	39.37	12.38
Detroit	33.08	7.50
Pittsburgh	24.08	6.38
Buffalo	17.92	4.50
Washington, D. C.	16.40	5.63

expecting to attend the Boston meeting will be especially interested in the announcements of tours and summer-schools which appear in the advertising section of this number.

HONORABLE CHANNING H. COX, governor of Massachusetts, will address the meeting of the National Education Association on the evening of July 3.

Grade Teachers' Association, reports that committees of grade teachers are working with committees of principals in framing the new course of study.

MR. THOMAS R. COLE, now assistant superintendent of the Seattle schools, has been elected to succeed Superintendent Frank B. Cooper, whose resignation takes effect on August 1, 1922. Seattle with a population of 315,652 now ranks twentieth among the largest cities of the United States.

DR. DWIGHT B. WALDO, for eighteen years president of the Western State Normal School at Kalamazoo, Michigan, has accepted the presidency of the Bellingham (Washington) State Normal School, to succeed Dr. G. W. Nash, who after more than seven years of service in that position has resigned to become head of the Congregational Foundation for Education, with headquarters in Chicago. Dr. Waldo is chairman of the Association's committee on Salaries, Tenure, and Pensions.

AN AUTOMOBILE PARTY, including the following Nebraska educators, will attend the meeting of the National Education Association in Boston in July: Mr. W. H. Martin, superintendent of schools, Fairbury; Mr. E. E. Stone, principal of the junior high school, Fairbury; Mr. L. M. Moody, teacher of

IN THE FIELD

THE NEW MEXICO EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION has employed a full-time secretary. Superintendent J. W. Conway, of Tularosa, begins work on May 15 at an annual salary of \$3600 and traveling expenses.

ANOTHER FULL-TIME SECRETARY for a State education association has been added to the rapidly growing list of such officers. Superintendent C. J. Coltrane, of the Roanoke Rapids (North Carolina) schools, will give his full time to the work of the North Carolina Teachers Assembly, beginning July 1, at an annual salary of \$4,000 a year.

THE OHIO TEACHERS' PENSION SYSTEM, which experts consider one of the soundest pension systems in existence, has been attacked. It is understood that the constitutionality of the law will be tested and that there is a possibility of an initiative petition demanding its repeal. The General Assembly refused to repeal the law in 1921. It is unthinkable that the Assembly can be coerced by the enemies of public education into repealing it now, or that the people of Ohio can be so misled and misinformed as to repeal by popular vote a measure of such great importance to the welfare of the children of the State.

THE GRADED LIST of books for schools, prepared by a committee of the National Education Association, is soon to be published. Inquiries should be addressed to the American Library Association, 78 East Washington Street, Chicago, which has undertaken to publish the list.

A MONTHLY LETTER, prepared by Superintendent Frank Cody, is issued for the purpose of acquainting the people of Detroit with their schools. The issue for March, 1922, shows graphically the growth of the city and its schools and gives reasons why more money is necessary.

THE 437 TEACHERS of St. Joseph, Missouri, have had a hundred per cent membership in local, State, and National Associations since the fall of 1920. They have worked most effectively in

favor of the county-unit bill in Missouri and in behalf of the Towner-Sterling bill now before Congress.

MR. GEORGE L. CANNON, of the University of Denver, who became a member of the Association in 1895, died February 15, 1922. Mr. Cannon was a well-known teacher and specialist in geology.

SCHOOL BUILDINGS were completed in Minnesota for 1921 at an investment of \$9,000,000. Buildings are now in process of construction or under contract for \$11,000,000. Plans of other buildings are being considered and projects are considered for raising funds representing an additional program of school construction of \$10,000,000.

MISS BERTHA W. CHESNEY, president of the Tacoma (Washington)

IN FLANDERS FIELDS

(A poem for Memorial Day)

Lieutenant-Colonel John McCrae, M. D.

In Flanders fields the poppies blow
Between the crosses, row on row,
That mark our place; and in the sky
The larks, still bravely singing, fly
Scarce heard amid the guns below.

We are the Dead. Short days ago
We lived, felt dawn, saw sunset glow,
Loved and were loved, and now we lie
In Flanders fields.

Take up our quarrel with the foe:
To you from failing hands we throw
The torch; be yours to hold it high.
If ye break faith with us who die
We shall not sleep, though poppies grow
In Flanders fields.

(From the author's "In Flanders Fields and Other Poems." G. P. Putnam's Sons. New York. 1919. Written while the second battle of Ypres was in progress. Dr. McCrae lost his life in the war.)

vocational guidance, Fairbury; Mr. A. J. Stoddard, superintendent of schools, Beatrice, and Mr. L. R. Gregory, superintendent of schools, Tecumseh.

CONSTRUCTIVE AIDS in school library work is a list of valuable helps which teachers may have free by writing to the American Library Association, 78 East Washington Street, Chicago, Illinois.

THE ANNUAL MEETING of city and county superintendents, school principals, and high school teachers was held at the University of Minnesota, April 11-15, under the joint auspices of the State Department of Education and the College of Education.

COLORADO STATE TEACHERS' COLLEGE, Greeley, Colorado, reports an enrollment of 2087 in its 1921 Summer

School as compared with 1315 in the 1920, which makes that institution rank thirteenth among universities and colleges in order of summer-school enrollment.

THE SANTA CLARA (California) County Teachers' Association will be represented at the Boston meeting by Miss Cecelia Carmichael, of San Jose.

THE REORGANIZATION OF MATHEMATICS IN SECONDARY EDUCATION is the subject of the U. S. Bureau of Education Bulletin, 1921, No. 32. It is a seventy-two page summary of the five-hundred page report by the National Committee on Mathematical Requirements. It can be purchased from the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington,

D. C., for ten cents. The complete report may be had free of charge by applying to the chairman, Mr. J. W. Young, Hanover, New Hampshire.

THAT LARGE CLASSES prevail in England and Wales is shown by the following figures for the year ended March 31, 1920, when 31,000 classes in England and Wales contained 50-59 pupils and nearly 7000 classes contained 60 or more pupils.

STORM LAKE'S RETRENCHMENT—Storm Lake is retrenching. It has cut the wages of all teachers below the grade of principal and discontinued the kindergarten.

It is a poor system of retrenchment. Somewhat like refusing to paint the barn or keep a shed for the machinery or pay a lawyer to draw a will or an extra price for tested seed corn. Cutting down teachers' wages and abolishing kindergartens is not retrenchment. On the contrary it is extravagance.

In the first place teachers' wages are still low comparatively—that is, the wage of the average teacher. Recently a girl who has been teaching a dozen years as a kindergartner was offered a superintendency at approximately \$2500 a year. She has spent her summers and her money taking special courses. She had been successful in her work, so much so that she was offered a selective position in a large city. To her it seemed like the limit of success. But is \$2500 a year any great success in commercial life and labor? Then why should it loom so high to a teacher?

A teacher paid \$1200 a year in the grades is considered well paid in many communities. But is \$1200 a year good pay for a woman who has qualified as excellent in her profession and has spent years in practical application of that which had cost her years of time and many hundreds of dollars to gain?

In the second place good teachers gravitate toward good pay. Cheap communities must take cheap teachers. That is not economy or retrenchment. It is simply a foolish extravagance.

Thirdly, my brethren, and lastly the average man's school tax is less than his cigar bill. The average man's school tax is less than his dues at the country club. It costs him—this average man—more to belong to the Rotary Club than his school taxes amount to. Storm Lake is not retrenching. Storm Lake is wasting an opportunity.—*Marshalltown (Iowa) Times Republican*, March 27, 1922.

HOTEL RATES—BOSTON MEETING

A—AMERICAN PLAN E—EUROPEAN PLAN		RATES BY THE DAY							
		Rooms without private bath				Rooms with private bath			
		For one person		For two persons		For one person		For two persons	
Name	Street	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.
E—United States Hotel	Beach Street	\$2.00	\$3.00	\$3.50	\$5.00	\$3.50	\$5.00	\$4.50	\$6.50
E—Priscilla Hotel	307 Huntington Ave.					2.75	3.00	4.00	5.00
A—Winthrop Arms Hotel	Winthrop Highlands	4.50	5.00	4.50	4.50	5.50	7.00	6.00	7.00
E—The Hotel Bellevue	Beacon Street	3.00		4.00	6.00	4.00	5.00	7.00	10.00
E—The Copley-Plaza Hotel	Copley Square, Dartmouth Street					5.00	9.00	8.00	12.00
E—The Crawford House	83 Court Street	1.50		3.00		2.50		4.00	
E—Young's Hotel	Court St.	2.00		4.00		3.50		5.50	
A—The Hotel Vendome	Commonwealth Ave.					7.00		13.00	
E—The Hotel Vendome	Commonwealth Ave.					3.00		4.50	
E—Hotel Avery	Wash. and Avery Sts.							5.00	6.00
E—Hotel Brunswick	Boylston St.	2.50	3.00	5.00	6.00	4.00	5.00	6.00	8.00
E—Hotel Westminster	Copley Square	2.00	2.50	4.00	5.00	3.50		5.00	7.00
E—Hotel Princeton	1277 Commonwealth Avenue	1.50	2.50	3.50	4.00	3.00		4.50	5.00
A—Hotel Beaconsfield	1731 Beacon Street					3.50		5.00	
E—The Lenox Hotel	Boylston and Exeter Streets	3.00	3.50	4.00	5.00	3.50	5.00	5.00	8.00
E—Hotel Victoria	Dartmouth and Newberry Streets		3.00		5.00		4.00		6.00
E—Hotel Canterbury	Charlesgate West						3.00		4.00
E—The American House	56 Hanover Street		2.00		4.00				5.00
A—The Winthrop	1661 Beacon Street	3.00	5.00	5.50	9.00				
E—The Hotel Kenmore				8.00	10.00		5.00		6.00
E—The Franklin Sq. Hotel	11 E. Newton Street	1.00		1.00		2.50		2.00	
E—The Charlesgate	535 Beacon Street					3.00		4.00	
E—The Buckminster	645 Beacon Street		2.50		4.00		3.00		5.00
E—Essex Hotel	Atlantic Avenue and Essex Street	2.50	3.50	5.00	6.00	4.00	5.00	7.00	8.00
E—The Savoy	455 Columbus Ave.					2.00	3.00	2.50	4.00
E—Parker House	Premont and School Streets	2.50	3.50	4.00	5.00	3.50	5.50	5.50	8.00
E—Somerset Hotel	420 Commonwealth Avenue		4.00		5.00	5.00	7.00	6.00	8.00
E—Adams House	Washington Street	2.00	3.00	3.50	5.00	4.00	5.50	6.00	7.50
E—Hampton Court	Brookline, Mass.							2.75	
E—The Hotel Puritan	390 Commonwealth Avenue		2.50			4.00	5.00		6.00
E—The Quincy	Brattle Street	1.00	2.50	2.00	3.00	3.50	4.50		
E—Hotel Touraine	Boylston and Tremont Streets		3.50		5.50	5.00	7.00	7.50	10.00
E—The Garrison Hall Hotel	8 Garrison Street								2.00
E—Hotel Brewster	19 Boylston Street	2.00		3.00		2.50	3.00	3.50	4.00

Salaries of Elementary Teachers 1921-22

The figures here given are the median salaries actually being paid—not possible maxima. Fifty per cent of the teachers of a State receive salaries equal to or above the median, and fifty per cent receive salaries equal to or below the median. The medians given were calculated from a distribution of salaries grouped in one-hundred-dollar intervals. The table was prepared by the Research Department of the National Education Association from data of the United States Bureau of Education. Two questionnaires were sent out by the Bureau; one to all cities over 2500, the other to all rural communities. Replies were received from 1444 or sixty per cent of the 2404 cities of 2500 population and over. Over forty per cent of the counties and other rural units of the country replied. The medians for cities are the actual medians; the medians for rural groups are medians of the various State medians. * Indicates that reports were too few to be representative. † Indicates that figures are approximate. ‡ Indicates that war bonus of \$240 a year was not included.

States and other units	Schools in Cities				Schools in Rural Communities				
	Over 100,000	25,000 to 100,000	10,000 to 25,000	2500 to 10,000	Villages and towns, 3 or more teachers	Country schools, 3 or more teachers	2-teacher schools	1-teacher schools	Consolidated schools
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
UNITED STATES.....	1848	1379	1241	1097	1010	885	877	774	987
Alabama.....	1159		926	860	742	465	418	419	735
Arizona.....		1675	1593	1414	1369	1300	1269	1243	950*
Arkansas.....		1102	926	792	642	696	552	428	550
California.....	1879	1763	1636	1404	1386	1383	1323	1257	1359
Colorado.....	1891	1606	1349	1214	1147	1117	1023	874	1115
Connecticut.....	1552	1416	1412	1248	1260	1050*	1062	931	1182
Delaware.....				975	1010	650*	729	689	700*
District of Columbia.....	1346†								
Florida.....		1202		907	941	548	648	399	892
Georgia.....	1451	927	796†	845	691	548	413	300	644
Idaho.....			1479	1305	1335	1178	1047	918	1150*
Illinois.....	1913	1320	1154	1032	944	885	872	781	971
Indiana.....		1516	1185	1112	993	913	873	861	984
Iowa.....		1452	1230	1086	996	950	940	768	1064
Kansas.....	1692	1615	1214	991	1011	974	880	731	1046
Kentucky.....	1247	1156	902	882	667	571	550	463	720
Louisiana.....	1580		941†	948	976	866	719	659	775
Maine.....		1296	1070	775	912	682	707	595	754*
Maryland.....		1069	1064		990	845	763	696	950*
Massachusetts.....	1589	1571	1350	1180	1126	517	475	391	695
Michigan.....	1733	1427	1189	1245	1064	779	239	832	1290
Minnesota.....	1614		1155	1255	1040	1015	913	845	1109
Mississippi.....			929	924	842	395	404	328	626
Missouri.....	1822	1335		925	818	900	613	594	600
Montana.....			1638	1455	1265	950*	1112	966	1233*
Nebraska.....	1731	1482	1214	1218	986	1120	989	869	998
Nevada.....					1436		1167	988	1550*
New Hampshire.....		1323	1183	952	942	750*	908*	718	775*
New Jersey.....	1631	1588	1419	1348	1406	1252	1086	1011	1225
New Mexico.....			1297	1270	1172	1187	1086	1084	1258
New York.....	2600†	1339	1339	1220	1232	1209	983	883	1140
North Carolina.....		1206	1071	1003	581	555	467	383	735
North Dakota.....					1395	1129	1036	867	1167
Ohio.....	1756	1484	1194	1016	1031	993	952	878	1047
Oklahoma.....		1630	1227	1065	989	985	929	826	991
Oregon.....			1237	1128	1066	1044	972	862	1300*
Pennsylvania.....	1966	1244	1130	1029	992	881	735	655	831
Rhode Island.....	1722	1351	1293	864	1125*	758*	888*	786*	1133*
South Carolina.....		1167	1155	911	925	673	676	396	770
South Dakota.....		1413	1245	1268	1184	1175*	1129	928	1204
Tennessee.....		1096		692	858	481	420	365	970
Texas.....	1520	1215	965	924	934	792	724	671	766
Utah.....	1392			1118	1182	854	875	844	1231
Vermont.....			1013	866	865	750	743	674	863
Virginia.....	1190	1062	989	832	747	545	448	385	755
Washington.....	1780	1544	1430	1288	1241	1280	1136	1104	1260
West Virginia.....		1415	1125	1021	1108	764	723	574	979
Wisconsin.....	2293	1371	1273	1167	1092	1085	1008	857	1087
Wyoming.....			1396	1484	1120	1100*	1035*	755	1375*

Cantilever Stores

Cut this out for reference

Akron-11 Orpheum Arcade
Albany-Hewitt's Silk Shop-15 N. Pearl St.
Altoona-Bendheim's, 1302-11th Ave.
Asbury Park-Best Shoe Co.
Atlanta-Carlton Shoe & Co. Co.
Auburn & Geneva, N. Y.-Dusenbury Co.
Austin-Carl H. Mueller
Baltimore-325 No. Charles St.
Battle Creek-Bahman's Bootery
Bay City-D. Bendall Co.
Birmingham-219 North 19th St.
Boston-Jordan Marsh Co.
Bridgeport-W. K. Mollan
Brooklyn-414 Fulton St.
Buffalo-630 Main St.
Butte-Hubert Shoe Co.
Cedar Rapids-The Killian Co.
Charleston-J. F. Condon & Sons
Charlotte-221 Piedmont Bldg.
Chicago-130 E. Randolph St. (Room 502)
Chicago-4750 Sheridan Rd. (Room 214)
Cincinnati-The McAlpin Co.
Cleveland-Graner-Powers, 1274 Euclid Av.
Columbia, S. C.-Watson Shoe Co.
Dallas-Leon Kahn Shoe Co.
Davenport-E. M. Neustadt & Sons
Dayton-The Rike-Kumler Co.
Denver-224 Foster Bldg.
Des Moines-W. L. White Shoe Co.
Detroit-T. J. Jackson, 41 E. Adams Ave.
Easton-H. Mayer, 427 Northampton St.
Elizabeth-Gig's, 1053 Elizabeth Ave.
Elmira-C. W. O'Shea
El Paso-Popular Dry Goods Co.
Erie-Wescher Co., 910 State St.
Evanston-North Shore Bootery
Fall River-D. F. Sullivan
Fitchburg-W. C. Goodwin, 342 Main St.
Fort Dodge-Schill & Habenicht
Galveston-Fellman's
Grand Rapids-Herpolshelmer Co.
Greenville, S. C.-Pollock's
Hagerstown-Blik's Shoe Shop
Harrisburg-Orner's, 24 No. 3rd St.
Hartford-86 Pratt St.
Houston-Clayton's, 803 Main St.
Huntington, W. Va.-McMahon-Diehl
Indianapolis-L. S. Ayers & Co.
Jackson, Mich.-Palmer Co.
Jacksonville-Gorden's Bootery
Jersey City-Benetti's, 411 Central Ave.
Kansas City, Kan.-Nelson Shoe Co.
Kansas City, Mo.-300 Altman Bldg.
Kingston-E. T. Stelle & Son
Knoxville-Spence Shoe Co.
Lancaster, Pa.-Frey's, 3 E. King St.
Lansing-F. N. Arbaugh Co.
Lawrence, Mass.-G. H. Woodman
Lexington, Ky.-Denton, Ross, Todd Co.
Lincoln-Mayer Bros. Co.
Little Rock-Poe Shoe Co., 302 Main St.
Los Angeles-505 New Pantages Bldg.
Louisville-Boston Shoe Co.
Lowell-The Bon Marche
Mason City-Woodruff Shoe Co.
McKeesport-Wm. F. Sullivan
Milwaukee-Brouwer Shoe Co.
Minneapolis-21 Eighth St. South
Mobile-Level Best Shoe Store
Montgomery-Campbell Shoe Co.
Morristown-G. W. Melick
Mt. Vernon, N. Y.-A. J. Rice & Co.
Nashville-J. A. Meadows & Sons
Newark-897 Broad St. (Opp. City Hall)
New Britain-Sloan Bros.
New Haven-153 Court St. (2nd floor)
New Orleans-109 Baronne St. (Room 200)
New Rochelle-Ware's
New York-22 West 39th St.
Norfolk-Ames Browley
Oakland-205 Henshaw Bldg.
Omaha-1708 Howard St.
Passaic-Kroll's, 37 Lexington Ave.
Pawtucket-Evans & Young
Peoria-Lehman Bldg. (Room 203)
Philadelphia-1300 Walnut St.
Pittsburgh-The Rosenbaum Co.
Pittsfield-Fahey's, 234 North St.
Plainfield-M. C. Van Arsdale
Portland, Me.-Palmer Shoe Co.
Poughkeepsie-Louis Schonberger
Providence-The Boston Store
Reading-Sig. S. Schweriner
Richmond, Va.-Seymour Sytle
Rochester-148 East Ave.
Rock Island-Boston Shoe Co.
Saginaw-Goeschel-Brater Co.
St. Louis-516 Arcade Bldg., Opp. P. O.
St. Paul-5th & Cedar Sts.
Salt Lake City-Walker Bros. Co.
San Antonio-Guarantee Shoe Co.
San Francisco-Phelan Bldg. (Arcade)
Savannah-Globe Shoe Co.
Schenectady-Patton & Hall
Seattle-Baxter & Baxter
Shreveport-Phelps Shoe Co.
Sioux City-The Pelletier Co.
South Bend-Ellsworth Store
Spokane-The Crescent
Springfield, Ill.-A. W. Klaholt
Springfield, Mass.-Forbes & Wallace
Stamford-L. Speike & Son
Syracuse-136 S. Salina St.
Tacoma-803 Fidelity Bldg.
Terre Haute-Otto C. Hornung
Toledo-LaSalle & Koch Co.
Trenton-H. M. Voorhees & Bro.
Tulsa-Lyons Shoe Store
Utica-Room 104, Foster Bldg.
Waco-Davis-Smith Bootery
Waltham-Rufus Warren & Sons
Washington-1319 F St.
Waterbury-Reid & Hughes Co.
Wheeling-Geo. R. Taylor Co.
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Worcester-J. C. MacInnes Co.
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near you write the manufacturers, Morse & Burt Co., 10 Carlton Ave., Brooklyn, N. Y., for the address of a nearby dealer and an interesting booklet about comfortable shoes. If you forget your dealer's address, phone "Tel-U-Where" in the larger cities and they will tell you where.

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Spencer Lens Co.

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Kewaunee Mfg. Co.
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Health Exercises
Health Builders.

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Minusa Cine Screen Co.

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Jackson Piano Co.
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Pictures
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Playground Apparatus
Hill-Standard Co.
Medart Mfg. Co., Fred.

Printers
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Projection Machines
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Property for Sale
Victor Animatograph Co.

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Columbia School Supply Co.
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Boston University.

Chicago Normal School of Physical Education.
Clark University.
Cornell University.
Emerson College of Oratory.
George Washington Univ.
Harvard Medical School.
Harvard University.
Lyceum Arts Conservatory.
Mass. Inst. of Technology.
National Kindergarten and Elementary College.
N. H. Normal School of Gym.
New York University.
Northwestern University.
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Lyceum Arts Conservatory.
Massachusetts Institute of Technology.
National Kindergarten and Elementary College.
New York University.
Northwestern University.
Pestalozzi-Froebel Teachers' College.
Research University.

School of Elementary and Home Education.
Simmons College.
Temple University.
University of Chicago.
University of Iowa.
University of Minnesota.
University of Vermont.
University of Virginia.

Teachers' Agencies
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Clark Teachers' Agency.
Fisk Teachers' Agency.
National Business Bourse.
National Teachers' Agency.
Specialists' Educational Bureau.
Western Teachers' Exchange.

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Teachers' Casualty Underwriters.

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C. B. & Q. Railroad.
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European Tours.
Grand Trunk Railway System.
International Mercantile Marine Co.
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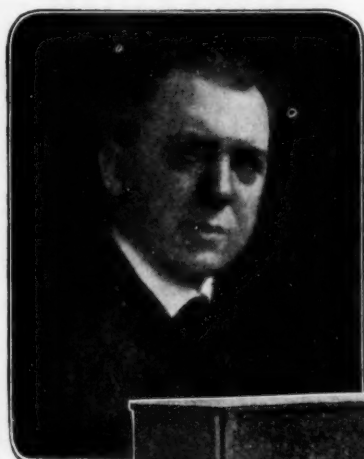
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July 10 to August 23, 1922

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Instruction in these courses will be given by members of the faculties of the College of Liberal Arts, the College of Business Administration, the School of Education, the School of Religious Education, and the College of Secretarial Science. Credit for the degree of A. M. in Boston University may be gained in certain of the following courses.

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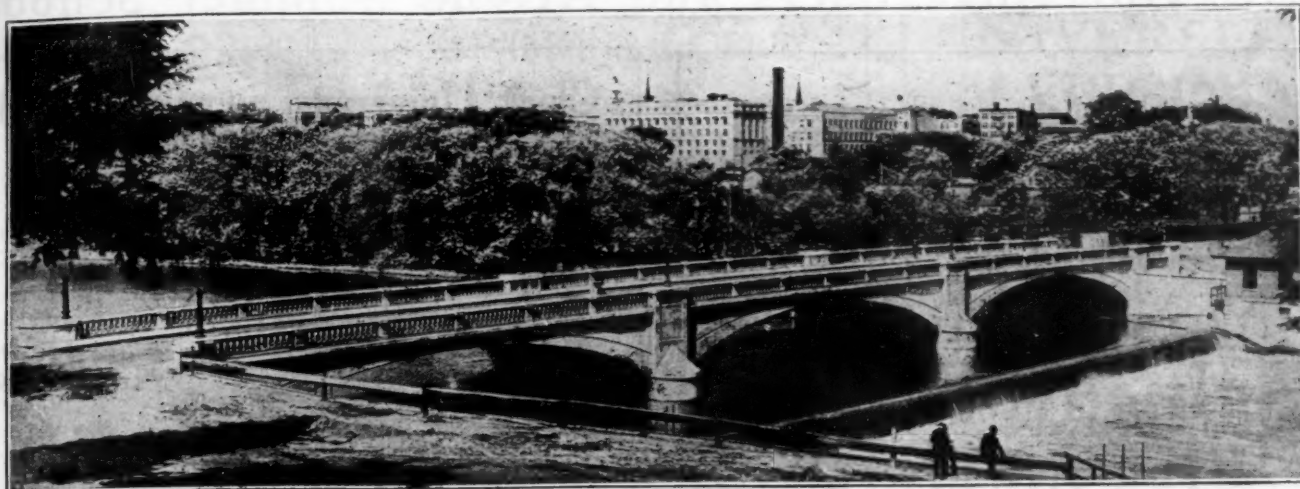
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Six, five, or eleven weeks: First term, June 12 to July 21; second term, July 24 to August 25.

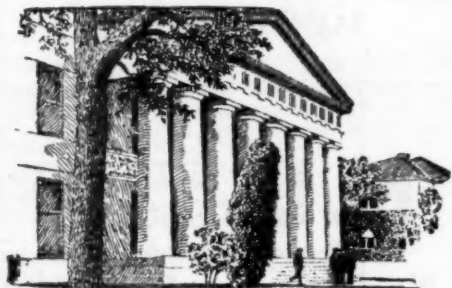
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UNIVERSITY REGISTRAR,
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1922

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Summer Quarter

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Second Term, July 31-September 2

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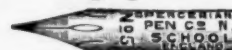
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