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During the last two decades a system of education has been developed which merits praise from educators in every land.

The teachers, practically all Filipinos, have been trained in Philippine normal schools and colleges.

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Edna L. Nash
to
7-7-1924

Our National Association

Its Battle for a Department of Education

THE supreme struggle of the war emphasized and intensified educational weaknesses, which were already evident in inadequate salaries and a tremendous shortage of trained teachers. The profession itself was the first to recognize the growing needs of education. The National Education Association responded in 1918 by appointing a commission to study all phases of the problem. The commission included members appointed by the Association itself and also by the Department of Superintendence. The Executive Committee on February 25, 1918, decided that the new agency should be called *The National Education Association Joint Commission on the Emergency in Education and the Program for Readjustment During and After the War*. Its members were drawn from all sections of the country and from every phase of educational work. The Commission rendered immediate service by coördinating war activities in the schools. It made a careful study of the educational situation throughout the Nation and found the following outstanding needs which called for legislative effort.

A NATION'S conscious concern over education measures its interest in its own future. Education looks forward. Wisely guided, it studies human needs as they are likely to be and teaches boys and girls how to live to meet those needs. What we wish to be as a Nation, we can be if we are willing to pay the price. We have tremendous material wealth and cannot afford not to pay the price of building men and women who can dominate that wealth and not be dominated by it. Our greatest natural resource, and the one upon which the development of all others depends, is the intelligence and morality of the masses of our people. Develop these through improved schools, and industrial and social progress are inevitable. It is in this faith that the National Education Association and its friends have sought a Federal Department of Education. This article is an account of the battle which now gives promise of early victory.

The need for arousing the people of the Nation to an appreciation of the seriousness of the situation. If education was to have the funds and public consideration necessary to enable it to keep pace with other phases of our life, it must have larger recognition from the Government itself. The Commission therefore, proposed to create a Federal Department of Education with a secretary in the President's Cabinet which would give education the prestige and public attention that go with the Cabinet position.

The war had drawn attention to the vast number of men who could not read and write. Of the men examined in the draft one in every four was unable to read a newspaper in English or write a letter home. Schools to teach reading and writing in camps throughout the country took the time of great numbers of men whose efforts might have been thrown immediately into the war.

The physical examinations of the draft had eliminated one out of every six as unfit for any type of military service. The wealthiest Nation in the world was obviously below par physically. The situation demanded immediate attention. The commission, therefore, proposed Federal aid to encourage the States in the development of programs of physical education.

Another menace revealed by the war was that of unassimilated foreign elements collected in great centers of population. There are communities in this country containing more Italians than Rome, and more Russians than Moscow. These men and women—potentially good citizens—have had little contact with American life and often have failed to appreciate the purposes and ideals of our American democratic institutions. The Association's commission recommended Federal aid to encourage the States to undertake programs of Americanization. Federal aid seemed particularly appropriate inasmuch as the States have no power to refuse immigrants admitted under the authority of the Federal Government.

During the war and immediately after, many schools were closed all or a part of the year for lack of teachers. In some localities it was not possible to obtain even untrained teachers. *The shortage of trained teachers was so appalling* that when the National Education Association collected the facts and presented them to the country, it stood aghast at a situation which had not before been appreciated in its National importance. The Nation had spent vast sums to train 3,000,000 men for service overseas, but had ignored the problem of training teachers to fight on the *frontier* of childhood. Four fifths of the teachers of the United States had had less than two years of training beyond the four-year high school and tens of thousands of them were not even eighth-grade graduates. Single agricultural colleges were receiving appropriations equal to those provided for ten or a dozen normal schools. The Association's commission, therefore, recommended Federal aid to encourage the States in the training of teachers.

The investigations of the Committee revealed another serious difficulty in our educational system. Many communities which are the poorest in material resources are the richest in children. The system of tax support for education has remained local and is based largely on real estate and other forms of tangible wealth. The ability to pay taxes has come to be represented by income rather than property. Wealth tends to concen-

trate in great centers of production, even though that wealth may be the result of the coöperation of large numbers of people spread over immense areas of territory. Such industries as tobacco, textiles, and automobiles draw their raw materials from far and wide and in the sale of products levy tribute wherever tobacco, clothing, and automobiles are used. Recognizing this centralization of tax-paying ability the Association's committee proposed to seek Federal aid for the equalization of educational opportunities.

Having determined the outstanding needs of education, the commission sought to frame legislation to meet those needs. It drafted a bill, which was presented to Congress in the fall of 1918. This bill was sent widely to educational workers and others throughout the country. After their wishes had been learned, it was revised and again presented to Congress as the Smith-Towner Education Bill.

So carefully had this preliminary work been done that the educational forces rallied to the support of the measure with practical unanimity. In spite of misrepresentations of the opposition, the educational group has stood by its great legislative program. Almost without exception educational workers have remained loyal and steadfast.

Hardly had the bill been presented to Congress when one organized group of citizens after another rallied to its support, until organizations reaching directly or indirectly over 20,000,000 voters had allied themselves back of the cause. One hears it frequently said in legislative circles that no measure ever before Congress has been supported by so great a mass of intelligent public sentiment. The Education Bill is more than the legislative program of the profession; it has come to be the program of the forward-looking people of the entire Nation.

When the new presidential administration came into office in 1921 the movement had already become a crusade. Into this situation came the measure known as the Welfare Bill (S1607 and H. R. 5837). The Association's representatives and other friends of the cause did not wish to oppose the administration's proposal to create a department of welfare, but were determined in their opposition to the submerging of education in such a department where it would be no better off than it is in the Department of the Interior. At the hearings on the Welfare Bill on May 18, 1921, there was such an avalanche of opposition to submerging education that effort to promote that Bill was stopped.

Meanwhile there had been created by special act of Congress a Commission on the Reorganization of the Executive Departments of the Government. Congressional leaders did not wish to consider other legislation affecting the Cabinet until the reorganization proposals had been formulated and passed upon. The Association respected this wish and did not press for action on its bill to create a Department of Education.

In February, 1922, the chairman of the Commission on Reorganization made a report as chairman which was to become the basis of consideration by the committee as a whole. This report proposed to create a Department of Education and Welfare in which about the only improvement over the former Welfare Bill was the insertion of the word "education" in the name.

This proposal for the Department of Education and Welfare was fully presented to the Department of Superintendence at Cleveland on February 28 by the United States Commissioner of Education, officially representing the Government. Following this proposal the Department of Superintendence adopted for the fifth time a resolution indorsing the Education Bill, providing for an independent Department of Education. This indicated that educational workers would not be misled by a mere change in name.

With the proposal for a Department of Education and Welfare still before the country, the National Education Association went on record at its Oakland meeting for the fifth time for an independent Department of Education with a secretary in the President's cabinet. Meanwhile, the rising tide of public sentiment in favor of the Education Bill had swept onward.

The Bill was re-introduced on December 17 in the Senate by Thomas Sterling, of South Dakota, and in the House by Daniel A. Reed, of New York.

Hearings were held earlier than had been expected, beginning January 22 before the Senate Committee on Education and Labor. Eight half-day sessions were held. The cause of public education was never more effectively presented. The report of those hearings constitutes an encyclopedia of information on the needs of the public schools.

On January 25 and 26 representatives of the Association and allied organizations testified before the joint Congressional Committee on Reorganization of the Executive Departments. It was made plain to this Committee that the friends of education do not wish it submerged in any department or subordinated to any other great National interest. The members of the committee were impressed by the testimony showing the needs of education and the great mass of public sentiment that exists for giving it primary recognition in the Federal Government.

The tentative proposal before the Reorganization Committee included a Department of Education and Welfare, with divisions devoted to education, health, veteran service, and social welfare. The idea of welfare is not generally favored. The American Legion prefers to have the Veteran's Bureau remain as an independent establishment. Health and education are separate establishments in cities and States as well as in foreign countries, and the same arguments apply for keeping them separate in our Federal Government. The representatives of education asked that it should not be submerged or associated with any activities which would divert the attention of the secretary of education from this primary interest. Attention was called to fact that the plan before the reorganization committee was presented at the Cleveland meeting of the Department of Superintendence and was before the country at the time of the Oakland meeting of the National Education Association. Yet both of these meetings went on record in favor of an independent Department of Education, showing that there is a clear mandate from the organized educational workers of the Nation against submerging education in any department.

It is now a common remark among members of Congress that regardless of the action that may be taken at this session with reference to Federal subventions, the creation of an independent Department of Education is a reasonable probability.

THE time has come for all teachers with professional vision to come together in support of the local, the State, and the National associations whose interests are mutual and reciprocal. Only in this way can the greatest good be secured for local groups and for the general cause of education as well as the highest professional interests.—H. H. Shephard, National Education Association State Director for Minnesota.

Washington: The Workshops of Democracy

PUBLIC buildings are to many people objects of primary interest. They are always significant features of a national capital. Our Government has millions of dollars invested in the buildings that house its multifarious activities. All visitors in Washington hasten to visit these workshops. The House and Senate Office buildings are constantly thronged with visitors getting special permits to go through the White House, the Bureau of Engraving and Printing, or the Mayflower, the President's yacht.

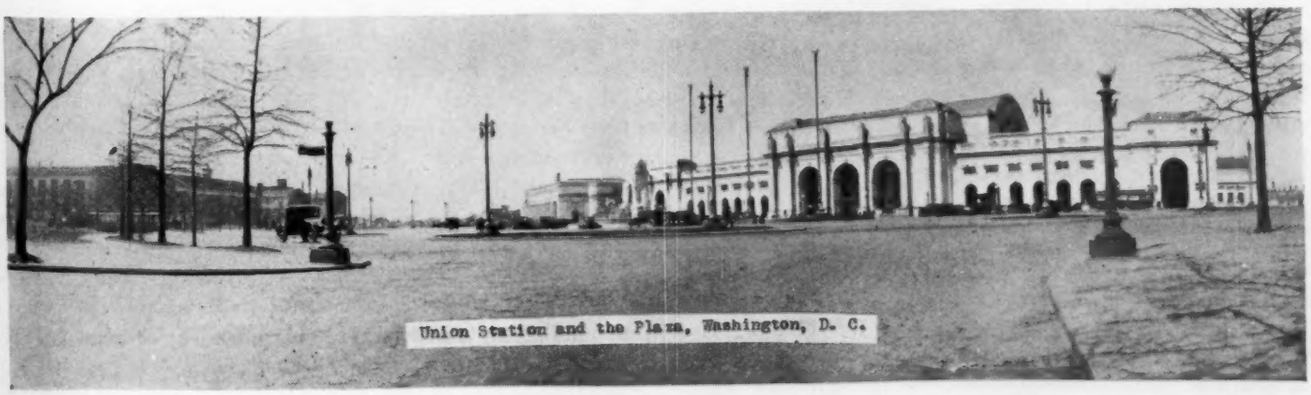
The Capitol, situated not far from Union Station, receives the lion's share of interest and calls for the superlative of every adjective applied to it. For example, it is known as the noblest building in America, the most impressive public building on earth, and the most perfectly proportioned building in the world. Its most characteristic feature is its iron dome surmounted by a statue of Liberty. Few buildings in Europe present as imposing a front as the rotunda portico, where the inaugural ceremonies are held. The rotunda, occupying the width of the central portion of the building, is a room of wonderful proportions, lined with oil paintings and statues. It was here that the body of the unknown soldier lay in state before interment in Arlington. The Senate Chamber, the Hall of Representatives, and the Supreme Court Chamber are the most visited rooms of the Capitol, whether Congress is in session or not. Statuary Hall and certain committee rooms also claim the sightseer's time.

The interest felt by every American in the home of the President is daily in evidence, for the crowds of people that meet the President constitute no small part of the official life of the chief executive. From the time visitors catch a

glimpse of its tall white columns through the shrubs and trees until they leave the well-kept grounds, they display that true American characteristic, curiosity. Only the great drawing room, known as the East Room and the executive offices, are open to the public without cards of admission. The Red Room, the Green Room, the Blue Room—named for the color of their furnishings—and the State Dining Room, where many a splendid dinner party has taken place, may be seen by special permission.

Next in popular interest is the magnificent Library of Congress. The other day in a corridor of the Library the face of a visitor attracted my attention. Complete satisfaction, alternating with a "What-would-they-say-at-home-if-they-saw-this?" expression, was clearly registered. It is not surprising that the out-of-town resident gasps with astonishment at the matchless beauty of this palace for books, for it is the most beautiful library in the world. Then, too, the number of its departments, the ground space they occupy, the orderly arrangement of its three million volumes, provoke the admiration of even the most thoughtless. Words fail to express the celestial whiteness of the marble staircases and columns, the pastel shades of the mosaics laid with cunning hand in the curved vaulting of the corridors, the artistically gilded ceilings of the different divisions, the symbolic paintings, and the apt quotations from masters of the English tongue. Time is well spent in examining the statues of the Central Stair Hall, the North and South Staircases, the Central Rotunda, the Division of Periodicals, and the Print Division.

To visit the Treasury and see the clerks counting sheets of specially made paper for which United States bonds and notes are made is an impressive sight. About a million dollars' worth of notes, brought over from the Bureau of Engraving and Printing each morning, are counted by three persons in succession, then are sent to the sealing room. A small fortune, some 32,000 notes, daily



Union Station and the Plaza, Washington, D. C.

passes through the hands of the average woman counter. The Cash Room and the Silver vaults are also of interest. One of the sights at the Treasury is the disposal of worn-out currency. It is quite a ceremony. Every week day, at one o'clock representatives of the Secretary of the Treasury, the Treasurer, the Comptroller of the Treasury, and an agent representing the people and the banks, place in huge steel receptacles called macerators a million dollars' worth, more or less, of condemned currency or securities. The lids are locked, water added, the machinery started, and in a short time the sharp knives reduce the notes to wet pulp. Every four or five days the Committee unlocks the valve and lets the accumulated pulp run out into screening receptacles. It is then rolled and dried into thin sheets and sold.

A branch of the Treasury Department, fully as popular as the Treasury itself, is the Bureau of Engraving and Printing where are printed the National currency, stamps of all kinds—postage, revenue, and custom, Government bonds, licenses, commissions, certificates, passports, and other documents of a military, naval, or diplomatic nature. Its exhibits are worth seeing—the Secret Service Department displays devices for counterfeiting; in the Redemption Room, torn and worn bills are examined and counted before sending them over to the Treasury to be put through the macerators; the exhibit of old-time fractional currency, shinplasters they used to be called, is in contrast to the exhibit of a $10,000 gold certificate, the largest issued. The plates from which currency is printed are guarded closely, but visitors may watch the notes being printed on motor or hand presses, four notes to a sheet. There is an elaborate system of receipting and checking in use; each day at closing time every count is verified by the custodians before the force is dismissed.

Another building devoted to printing is the Government Printing Office covering fifteen acres, the largest printing establishment in the world. Its mechanical equipment is unsurpassed. A hundred linotypes, a hundred monotypes, and one hundred twenty-five casting machines consume fifty million pounds of paper a year. It also has one hundred sixty printing presses in all sizes. Four million postal cards are turned out every day. Other presses turn out money-order blanks, census cards, and income-tax forms. Bindery and plate-making machinery and a photo-engraving plant add to the efficiency of the Government Print as it is commonly known. To a great extent the plant is self-sufficient; it makes its own printing inks, press rollers, glues, carbon paper, type, and type metal. It has its own carpenter, electrical, machine, and blacksmith shops, operates a laundry which launders a million towels a year for its employees, and has a cafeteria, an assembly hall, recreation rooms, and a roof garden.

A block or two from the Government Printing Office and next to Union Station is the District Postoffice, the site and building costing nearly three and one half million dollars. It is equipped with expensive and effective mail-handling apparatus. Over the east entrance is inscribed—

Carrier of News and Knowledge, Instrument of Trade and Industry, Promoter of Mutual Acquaintance, Of Peace and Good-Will among Men and Nations.

Over the west entrance one reads—

Messenger of Sympathy and Love, Servant of Parted Friends, Consoler of the Lonely, Bond of the Scattered Family, Enlarger of Common Life.

On the way "uptown" we pass the Pension Building, a large low brick building with an ornamental frieze running around the building—a procession of soldiers of the Civil War, horse, foot, and dragoons. More than a million pension cases are filed in this building. The lower floor, the largest in the city, has been the scene of many inaugural balls.

Crowded in between 7th and 9th Streets and F and G Streets is the Patent Office, a perfect example of classic architecture. It is a dark gray three-storied rectangular stone building, whose principal feature is four porticoes, the main one facing Eighth Street being reached by lofty steps and lined with double rows of Doric columns, patterned after those of the Parthenon. It was on this site that L'Enfant planned to build his American Notre Dame.

In contrast to the predominating classic style of architecture is the Post Office Department building on Pennsylvania Avenue with its three-hundred foot Norman tower and turrets. Here many of the postoffice auditors have offices where a vast number of records pertaining to the postoffice service are filed. In the interior court hangs what is said to be the largest American flag. A few blocks southeast of this building on the south side of the Mall is a plain classic structure that houses the Department of Agriculture that now has a personnel of 20,000 full and part-time workers scattered over the United States. The 3000 scientists in this Department carry on research investigation which forms the basis of its work for improving agriculture and for protecting the general public—consumers as well as producers.

The State, War, and Navy Building is considered the largest granite building in the world. The huge blocks that form this enormous structure weigh from ten to twenty tons apiece. The War Department has possession of the central and the north and west wings; the State Department occupies the south wing. Most visitors are so appalled at the two miles of marble halls and its five hundred office rooms that they only stop long enough to see the State Library on the third floor where in addition to 50,000 rare volumes, many historic heirlooms are preserved. These include the original draft of the Declaration of Independence in Jefferson's handwriting, with interlineations by Franklin and John Adams, Thomas Jefferson's desk, Washington's sword, Franklin's staff, and a wax replica of the Great Seal of the United States.

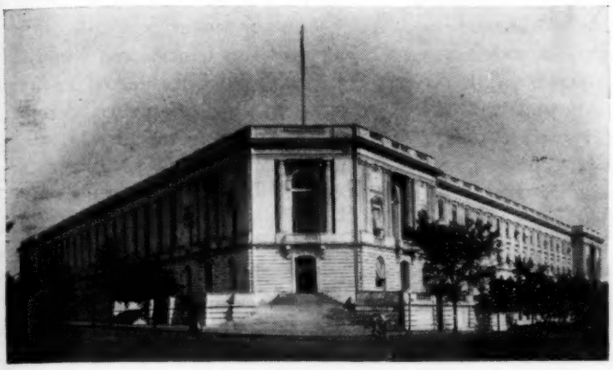
Only a few of the public buildings are mentioned in this article, but they are representative of the widespread interest of the public, of architectural perfection, of colossal expenditure, and of practical utility in conducting the Nation's business. Another generation will see many of the temporary war buildings replaced by substantial ones. President Coolidge, in his last message to Congress, advocated the erection of three or four buildings most urgently needed by an annual appropriation of $5,000,000. Both political parties now favor an omnibus building bill covering the erection of new public buildings.

WHAT a great day it will be when we have a Federal Department of Education with sufficient appropriation to study costs and results scientifically and to broadcast the findings to the men in the field. This will cost some money but will result in a saving of much more money. When this day comes it will eliminate for school leaders and communities a great deal of groping, will enable them to launch into new projects with a feeling of greater certainty and will make a real comparison of school costs and results possible.—Herbert B. Bruner, superintendent of schools, Okmulgee, Oklahoma.

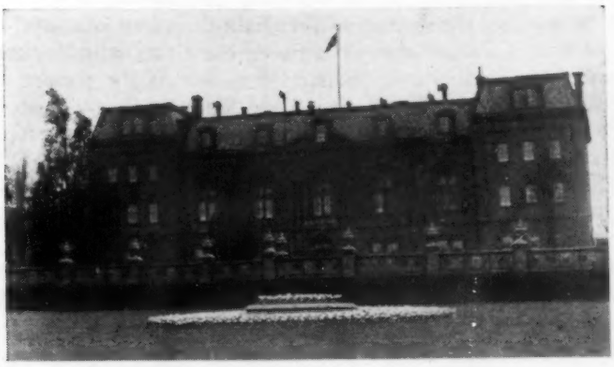
Workshops of Democracy

Bureau of Engraving

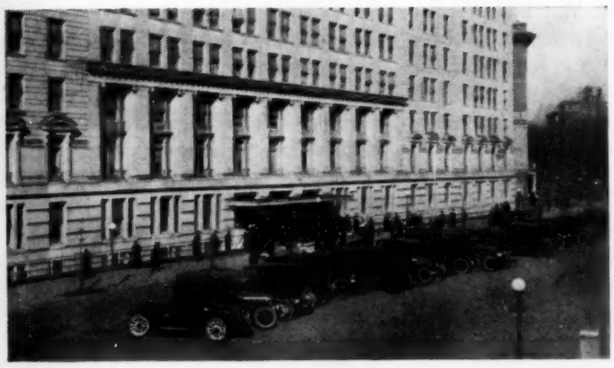
Department of the Interior



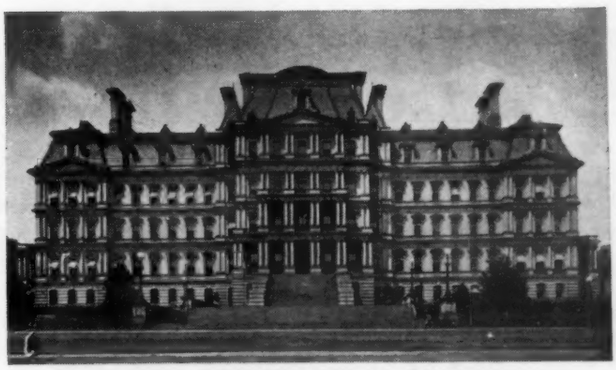
House Office Building



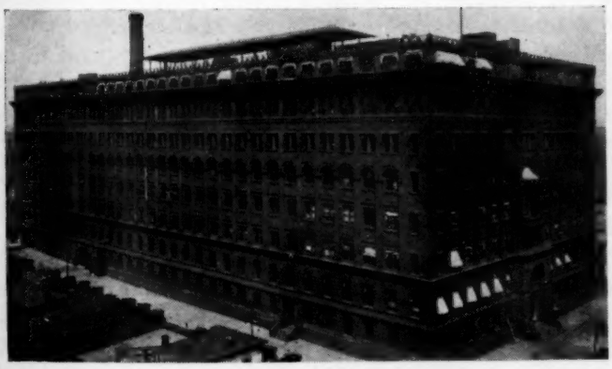
Department of Agriculture



Veterans' Bureau



State, War, and Navy Building



Government Printing Office

District Postoffice Building

The Future of Radio Education

MARTIN P. RICE

Director of Broadcasting of the General Electric Company
Schenectady, New York

IT IS a common practice in the education of children to begin by teaching them games in which they are conscious only of finding entertainment. These simple amusements, however, are the beginnings of a cultural process through which the little ones gradually develop a capacity for learning and a just appreciation of the finest things in life. Though the love of entertainment may never leave them, in time it becomes only a minor influence in the ripening of judgment and the shaping of personality.

There is a close analogy between the intent and possibilities of radio broadcasting and the educational methods that lead from the action-songs of the kindergarten on and up to academic laurels. The first broadcastings were frankly an appeal to the general liking for music and amusement. This was necessarily and happily so, because the public was as a child in respect to the tremendous import of radio. It had to be won to the new art through the obvious attraction of song and instrument.

However, in the minds of many listeners, and almost subconsciously, the receiving set began to stand for something more than unmixed entertainment. Radio was, so to speak, establishing a definite current of mental suggestion that had nothing to do with music—a suggestion of wonder at the mystery of it, of respect for the unanswerable finality of its speech, and of curious interest in its further possibilities as affecting the listener. The public was finding in its play a vague something that was not play—but was even more seductive.

By degrees, a voice of instruction was superimposed on this current of mental suggestion. Simple talks were given on interesting subjects, addresses were made by men and women of prominence, and, alternating with these, came authoritative advice on matters of health and home comfort. The sphere of radio influence was extending to include some proportion of acceptable teaching. True, radio programs were still, in large part, made up of music; it is probable that music will always predominate in popular broadcasting, and in the measure that it is *good* music well rendered, it will continue to be a valuable element in personal culture.

Nevertheless, listeners are now becoming consciously receptive to undisguised instruction and are learning to look to radio for sources of helpful knowledge. This stage is comparable to the gratification of a child who finds himself able to read a simple sentence without reference to the charming pictures that had previously marked the limit of his appreciation.

Thus, in its early years, radio broadcasting is winning not only recognition as an educator but also a welcome for the valuable lessons that it can teach. At the present time, stations of importance are featuring informative talks, addresses on topics of the day, and, in the case of WGY at least, popular discussions of engineering and scientific accomplishment—and the public is learning to think of radio in terms of education as well as of amusement.

This popular acceptance points to a future development of broadcast instruction, that is practically without limit. It is necessary only to select suitable courses of study and to adapt the methods of presentation. The classes are now automatically being formed; there have been lacking only the tutor and the professor; radio broadcasting is qualified and nearly ready to take up these duties.

Obviously, the first step will be the establishment of "radio night schools." Many young men and women (and older folk as well), who are not within reach of public evening classes or who are prevented by any of a hundred causes from leaving home, will welcome an opportunity for study that is brought to their very rooms. It is perfectly feasible to devise courses in arithmetic and algebra, in geography, composition, and history, that will not only be adapted to radio instruction, but will also enable the pupil to "study his lessons" and check up his accuracy and progress.

In a word, it is possible and probable that radio broadcasting will become a great free common school in the not distant future—a common school with classes numbering thousands; following the best methods and employing the most competent instructors; attended by older pupils who will feel no embarrassment by reason of advanced years, and by younger who will be in no danger of chafing at rules and restrictions. In addition to the usual grade and high-school courses, special instruction can be arranged for boys who are being trained in specific trades and for men who are engaged in them, so as to improve their vocational ability and increase their general information.

Every radio school can be expanded into a university center. Lecture courses can be planned in the fine arts, biology, literature, and the physical sciences. "Guest" professors—great specialists and savants—will be glad to appear on this platform and deliver their messages in a hall that has no limiting walls; statesmen will expound their theories of polity, and famous writers and artists will grace the curriculum with the fine touch of their vision.

Nor will this educational function interfere with the established enjoyment of radio as entertainment. From one station and at one time a concert program and a lesson in grammar can be broadcast. It will be quite in order for the radio pupil who has sat faithfully through the instruction hour, to lay aside his note-book and adjust his receiving set to the melodies of a great opera or the lilt of a dance program. In the cause of education, broadcasting stations will mutually time their programs so that no listener need lose aught of instruction or entertainment.

The common school of radio will educate pupils in places where no school building can be erected and no staff of teachers assembled. In outlying farms, logging camps, mining districts, and in stretches of wilderness there are minds hungry for instruction and souls thirsting for inspiration. Among these distant dwellers, radio broadcasting will gather its classes and supply the needs that were else out of reach.

Educational broadcasting does not necessarily imply a remoulding of our accepted instructional organization, but rather a special adaptation to the new opportunity. Modern education is a tree of many branchings, and it may well be that such special methods as are required by the common school of radio can be grafted on the older stem and—nourished by its vitality—give wider expression to its essential function.

On the other hand, we must not ignore the possibility of an independent development on the part of broadcasting interests—a development brought about by the unique machinery of communication, the isolated situation of many of the pupils, and other contributing causes.

The methods of educational broadcasting, as finally crystallized, will, of course, depend on the mutual understanding reached by the existing educational organization and broadcasting directorates. In any event, the project promises a "new school" of pedagogy, but one that may profitably utilize the experience and efficiency of the old.

In general, popular broadcasting must not be divided by a hard and fast line, on one side of which is entertainment and on the other, instruction. While such forms of education as have been here suggested will necessarily be confined to unmixed teaching, there is no good reason why the usual offering should not be useful as well as entertaining. The broadcaster who views his privilege seriously will spare no pains to effect a just balance of profit and pleasure in the planning of each program. The result will more than repay his effort.

Radio broadcasting began as an amusement and has already developed into forms of fine entertainment and simple instruction. Its finer fruition will be in the enlightenment, the personal culture, and the fullness of knowledge which are the avowed purposes of education.

The Newspaper and the Schools

FRED CHARLES

Editorial Department, Cleveland Plain Dealer
Cleveland, Ohio

FIFTEEN years ago when I began newspaper work in a Michigan city, it was the custom of the board of education to hold its meetings the first and third Monday evenings each month. As the youngest and least experienced reporter on the paper, it was usually my assignment to attend these meetings, not with the expectation that any printable news would ever result from them, but because the editor of the paper believed the experience would help along my training.

Beyond the awarding of contracts for repairs to school buildings, there was never anything in these board meetings that the paper thought printable as news.

Of course, many board of education meetings do not develop news, accepting as a definition of news, "interesting information." However, this casual "covering" of the board was the only attention which the paper paid to education.

Conditions in other cities fifteen years ago were not, I think, unlike those in this Michigan city. The schools simply were not "covered," not only because the papers saw no news in anything so commonplace as going to school but also because the school people never went to the trouble of pointing out to the newspaper folk that there really was news in the classroom.

Today there is no city of any consequence, so far as my knowledge goes, in which school affairs are not recognized as news possibilities by the newspapers. School headquarters is today the part of some reporter's regular "beat," just as much as the police station and the city hall. Indeed, the newspaper which I represent today employs two reporters, practically all of whose duties are to collect school news—a young man being assigned to "cover" school headquarters and the other, a young woman, having a kind of roving commission looking for interesting news "stories" in the school buildings themselves.

News values change from year to year, even from season to season. You can remember when a hanging or an electrocution at the State penitentiary was printed in harrowing detail in your newspaper. At the time a hanging was thought to be "news" worth the telling down to the last convulsive twitching of the condemned man's left ear.

Similarly, train wrecks and fires were once considered news and good news. Divorce cases likewise arrested attention. The automobile made news, and each fresh motor car accident commanded newspaper space.

Automobile accidents have lost the power to interest. Fires and train wrecks, unless they involve large loss of life, also have ceased to be news. Divorce cases, unless they develop elements of spectacular human interest, are "played down" or ignored on the grounds of good taste, and executions are chronicled only in brief or handled from an entirely different perspective.

As some of these other activities have receded into the background of the news of the day, the public school has come forward.

Newspapers have altered a little in character in twenty-five years. Now, in addition to the "spot" news (the train wreck or the fire or the murder which must be covered when it "breaks"), newspapers have developed as a sideline another sort of news, expressed in the human interest or the feature story, the primary purpose of which is to entertain. Naturally, however, people often learn most from the things they read purely for entertainment, and not for information at all. They learn unconsciously and without effort, and things taken into the mind in this way often remain there a long time.

Every reporter today is trained to see the news possibilities in the public schools, usually in his "cub" days. He is taught to see the "page one" possibilities in the intricacies of school financing and the rows of the board of education in open meeting, and he is trained also to see the human interest or feature possibilities in a class that buys a hen and manages her as a school "project," as one elementary class in Cleveland did recently.

But while the newspaper man is coming to get the school into the range of his vision, there has been no corresponding development of the school man's interest in the press, so far as I can discover.

Although the teacher is a public servant, requiring the sympathy and support, morally and financially, of the public for his success, there is not a single teachers' college or normal school in the country, I believe, in which relation of school to press—the greatest of all mediums in reaching the sympathies and interests of the public—is considered even worthy of passing comment. An exception may be noted in the case of the Cleveland School of Education (training school for teachers) which offers two courses in journalism, one involving direct coöperation with the daily press.

I do not know of any way in which education can be financed without the taxpayer paying the bill, yet there is little disposition on the part of the school man to help the taxpayer find out what it is all about. With a few exceptions—notably among the headquarters staff in Cleveland—the educator regards the newspaper man as a necessary evil today as much as he did fifteen years ago.

The school man is frankly suspicious of the reporters, fearful that his policies and methods may be misunderstood or misrepresented in the newspaper. In

The Journalist's Creed

Dean Walter Williams

Honorary President of Sigma Delta Chi, National Honorary Journalistic Fraternity

I BELIEVE in the profession of journalism.

I BELIEVE that the public journal is a public trust; that all connected with it are, to the full measure of their responsibility, trustees for the public; the acceptance of lesser service than the public service is betrayal of this trust.

I BELIEVE that clear thinking and clear statement, accuracy and fairness, are fundamental to good journalism.

I BELIEVE that a journalist should write only what he holds in his heart to be true.

I BELIEVE that suppression of the news, for any consideration other than the welfare of society, is indefensible.

I BELIEVE that no one should write as a journalist what he would not say as a gentleman; that bribery by one's own pocketbook is as much to be avoided as bribery by the pocketbook of another; that individual responsibility may not be escaped by pleading another's instructions or another's dividends.

I BELIEVE that advertising, news, and editorial columns should alike serve the best interest of readers; that a single standard of helpful truth and cleanness should prevail for all; that the supreme test of good journalism is the measure of its public service.

I BELIEVE that the journalism which succeeds best—and best deserves success—fears God and honors man; is stoutly independent, unmoved by pride or opinion or greed of power, constructive, tolerant but never careless, self-controlled, patient, always respectful of its readers but always unafraid; is quickly indignant at injustice; is unswayed by the appeal of privilege or the clamor of the mob; seeks to give every man a chance and, as far as law and honest wage and recognition of human brotherhood can make it so, an equal chance; is profoundly patriotic while sincerely promoting international goodwill and cementing world-comradeship; is a journalism of humanity, of and for today's world.—The Quill.

the "local room" or reportorial department of the newspaper by which I am employed, there are not half a dozen men and women who are not graduates of first-rate colleges, some hold masters' degrees, and there is a fair sprinkling of Phi Beta Kappa keys. All of them, I feel convinced, are quite as well educated as the professional educators who view their approach with alarm. And I think their desire for the public welfare and the improvement of society is at least as keen as that of the ordinary teacher.

This suspicion of the teacher toward the newspaper worker is the greatest obstacle to effective school publicity. For effective school publicity does not consist of an occasional frenzied splurge or campaign to get a bond issue "put over," but a day-by-day presentation of the schools as they really are.

The American people believe in, and will support to the limit, their public schools. But their support is predicated upon their understanding. They will vote your bond issues and your tax levies when they are convinced that the welfare of their children is at stake. They will not forever vote money for gingerbread ornaments on schoolhouses, or for purposes which they cannot understand.

The average voter today left school twenty years ago. When he thinks of school—unless you and the newspapers help him to create a different picture—he thinks of the "three R's." He does not know much about manual training, domestic science, dental clinics, medical inspection, intelligence tests, overage classes, high I. Q. classes, or musical appreciation. Unless his newspaper informs him otherwise, he may lump all such works together as non-essential "fads and frills."

I think it the duty of the educator to lay all his cards on the table. I think it his duty to see that the newspaper men have access to the news of the schools, and he has a duty, too, to help educate the newspaper man to the progress, aims, and tendencies of public-school education.

No self-respecting newspaper man will play anybody's "game," so that educational news must not be given for the aggrandizement of the superintendent or his assistants. It will be sought and must be given that the newspaper may paint a true picture of the schools.

If your work is worthwhile, and if the reporter believes it is worthwhile as a result of his own investigation and not of the educator's propaganda, you can depend upon his "stories" to reflect that conviction. But he must see education in terms primarily of child welfare.

IT is natural that those who are closely interested in the administration of schools should attempt to justify any increased expense on the basis of comparisons. The figures of increased cost of schools cannot stand without relation to the growth of the enterprise itself. It has been a source of National shame that for many years thousands of persons have held positions at the desks as teachers, many of whom have had only the most elementary education, with an even greater number absolutely without training. These teachers have received wages that were acknowledged to be low even for the slight requirements that were made. A growing consciousness that this injustice, bad as it was for the teachers, was far worse in its effect upon children, has recently brought greatly increased compensation for teachers, with the immediately favorable reaction that multitudes of young teachers and prospective teachers are turning towards the normal schools, summer schools, and other teacher-training opportunities. It is probable that the next decade will witness a general teacher improvement unprecedented in the history of American education.—Payson Smith, in *Trained Men*.

The Department of State

CHARLES EVANS HUGHES

Secretary of State, Washington, D. C.

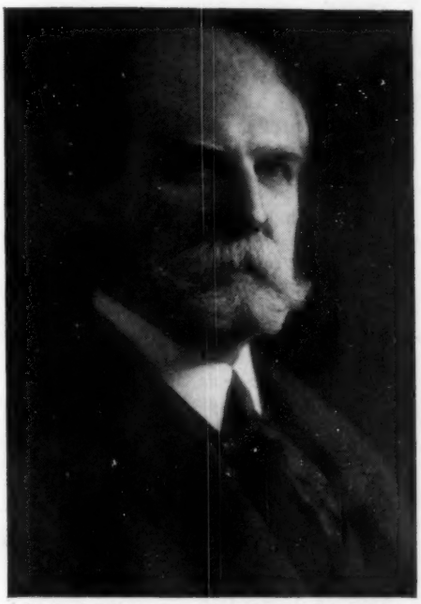
THE TITLES of other Executive Departments give some clue to their activities, but the Department of State—the senior Executive Department—has remained to many people shrouded in mystery. This article describes briefly what the Department of State is and what it does, with special reference to the diplomatic and consular services.

The adoption of the Constitution in 1787 conferred upon the President the conduct of our foreign intercourse and made him the channel of communication between the United States and foreign nations. The Act of July 27, 1789, provided for a department for foreign affairs to be completely separated from the conduct of domestic affairs. On September 15 of that year another Act was passed, the first section of which provides that the "Executive department, denominated the Department of Foreign Affairs, shall hereafter be denominated the Department of State, and the principal officer shall hereafter be called the Secretary of State." By the provisions of this Act various domestic duties were imposed upon the Department, a number of which have since passed out of its jurisdiction. For instance, it originally had charge of the Patent Office, superintended the taking of the census, supervised territorial affairs, and had the management of the Mint.

Certain domestic functions, however, have remained within the Department. It publishes and has the custody of the laws of the United States; the Secretary of State is the medium of correspondence between the President and the chief executives of the several States of the Union; the Secretary promulgates the President's proclamations and orders, and the treaties of the United States; he has the custody of the Great Seal, and countersigns and affixes the seal to all executive proclamations, to various commissions, and to warrants for the extradition of fugitives from justice.

But it is in the practical management of our foreign relations that the Department of State performs the functions most commonly associated with it. The vast expansion of these relations in recent years has caused the Department to develop. In 1790, the personnel of the Department of State consisted of the Secretary, five clerks, an interpreter, and two messengers; in 1923, it has a home office personnel of 603 and a foreign service of 3447.

Organization of the Department—The Department is divided into various divisions and bureaus. There are six so-called politico-geographical divisions, which deal with all the official correspondence of the Department relating to the countries falling within their respective groups.



CHARLES EVANS HUGHES, Secretary of State since March 5, 1921, was born at Glen Falls, New York, April 11, 1862. Since his admission to the bar in 1884, he has attained great prominence as Governor of New York State and as Associate Justice in the United States Supreme Court. The Conference on the Limitation of Armaments was under Mr. Hughes' able chairmanship.

The Far Eastern Division deals with questions affecting China and Japan; the Latin-American Division, the South and Central American countries; and the Western European, Near Eastern, Mexican, and Eastern European Divisions, the affairs of the countries within these geographical areas. To each Division are assigned diplomatic and consular officers who have had practical experience in the field, as well as various political and economic specialists.

The Director of the Consular Service supervisers the administration of the entire Consular Service, with its 410 offices and personnel of over 2800. The Solicitor, with his staff of eighteen Assistant Solicitors and five law clerks, handles questions of a legal nature arising from the relations of the United States with foreign countries. Treaties and conventions are framed in his office. Claims of American citizens against foreign governments as well as claims of aliens against this Government are dealt with here, and also questions regarding the acquisition, inheritance, and transfer of property in foreign countries and questions concerning expatriation and extradition.

The Economic Advisor makes recommendations to the Secretary on questions of international trade, such as loans to foreign governments, tariffs, commercial treaties, and oil resources. In the Division of Passport Control, passport applications are received and adjudicated. As many as 1000 passports a day are issued in the tourist season; 123,844 were issued during the year 1923. The Visa Office passes upon the granting of visas to aliens desiring to come to the United States and decides on the wisdom of their admission.

The recording and filing of all incoming and outgoing correspondence is handled in the Index Bureau, by a trained force of seventy persons. The history of any particuar case is accessible at any time.

In addition to the offices mentioned there are the Division of Publications, the Division of Political and Economic Information, the Division of Current Information, and various other bureaus, whose functions are chiefly administrative.

The distribution of information—The bulk of information gathered by the Department's agents abroad and compiled within the Department is distributed to other Government agencies and to the general public. Trade reports from consular officers and opportunities for the expansion of American trade and

commerce abroad are sent the Department of Commerce for publication or utilization. Over 2000 such reports are transmitted every month.

All information received on financial matters goes to the Treasury, to which department reports regarding health conditions and the outbreak of contagious diseases abroad are also sent, where they are utilized by the Public Health Service in preventing the introduction of diseases into the United States.

The Post Office Department is furnished with reports regarding the misuse of mails and the sending of fraudulent mail matter from foreign countries into the United States calculated to deceive and defraud our people. Reports are also furnished regarding the mail and parcel-post services of other countries.

To the Department of Agriculture go statistical reports on agricultural production abroad, crop reports, and information regarding plant and animal diseases. These reports are made available to the farmer through the publications of that Department.

The Department of State coöperates with the Department of Justice and with State and Federal authorities in arranging for the extradition of criminals who have escaped from this country. Depositions are taken by the Department's officers abroad and judicial commissions executed for use in the courts of this country.

The Department of State and the Department of Labor are in close touch because of the system of visa control, operated by our consuls abroad, which governs the admission of prospective immigrants to the United States. The statistical reports received regarding prices, wages, and the cost of living throughout the world are of direct value to the labor interests of this country.

Constant association exists with the War and Navy Departments; there is a continual exchange of confidential information regarding political conditions abroad. The Navy sends its vessels to foreign ports on visits of courtesy, and, if occasion requires, is ready to coöperate with officers of the State Department for the purpose of protecting American interests.

Daily press conferences are held by the Secretary and Under Secretary, at which the representatives of the press receive all the information concerning the foreign policy of the United States and events abroad that can properly be given. This coöperation between the State Department and the press is of direct benefit to the public.

The total cost of the Foreign Service, including the Department of State and the Diplomatic and Consular Services, was, for 1923, only eight and one half million dollars. Fees collected by the Foreign Service and the Department approximated eight million dollars, making the net operating cost to the Government of the Foreign Service Establishment less than one half million dollars.

The foreign service—The Field Service is composed of the Diplomatic and Consular Services. They exist for the purpose of maintaining friendly and helpful relations between the United States and foreign countries; they protect American citizens and further their just interests abroad; and they report to the Government and to the people of the United States information bearing upon all subjects of political and commercial interest.

THE only profession in the world that an American-born person cannot escape from entering is that of being an American citizen.

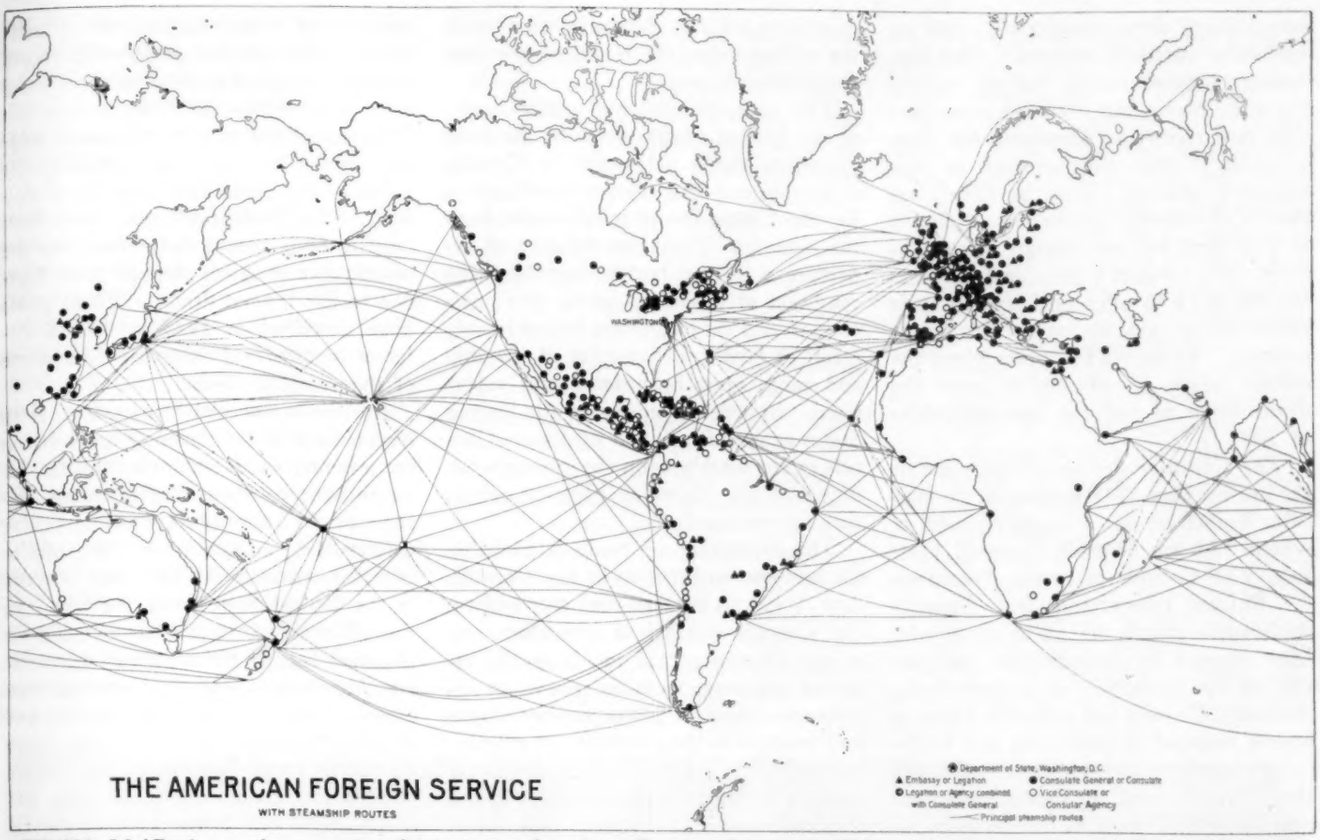
One may or may not enter the profession of parenthood. One may or may not become a lawyer, a doctor, a minister, or a teacher. But one may not escape from being called to serve in the great profession of citizenship. Only death before maturity can prevent the entrance of the boy or girl into that supreme profession.

When we reflect on this fact it is the vital relation between citizenship in the schools and citizenship in the State and Nation that is made plain. Whatever other vocation the school may prepare for, its primal function is to teach children to attain such an attitude of mind and such a way of life as will make possible just and righteous and beautiful governmental activities.—From a radio talk by Mrs. Mary C. C. Bradford, from WRC, Washington, D. C., January 14, 1924.

These services do not overlap; their duties are carefully coördinated. The functions of the diplomatic representative are primarily political; he has direct access to the central authorities of the foreign government; he is in a real sense the *representative* of the Government and people of the United States. By international practice his person is inviolable, and he is exempt from local jurisdiction. The functions of the consul, on the other hand, are primarily of a business and administrative character; he is in direct contact with the local authorities of his district; he is the immediate friend of American citizens in distress and the practical promoter of American trade. In cases involving the protection of his fellow countrymen he acts in the nature of a court of first instance. If he cannot obtain relief for his injured fellow citizen from the local authorities, he refers the matter to the diplomatic representative who, if such action seems appropriate, brings it to the attention of the National Government.

The Diplomatic Service—The principal diplomatic representatives of the United States abroad are known as ambassadors and ministers. They are accredited by the President to the heads of foreign states. We have ambassadors in Argentina, Belgium, Brazil, Chile, Cuba, France, Germany, Great Britain, Italy, Japan, Peru, and Spain; and ministers in thirty-six countries. Altogether the United States maintains diplomatic representatives in fifty-one countries. In addition, our Diplomatic Service is composed of subordinate officers who form what is known as the career service. They are entitled Counselors and Secretaries of Embassy or Legation. Appointment to the secretarial grades of the Diplomatic Service is made after examination, and promotion is strictly on a merit basis. In the absence of the Chief of Mission, Counselors and Secretaries act *ex officio* as Chargé d'Affaires ad interim, that is, they assume temporarily the actual charge of the Diplomatic Mission. There are at present in our Diplomatic Service fourteen counselors and 107 secretaries. In addition to these, officers of the Departments of War, Navy, and Commerce are assigned to diplomatic posts as military, naval, and commercial attachés, and they coöperate in the work of the mission, reporting to their respective Departments on matters of special interest thereto.

The chief function of our diplomatic representatives is to cultivate and maintain friendly relations between the United States and the countries in which they reside and to adjust any differences which may arise. They are the official channel of communication between our Government and the governments to which they are accredited. The great influence exerted upon international relations of recent years by questions of an economic and commercial character, arising out of the expansion of trade and competition between States for control of sources of raw materials and markets for manufactured goods has broadened the field of diplomacy to include the larger aspects of these politico-economic



THIS MAP shows the extensive field of the American Foreign Service. The map was compiled by Colonel Lawrence Martin, Washington, D. C. for Poole's Conduct of Foreign Relations, Institute of Politics Publications, Yale Press, New Haven, Connecticut.

problems. Our diplomatic agents must keep the broad avenues of commercial opportunity open to our citizens and maintain a careful watch to prevent discrimination.

A diplomatic officer is expected to keep this Government promptly and accurately informed of all political events transpiring in the country to which he is accredited, of its policy and views, and of its public opinion. He must be in close touch with every phase of the political situation and know and understand the intricacies of the politics of the country of his sojourn as they may bear upon the questions at issue between it and the United States. He transmits to the Department of State timely and full reports relating, among other things, to the government, finances, commerce, arts, sciences, agriculture, mining, tariff, taxation, population, laws, and judicial statistics of the country where he resides.

Assistance is given by our diplomatic agents to representatives of reputable American concerns abroad in obtaining for them, without advocating the projects of any one firm to the exclusion of another, the same opportunities and facilities for submitting proposals, tendering bids, and obtaining contracts as might be enjoyed by business houses of any other foreign country. The action taken by diplomatic agents in presenting to the Foreign Office the legitimate claims of American citizens against the Government of a foreign country frequently results in a prompt and satisfactory settlement which otherwise might mean indefinite delay and financial loss.

Protection and aid to American business interests are also furnished in various ways by our Diplomatic Missions, such as obtaining the reconsideration of exorbitant tax assessments upon American citizens and companies, the reduction or dismissal of fines unjustly imposed upon American exporters for alleged violations of customs regulations, and the adjustment of import duties on American goods, so that these may be profitably introduced into foreign countries.

Among their frequent duties diplomatic officers are called upon to negotiate treaties and other international agreements, to grant emergency passports, and to perform services in connection with the extradition of fugitives from justice. During war our diplomatic officers may be instructed to safeguard and watch over the interests of citizens of one belligerent within the domain of another. While the United States remained a neutral during the World War heavy duties of this nature were imposed upon American diplomatic officers accredited to belligerent powers.

In order to be of the greatest service a diplomatic representative must not only be on terms of friendly intercourse with government officials but should also be acquainted with the leading public men of the country where he resides. He should be in a position to learn their opinions and to have opportunities to explain to them the views and policies of our country. Social duties are thus a necessary part of the diplomat's work. The superficial criticism, sometimes directed against the Diplomatic Service because of its activities in this field, fails to take into account their true nature and value. Large business houses which send representatives abroad to do business provide them with an expense account for the purpose of "representing" their concerns. Such "representing" is done by getting in touch with people,

entertaining them occasionally, and establishing personal contacts. Our diplomatic representatives follow exactly the same course, but with this exception: that they receive no allowance for "representing" their Government in this necessary manner. We, the richest nation in the world, are the least generous in providing for our foreign representatives. We demand a great deal of them; we are quick to offer criticisms of their shortcomings, yet we pay them almost nothing. There are few posts where the official salary is sufficient to meet the duties involved and the bare necessities of life.

The Consular Service—There are at the present time 2818 persons in the consular branch of our Foreign Service, of whom 534 are Consuls General, Consuls, Vice Consuls of career, Interpreters, Student Interpreters, and Consular Assistants—that is, officers of career who have entered by examination and are eligible for promotion on a merit basis. Although Consuls are primarily business agents, engaged in protecting and furthering American commerce abroad, yet their duties cover an almost unlimited number of subjects. At certain posts remote from our Diplomatic Missions and where political events are of unusual interest they report fully to the Department regarding these matters. Reference to the chart on page 87 will give some idea of the nature and extent of the Consul's multifarious duties.

In 1923 the Consular Service handled 75,309 cases involving the protection and welfare of American citizens abroad.

Before protection can be extended, however, the right of the claimant to receive it must be established. In order to gain the immediate assistance of this Government, American citizens abroad are called upon annually to register at American consulates and to prove their right to protection. Consuls also have many duties in regard to the issuance and verification of passports. Last year consular officers registered 6530 American citizens and performed 90,586 passport services.

Consuls are obliged to visa the passport of every immigrant bound for the United States and they must sift from the thousands of prospective immigrants the undesirables. In 1923 our Consuls visaed the passports of 408,671 aliens bound for the United States.

The correctness of the invoiced value of all merchandise exported to the United States must be certified by consular officers; 806,817 such invoices were certified by Consuls in 1923, involving inquiry into the cost of production abroad, the selling price, the terms of sale and many other factors.

The protection of the public health of the United States is one of the most important duties performed by Consuls at foreign seaports. Every vessel sailing for the United States must obtain from the American Consul at the port of departure a bill of health describing the condition of the port, vessel, crew, passengers, and cargo. Often before issuing a bill of health, disinfection of the ship and cargo must be ordered and supervised. In order to safeguard the United States against the spread of disease Consuls report weekly upon the sanitary condition of the places or ports at which they are stationed.

The promotion of trade is probably the best-known function of our Consuls. Any American business man may address our Consuls directly at any place and at any time in regard to his special interests and may expect to receive an appropriate reply. These replies cover such matters as the possibility of marketing various products abroad, the requirements and demands of consumers in the respective consular districts, and information regarding local trade attributes and peculiarities, especially as they relate to sales and payments and best methods of reaching the markets.

In 1923 the Consular Service received 904,601 letters and sent 1,007,438. The vast majority of these dealt with practical details of a business nature.

It may be of interest to sketch briefly the work actually performed in one of our consulates general. The Consulate General at London is separated into various departments, with a staff of fifty-five persons, practically all of whom are Americans.

The Shipping Section has to do with the handling of merchant vessels, deals with some thousands of seamen annually, and enforces our public-health laws as respects immigrants proceeding to the United States. The American Citizenship Department issues and amends passports and disposes of cases arising under our complicated citizenship laws. The Visa Department in the course of 1923 granted 13,923 visas and dealt with approximately 28,000 individuals, each of whom had to be interrogated personally. In the Notarial Department 14,005 services were rendered in 1923 which included the settlement of estates, the handling of wills, conveyances of property, etc.

The War Claims Department from the beginning of the war has actively represented American citizens in prize court claims and has preserved a record and the history of each prize court judgment since 1914. Without expense this Department has secured releases of property owned by American citizens to the value of hundreds of thousands of dollars. The Statistical Department from hour to hour knows to the last cent the exact value of goods shipped from London to the United States. These goods were described in 1923 in 45,578 different invoices and represented hundreds of thousands of items.

In the Commercial Department, from nine o'clock in the morning until five in the evening, one employee devotes his entire time to answering questions relative to the rates of duty on particular commodities, matters of customs administration, commercial law and practice in the United States, and the like. In this office an effort is made to maintain classified lists of British firms representing American concerns, American concerns represented directly abroad, and details of similar import. Here every important trade journal in the United Kingdom is taken, and from them and other sources of information a careful tabulation is made of the prices of all staple commodities, these prices being cabled from month to month to the Federal Reserve Board for use in this country. During the year 1923 some 52,645 letters were sent out from the London Consulate General.

Questions of policy—It has not been the purpose of this article to discuss the problems of major policy which are constantly engaging the attention of the higher officers of the Department. These questions, ever present, affect the honor and prestige of the United States and the welfare of the country as a whole. Brief reference, however, may be made to a few of the more important questions which have arisen in this hemisphere in the past year or two and the part which we have played in connection with them. The Conference on the Limitation of Armaments stands as a unique example of what can be accomplished by mutual sacrifice among nations. The treaties which were negotiated during the Conference have definitely set at rest the suspicion and distrust among nations in the regions surrounding the Pacific. Through our ambassador in Cuba, General Crowder, we have sought to be helpful to the government of that country in its endeavor to bring about reforms, both administrative and financial. We are engaged in improving the administration of Haiti

and in the withdrawal of the military government from the Dominican Republic. The Governments of Chile and Peru, after a meeting in Washington of their representatives, have submitted their difficulties in connection with the Provinces of Tacna and Arica to the arbitration of the President of the United States. A very real danger to the peace of South America thus has been removed.

At the Conference on Central American Affairs held in Washington, in which delegates of the United States participated, various treaties and agreements were concluded which hold definite promise for the stability and general improvement of the conditions of these neighboring republics.

The Fifth International Conference of American States held at Santiago, Chile, early in 1923, where we were represented together with seventeen other American States, facilitated a better and mutualiy helpful understanding, and provided for the holding in the immediate future of a number of special conferences to meet specific needs.

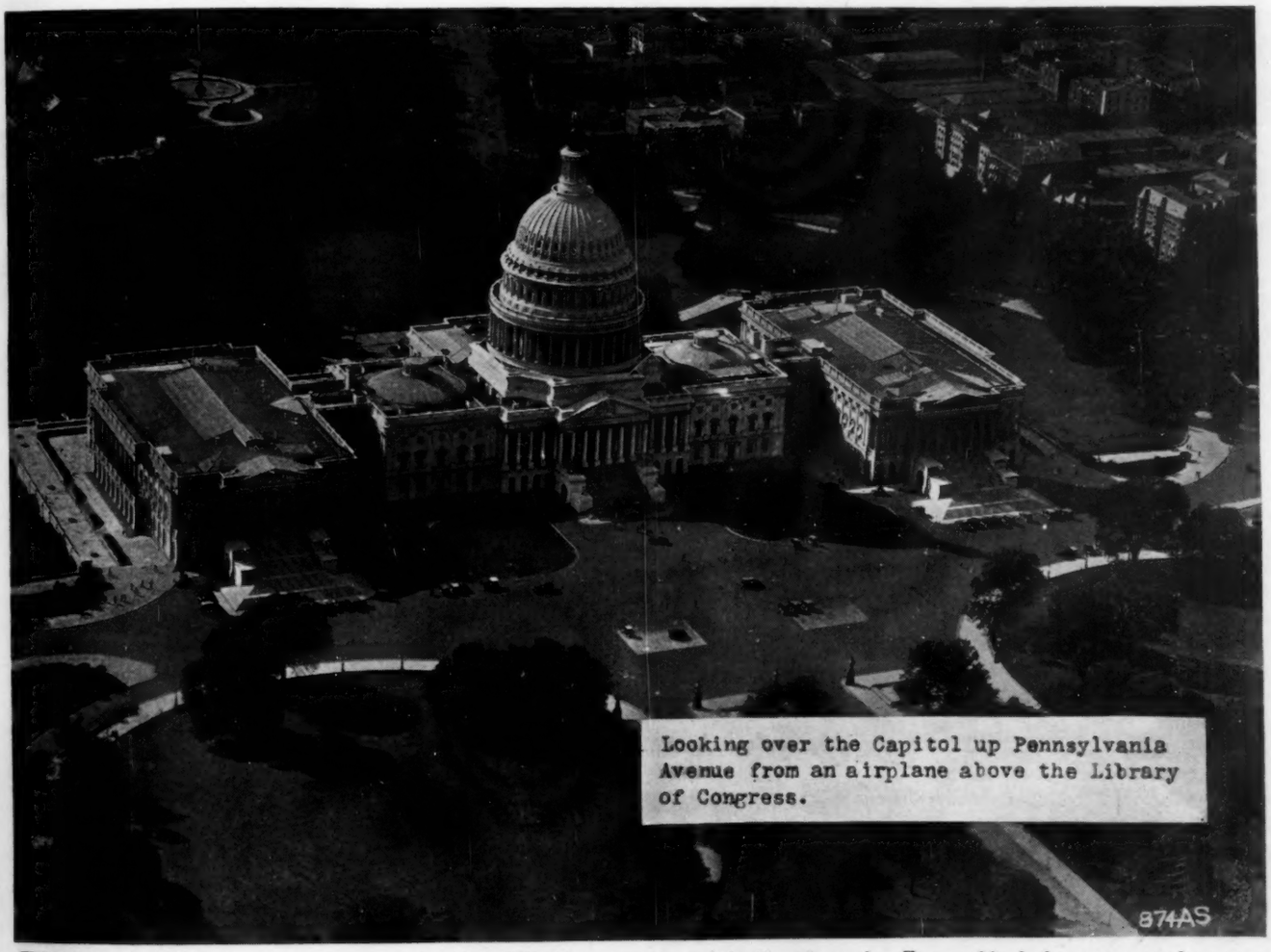
Reorganization of Foreign Service—Some reference should be made to the proposed reorganization and improvement of the Foreign Service as embodied in legislation known as the Rogers Bill, passed by the House during the last Congress but which failed to receive consideration by the Senate before adjournment. It was presented to the present Congress during its early sessions in December, 1923, and has been indorsed by Presidents Harding and Coolidge.

The principal features of this legislation are as follows: Provision is made for the amalgamation of the Diplomatic and Consular Services on a basis of reasonable interchangeability. This will result in greater coördination between the political and economic branches of the service. The rigid barrier existing between the two Services will be removed, and it will be possible to transfer an officer from one branch of the Foreign Service to another, if his abilities are such as to make the transfer desirable.

Increased salaries are provided, so that the field of selection will be broadened. Men of ability who have hitherto found it impossible to enter the career because of its inadequate compensation, will now be able to do so. The Service, moreover, will be able to retain its best men, instead of losing many of them as it has done in the past to business concerns which offer higher salaries.

Provision is made for representation allowances to defray the actual expenses of official entertaining, and a retirement system is established which places Foreign Service officers on much the same basis in this regard as officers of the Army and Navy.

These provisions will add greatly to the effectiveness of the endeavors of the Department of State to serve American citizens and their interests, and to strengthen the mutually helpful relations existing between the United States and foreign countries.



THE CAPITOL is the pivot around which Washington was originally planned. From this hub, streets and avenues radiate, the streets at right angles, the avenues diagonally. North, East, South, and West Capitol Streets divide the city into four sections, the largest being the Northwest. Lettered streets run east and west; numbered streets run north and south.

Summer School Attendance, 1913-23

RAYMOND WALTERS

Dean of Swarthmore College, Swarthmore, Pennsylvania

OF all dull things, statistics are commonly regarded as dullest—to say nothing of their proverbial reputation as represented in Sir Walter Bagehot's dictum: "There are lies, damned lies—and statistics."

Neither need be so. Honestly selected figures may reveal trends of educational movement—summer school activity for instance—quite as truthfully as opinion about those movements. As for dullness, that lies in the eyes that do not see behind columns of numbers a very human host: men and women who teach boys and girls and who flock to State and private universities and colleges for the six summer weeks that mean improved teaching.

This is the third year in which THE JOURNAL has given statistics about summer school enrolment in American colleges and universities. Comparisons with the immediately preceding year have been presented in the earlier articles. It would seem profitable now, along with the enrolment of typical 1923 summer schools, to give tabulations of enrolment five years and ten years ago. A better example of the implications of statistics could hardly be found than these comparisons. Here, in a few figures, are measures of professional interest in the teaching profession since the war and in the past decade. Of course not all of the persons taking summer courses are teachers, but a large percentage are. Of course not all of the teachers taking summer courses are doing so because of genuine professional spirit, but a large percentage are.

The table presents statistics for thirty universities and colleges which have summer sessions. Geographically and educationally they seem fairly representative of the summer schools of the United States. The 1923 and 1919 enrolments are those collected by the present writer in connection with the annual *School and Society* registration series; the 1913 and 1916 figures are those of the late Professor Rudolf Tombo, Jr., of Columbia University, former contributor of that series; the 1916 and 1919 figures of eight institutions have been very kindly furnished by Professor C. H. Weller, of the University of Iowa, secretary of the Association of Summer School Directors. The five-year interval statistics are given for 1919 instead of for 1918 which, as a war year, was not typical; and it seemed advantageous to include 1916, just preceding America's entrance into the war.

Table of Summer School Attendance

	1913	1916	1919	1923
Boston	....	201	383	2037
California	2363	3922	4322	10,258
Chicago	3771	5424	5012	6375
Colorado	....	833	1648	2888
Columbia	4539	8023	9539	12,675
Cornell	1392	1628	2151	1937
George Washington	....	237	668	1445
Harvard	797	1128	2692	2292
Illinois	713	1147	1314	2064
Indiana	1084	1121	1262	1697
U. of Iowa	426	684	1290	2253
Iowa State	....	1028	800	1478
Johns Hopkins	347	653	422	753
Kansas	510	817	710	1506
Michigan	1408	1793	1961	3054
Minnesota	531	649	1595	4540
Missouri	810	1346	1246	1163
Nebraska	511	834	762	2569
New York	933	1048	1300	2140
Northwestern	193	568	881	1613
Ohio State	703	1181	1240	2419
Oklahoma	....	854	1546	2116
Oregon	....	145	712	830
Pennsylvania	865	1045	935	2024
Syracuse	260	366	513	903
Texas	981	1477	1800	2658
Tulane	1163	1350	1252	1704
U. of Washington	....	1386	1527	2109
Virginia	1220	1350	1474	3129
Wisconsin	2120	3144	3213	4710

The totals for the twenty-three institutions of the list for which enrolment figures were available for 1913, 1919 and 1923 were 27,640 students for 1913, 46,886 students for 1919, and 74,436 students for 1923.

The increase in the past ten years was 151 per cent for these twenty-three typical institutions.

The increase of 1923 over 1919 for the same twenty-three was 59 per cent; of 1923 over 1916, 83 per cent.

For the thirty typical institutions the eight-year increase between 1916 and 1923 was 92 per cent; the increase between 1919 and 1923 was 61 per cent.

The increase of the 1923 enrolments of these typical institutions over 1922 was four per cent. The increase of 1922 over 1921 had been 18 per cent.

It is of interest that the total enrolment of twenty-nine institutions during the war year 1918 was 20 per cent lower than in 1916 and 45 per cent lower than in 1919.

Percentage increases of individual institutions for the various periods may readily be computed from the table.

For 1923 Columbia maintained its lead in size of enrolment, with 12,675 students. Including the summer schools at Berkeley and Los Angeles, the University of California was second with totals of 10,258. The next schools in size order were: Third, Chicago, 6375; fourth, College of the City of New York, 5457; fifth, Wisconsin, 4710; sixth, Minnesota, 4540; seventh, Virginia, 3129; eighth, Michigan, 3054; ninth, Colorado, 2888; tenth, Texas, 2658; eleventh, Nebraska, 2569; twelfth, Ohio State, 2419; thirteenth, Harvard, 2292; fourteenth, University of Iowa, 2253; fifteenth, New York University, 2140; sixteenth, Oklahoma, 2116; seventeenth, University of Washington, 2109; eighteenth, Illinois, 2064; nineteenth, Boston University, 2037; twentieth, Pennsylvania, 2024.

IF anything could demonstrate the necessity of a clear-cut out-and-out Department of Education it would be the opposition to it by Chambers of Commerce, whose opposition was definitely based on the idea that to save money is more vital than to save boys and girls.—A. E. Winship in *J. of Education*.

Workers' Education

H. G. GOOD

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BY WORKERS' education we are to understand the efforts now actively and aggressively being carried on by the laboring classes to educate or to re-educate themselves. It is a form of continuation schooling and is sponsored and controlled, for the most part, by the unions and organized labor groups.

The Workers' Education Bureau of America was formally organized on April 3, 1921, in New York City, and is, therefore, less than three years old. At the time of the last available report it had spread into nineteen States and the District of Columbia; there were officially connected with the Bureau and operated in accordance with its ideals perhaps one hundred schools and study centers. These are scattered from Massachusetts to California, although the great majority are in the East.

If one may judge by what has happened in Belgium, England, and elsewhere, we may expect a rapid and extensive development of workers' education in the larger cities of America. One of the latest steps has been taken in Pennsylvania, where on September first of last year there was opened a State Department of Education under the direction of the Pennsylvania Federation of Labor. The director of this department, Dr. R. W. Hogue, will devote himself to the spread and organization of workers' education in his State.

The constitution of the Workers' Education Bureau defines the aims of the organization thus: "Its purposes shall be to collect and disseminate information relative to any efforts at education on the part of organized labor; to coordinate and assist in every possible manner the educational work now carried on by the organized workers; and to stimulate the creation of additional enterprises in labor education throughout the United States." The voting membership of the bureau is confined to two kinds of organizations, labor unions and labor schools. Each such body has one vote. Any interested individual may become an associate member upon the payment of a small fee, but associate members have no votes. The control is completely in the hands of organized labor; and the support comes from the locals, the central labor bodies, the State and National federations.

Brookwood Workers' College, at Katonah, New York, is the best-known institution under the bureau. The college has a campus of fifty acres. The school is conducted by a "voluntary association known as the Brookwood Cooperators, who consist of the persons that are living and working on the campus—faculty, administrators, and students." "One man, one vote" is the rule whether the man is a doctor of philosophy or Freshman, and that seems like good labor politics. The direct, day-to-day administration of the college is in the hands of an executive committee of five, who are elected from and by the Coöperators. Two of the five must be faculty members. Since the students are more numerous than the faculty it is easy to see why the other three are always students.

The plant is run by the people who use it. Janitor service, firing, repairing are done by the Coöperators. Everybody, whether faculty body or student body, works two hours a day with his hands. That also sounds like good labor principles and it obviates the need for golf. The work is organized and assigned by a work committee, which is named by the executive committee.

Two outside advisory bodies function as Boards of Visitors or Overseers function at older and more academic institutions. One of these is an Education Committee which reviews the educational policies of the college and the other is a Labor Committee which keeps the institution in touch with organized Labor.

A two-years' program of studies is arranged, and Brookwood aims to admit only those who are planning to stay for the full course. A third year of work is offered for those who desire it. The subjects given are such as the following: "social problems" in which unemployment, child labor, credit control, the distribution of farm products and similar economic, industrial, and social topics are studied; the history of civilization; English, which includes a great deal of composition and public speaking; psychology with emphasis upon social topics; history treating in detail the labor movement and the farmer movement both in the United States and in Europe; and there are also "practical" courses in statistics, office management, bookkeeping, labor and farm journalism, and other subjects directly useful to labor leaders.

Brookwood claims that it is not a propagandist institution. It does not stand for any "ism." It aims to equip young men and women to serve the American labor movement, to enable the workers to get what is their right, to teach them to understand modern society and to help them fulfill the functions which are properly theirs in the life of the Nation and the world.

Other types of labor schools have a different organization and a different method. The Amalgamated Clothing Workers of America, for example, maintains a school for active workers. Courses in economics, politics, public speaking, parliamentary law, psychology, and other subjects are given. However, they are given not to resident full-time students but to workers actively employed in their industry who meet after working hours for study and lectures. The Amalgamated also carries on a large program of what might perhaps be called educational publicity. Addresses to mass meetings and to the meetings of the local unions on social, civic, and industrial subjects are arranged. It is partly in this way that recruits are obtained for their workers' school. Through the addresses they reach thousands of workers where the school reaches hundreds, but the instruction is necessarily fragmentary and popular. In April of last year the Amalgamated had five hundred students enrolled in its regular study classes. The International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union and other large labor organizations carry on education and publicity of similar types.

A third plan is that in which some regular academic college and the local labor unions combine to develop an educational program. Examples are found in several localities. The Boston Trade Union College, established in 1919 by the Central Labor Union of the city, is one. Teachers from nearby colleges or technical and professional schools have arranged the courses which are patronized by several hundred wage workers each year. The expenses are met by fees and by funds from the local union treasuries. Similar arrangements are to be found in at least a dozen cities in the country. The Amherst classes at Springfield and Holyoke, now closed since the departure of President Meiklejohn, are perhaps the best known of any of these.

The Master Builders

Angie Miriam Gordon
1530 Broadway, Logansport, Indiana

May blessings be on those whose days are spent
In laboring with youthful hearts and brains;
To them the richest joys in life be sent,
And gratitude repay their toil and pains.

Theirs is a labor worthy of the best
Development of human strength and skill;
Nobility of soul has been their test
Beyond mere training of the mind and will.

They are the mighty builders of ideals—
Those structures, marvelously beautiful,
Whose architecture perfectly reveals
And helps to make the best attainable.

No common brick-and-mortar task they ply,
But with materials which make our dreams,
They rear the stately columns to the sky,
Where Heaven caps them with rich golden gleams.

But strenuous the work and great the pain
When Youth is unresponsive in its mood;
The master builder labors all in vain,
And ruins lie where palace might have stood.

Of a character somewhat different from any of the foregoing is the women workers' summer school held annually at Bryn Mawr College. The difference consists in that it is run independently of any particular union or group of unions. For three years the Bryn Mawr Summer School for Women in Industry has offered a two-months' course "to train along broad and constructive lines young women of character and ability who have shown a desire for fuller education, so that they may exercise an increasing influence in the social and industrial world." Support is furnished by friends of workers' education and by Bryn Mawr College. The control is in the hands of a committee of members of the summer school and of women in industry at large. The students come from all parts of the United States and from the most varied industrial occupations. They spend two months in pursuing a carefully planned course in economics, English, literature, psychology, science, and history.

We have briefly told of the three leading types of labor education in America: the full-time labor college for selected students of which Brookwood is the example; the part-time school for active workers typified by the work of the Amalgamated Clothing Workers; and the Academic College-Labor Union cooperative venture, of which Boston and Amherst are examples. Of the four schools selected, Brookwood is definitely identified with the American organized Labor as a whole; the Amalgamated Clothing experiment has the nearest connection with a particular labor body and a particular industry; the Boston Trade Union College and other academic-laborite coöperative schemes stand in an intermediate position somewhat off the main line connecting Brookwood and the Amalgamated; and Bryn Mawr has only the most general connection with Labor and a real, even though somewhat indefinite, tie with Bryn Mawr College.

Goals vary in these labor schools with the institution and the individual student or teacher. One instructor, after showing how he gathered information on industrial and corporation incomes, says: "Our task for the rest of the year is to show how this material may be used in formulating an aggressive policy in wage fights, a policy that takes the initiative by showing where the advance may be procured, and then sets out to get it. No time is devoted to urging workers to seek higher wages. It is taken for granted that their ideas upon that subject are at least as valuable as a college instructor's. We are striving for a method, a technique." This quotation indicates one type of goal in workers' education. Far removed from this purpose is that of the class which, in a two-weeks' summer vacation, studies Browning or astronomy from a purely intellectual interest.

It is the satisfaction of an intellectual interest through a coöperative plan which combines the academic scholarship of the country with the educational strivings of the working classes that has proved most successful in England, for it is not to be supposed that in labor education, America stands alone. Workers' education in England is far older and far more widespread among the laboring classes and in certain respects far more highly developed than in the United States. The central body in England is called the Workers' Education Association, and it was evidently the model for the American bureau. The English organization was founded in 1903 under the leadership of Albert Mansbridge. It is a federation consisting of between two and three thousand corporate bodies, about forty per cent of which number are trades-unions strictly, while the rest are teachers' associations, university bodies, workingmen's clubs, and similar labor or educational groups.

The English movement differs from its American counterpart. The work is more closely connected with the universities, all of which coöperate and consequently the class work attains on an average a higher academic standard. The teaching partakes less of the nature of propaganda, bears more immediately upon the desire to know and appreciate and less immediately upon the direct problems of trade-unionism, wages, hours, and working conditions.

The typical educational instrument of the Workers' Education Association is the Tutorial Class, a voluntary group of twenty-five or thirty wage-earners. The number must be kept small to maintain the required academic standard and to receive public support. Only serious students are admitted. The class decides upon a subject and selects a teacher who must however be a university professor or a teacher approved by a university. The course continues for three years; and the class holds twenty-four meetings a year. Each session is for two hours, the first hour being devoted to a lecture and the second to discussion. Weekly papers are required from every student. Because the classes are small,

the financial burden is heavy. It is met in part by the labor organizations—in part by the public-school boards and the universities and in small part by the nominal fees which the members must pay.

Not all the workers' education of England is done in Tutorial Classes. Two special institutions should be named because they represent two extremes of temper. Ruskin College at Oxford is a broad and liberal institution intended to train leaders for the democratic working-class movement without regard to the special views of any one school or section or party. The Central Labor College was founded out of a secession from Ruskin College. Its avowed purpose is the teaching of Marxian socialism. Perhaps its nearest counterpart in America is the Rand School, owned and controlled by the American Socialist Society.

English workers' education is in general far more of the temper of Ruskin College than of that of the Central Labor College. It is conservative, cultural, and academic rather than doctrinaire, radical, and aggressive. Albert Mansbridge, who has been a guiding genius, is fond of stressing the spiritual values of the movement. His purpose is to stimulate the minds of the workers, to open up their intelligence and intellectual interests rather than to raise wages or to shorten hours. It is his belief that intelligent and informed workmen will secure proper working conditions and reasonable wages. In the English classes there is but little teaching of dogma or attempt at propaganda.

From England the movement has spread to the dominions, Australia and Canada in particular. We cannot discuss these countries nor the extensive development of labor education in France, Belgium, Denmark, Germany, and other industrial nations.

Although organized workers' education in the United States is only three years old, and in England only twenty years old, the roots of the movement go back at least to the latter half of the eighteenth century. Along with the industrial revolution which began at that time came the need and the desire of the workers for knowledge and culture. Merely from the standpoint of numbers, working-class education became of the utmost importance as more men were employed in industry. At present four-fifths of the population are engaged in manual and industrial occupations.

The increased division of labor and the mechanizing of industries have made education all the more necessary. The machine operative feels all the more the need of getting in touch with the world through his intellect as the machine on which he works isolates him more from the world. A man may be willing to be a good machine for eight hours a day if he may be broadly human the remaining eight waking hours. The intelligent operative can hardly consent to renounce his intelligence completely.

These and other factors are, of course, also leading causes in the development of public education both in Europe and in America. Because of poverty on the one hand and because of the narrowness and meagerness of the school curriculum, many intelligent workers did not in their youth obtain sufficient educational training and stimulus to carry on a rich intellectual life during the long years of labor. The children of the working class could not stay in school very long, for bad as child-labor conditions are even now, they were far worse in the eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries, and when the children did attend they were taught in the mass by memoriter methods and under fear of the rod, little beyond the mechanics of reading, writing, and spelling, and the equally mechanical processes of arithmetic. For all these reasons, therefore, there was a field for adult education among the workers who were illiterate or nearly illiterate—a field which public education, even when public education came, did not attempt to cultivate and which it yet cultivates very little.

One other factor in the argument should be mentioned—namely, that the working class has a culture of its own and a view of life of its own, and that culture and view of life are different from the culture and views of the middle class. As workers become more class-conscious this factor will be of increasing importance. This difference is apparent in Labor's attitude toward the church, for example. A large part of working-class opinion regards the church as a middle-class institution. There is the same feeling about the college, and towards the public school a like feeling is in process of development.

This cleavage has not gone so far in the United States as it has in Europe, for the reason that as long as there was free land, mere courage and industry were sufficient to raise a man from the working class to the possessing class.

NO CHARACTER in the history of education has inspired the teacher more than that of Johann Heinrich Pestalozzi, a Swiss, whose love for humanity resembled that of the Great Teacher. He was the first to declare that all people—rich or poor—should be educated. The artist, Konrad Grob, has caught the spirit of the schoolmaster's kindly interest in children.

With the rapid exploitation of our National resources and the development of capitalism, wage-earners are gradually realizing that there is little chance of their becoming anything but wage-earners. It is, therefore, all the more important that wage-earners and employers of labor understand each other, speak the same language, read many of the same books, share each other's culture and civilization.

In England these considerations were early felt by a few, if not by the public at large. Adult education began as early as 1780 with the Sunday-school movement. In this period the "circulating schools" of Wales originated. Around the work and thought of Robert Owen is grouped another series of efforts, the adult night schools and the coöperative movement, partly commercial, partly educational. The Mechanics Institutes and early technical education are older, having begun under various names with the growth of interest in physical science and its early applications to industry and to practical life in the days of Benjamin Franklin and Joseph Priestley. But William Lovett (1800-1877), cabinet-maker and philosopher, Chartist and Socialist, was possessed of educational insight far beyond his time. "He was the first Englishman who projected a nation-wide system of schools for adults which should be open to all." In the middle of the nineteenth century the Christian Socialists established the Working Men's College of London upon the model of the People's College of Sheffield. Then came Toynbee Hall and University Extension. The university settlement movement inaugurated by Toynbee succeeded in reaching the poor, but did not provide much real education; and university extension taught the middle class rather than the workers. These and similar growths may be traced in the United States.

Brief as this summary is, it may show that the Workers' Education organizations of England and America are building upon a foundation which began to be laid one hundred and fifty years ago. Workers' education is a new expression of an old ideal, the continuance of the education and mental growth of industrial workers through life and the control by the workers themselves of the agencies of this education.

Workers' education in the present and all its direct antecedents are essentially private educational agencies. These are, however, only one type of private educational effort; there are many others—parochial, military, fashionable, commercial, experimental, and so forth. To what extent public-school people believe in private education may be a matter for consideration, but whether we believe in private schools or not, in a democracy we may not suppress them. Democracy may educate, it must not suppress, minorities. Freedom of teaching is as essential for a democracy as for a free press. Those of us who do not believe in private education have one way open—to make public education better than private and to educate the public to prefer the better schools. In the second place, private education has in the past invented and tested many of the present excellencies of the public schools. From private schools we have adopted vocational work, the grading of pupils, and the scientific curriculum. To try to control all teaching by legislation is intolerable, unscientific, and leads to political stagnation. We should have learned from Germany and we may perhaps still learn from France how not to misuse the schools as a political tool. Surely the individual has rights, yet one must not deny that the state may exercise educational functions and in a democracy must do so. But citizenship implies by its very nature a certain independence, at least a certain freedom to develop one's own ideas and to think one's own thoughts. A wise state will not do all that its power would enable it to do. In government as in art, restraint is essential to perfect work. So it seems that the public schools should welcome workers' education because it aims to perform a service which, in the present state of labor opinion, and of educational finance, the public schools cannot now perform and which they may never be able to perform.

And this leads to a brief consideration of some of the explicit criticisms which the wage-earners are directing against the public schools. Our public education, they say, is a class education. The history texts, it is declared, magnify the heroes of war, the captains of industry, the autocratic influence of power, but the struggle of the masses which is the real history of man from primitive conditions to civilization has been suppressed. The history taught in the schools teaches children to despise the Labor Movement and to glorify the strike-breakers. Even arithmetic, it is charged, is so taught as to bolster up the profit system. Journals which favor Labor and liberal opinion are barred from the classes by reactionary superintendents. "Workingmen have also observed the snobbishness of the average school-teacher. If she shows any sympathy for workingmen and their families it is a condescending sympathy that is worse than contempt. She herself is not a working woman but a 'professional' woman, her starvation wages notwithstanding. * * * Her male colleagues, up in the high school, and the principals and superintendent are even worse snobs than she * * *." Whether these opinions are true or false is a question of importance. It is a matter of almost equal importance that such comments are publicly made and widely received, at least in labor circles.

The wisest comment of all was made by the President of the American Federation of Teachers a year ago when he said: "I hope to see Workers' Education not a competitor of the public schools, not in any way antagonistic to the public schools, but supplementary to them." In order that this may occur public-school men and organized Labor must learn to understand each other. To benefit from criticism, one must first discover it and then evaluate it. The worst mental disease is complacency, and the best cure is the keen criticism of a friend; after that, of an enemy. Let us benefit from all possible lines of criticism so that our enemies may become our friends. Let us keep open the educational frontier for individuals and for institutions.

Workers' education is redirecting us anew toward an old conception and ideal of education as the life-time occupation or, at least, avocation of man. Education is not preparation; it is life. Even Plato, twenty-three hundred years ago, would have had some men go to school until they were thirty-five years old. But these worker-learners of today are not aristocratic and selected philosophers with unlimited time for endless discussion, but the very hewers of wood and drawers of water whom Plato despised.

Workers' education has shown again that there are large and fertile, but uncultivated, tracts in human life. It has shown that overworked workingmen without spare time have yet time to study, not under compulsion but under the sharper spur of opportunity and ambition. It has shown that upon universal education true democracy rests. From these workers our conventional schools and dilettante students may well learn the essential lessons of industry, sincerity, and the open mind.

Falling in Love with Poetry

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THE love of poetry is not an elusive thing to be hunted singly or in bands. Indeed, the more determined one is to catch it the less one is likely to find it. It is natural to man's spirit, and when it does not exist we have simply stifled an instinct. My chief task, therefore, will be to sweep away certain clogging misconceptions.

In order to concentrate our very wide subject, let us consider a single line from Wordsworth's sonnet on Milton: "Thy soul was like a star, and dwelt apart." Now a familiar way of spoiling the beauty of this line is to convert poetry into rhetoric by saying, "Your spirit was at variance with the life of your period." A reasonably good paraphrase, is it not? We know now what the line *means*. But as a matter of fact we knew what it meant before, and in rendering its concrete beauty in abstract terms we have simply made it ugly without adding to its significance. Abstractions do not convey emotion, and to convey emotion is the prime business of poetry. When we boil away the sensuous images, only a dry little pellet of thought remains.

Underlying this vicious method is the idea that poetry is meant to convey moral maxims in easily memorized form. Wordsworth, we feel, is trying to give us a lesson, and we may as well strip off the sugar-coating and get down to the sermon. But the purpose of poetry is not to preach—to children even less than to adults. An idea as a beautiful thing may be sung about for the sake of its beauty, but not otherwise. When a moral or intellectual conception provides the stimulus for a poem, the purpose of that poem is not by any means to prove the truth of the idea, but to communicate to the reader the feeling which that idea has inspired in the poet. Sometimes a poem convinces us of the truth of what the poet is saying, but such conviction is always the result of poetic beauty rather than of argument, and is always a by-product of poetic enjoyment rather than the essential thing. Since the slightest evidence that the author is trying to preach makes a poem third-rate, the teacher who speaks or thinks of a poem as a versified sermon commits himself to praise of the bad.

A third so-called approach to poetry may be summed up by the term, "annotation." First assume that you are a student who has not yet been converted to poetry. Then ask yourself, and answer, these typical examination questions: "What occurrences in Milton's life show that his soul was like a star?" "What events in English history explain why Wordsworth should have turned to Milton at this time?" And now ask yourself whether this kind of "approach" has brought you closer to the spirit of poetry, or further away from it. Let us admit the value of that form of scholarship which explains the production of literature as a part of intellectual history, and let us recognize the fact that some historical, biographical, or linguistic knowledge is often prerequisite to the *understanding* of certain poems. But it remains to be said that the contribution of such studies to the *love* of poetry has been so immensely exaggerated that it would now be more appropriate to put the foot-notes at the top of the page and the poetry at the bottom.

If we refrain from paraphrasing, moralising, and annotating, we shall discover that poetry consists of sense-impressions embodied in a rhythmical and melodious pattern. "Appreciating" Wordsworth's line demands that we listen to the music, and see that lonely star shining far-distant. But this is not all. That music and that picture arise from emotion: it is a psychological fact that strong feeling is expressed in rhythmical and concretely imaginative terms. Thus if we really hear the music and see the picture, we shall be sharers in the noble feeling that produced them. The appreciative process is the reverse of the creative process. The lover of poetry, like the lover of woman, passes from admiration of the beautiful form to communion with the beautiful soul within.

Once the beloved has been won, the triumphant suitor may well spend his life in trying to understand his prize. And so with poetry: once we have undergone the poetic experience, we can regard poetry as a subject for rational investigation. Philology, metrics, the psychology of imagination, biography, history, philosophy—all these subjects will help to explain the poetic activity, and will connect it with the other creative activities of mind. Scholarship will certainly increase our appreciation of poetry when that appreciation already exists, but it can no more *create* the love of literature than an analytical study of human instincts will make a boy want to walk with a girl in the moonlight.

My own tastes lean very strongly toward investigation and experiment. I like to pull poetry apart and see how it is made. My affection for the art is of long standing, and at times merely irreflective and emotional enjoyment seems little more than puppy-love. But when anyone asks me how to begin to fall in love with poetry, I remember, as a man remembers his own days of courtship, that the charms of the Muse are simple, sensuous, and passionate expression combined with verbal melody and that anyone who feels those charms will inevitably arrive at the deeper beauties of thought and feeling which lie beneath them. Before that happens, any attempt to explain the lady will be dangerous; afterwards, studies the most minute or abstruse will be a joy.

While writing this little article I have constantly born in mind the fact that most of my readers will be teachers. Since the teaching of poetry is based upon the contagion of enthusiasm, a true appreciation of poetry is an essential part of the teacher's equipment. How many of us are lovers of poetry and how many lovers of foot-notes? Perhaps the college instructor is the greatest sinner of all, for his literature courses are occupied almost entirely with extra-literary considerations. But primary and secondary schools also err, I believe, in spoiling poetry by using it as a vehicle for teaching things which have very little connection with poetry. What is to be done about it? Suppose we all became simpler, more direct, and more truly youthful in our feeling toward poetry, if we ourselves turned back to the days before we knew much about dates and periods, days in which some poet spoke to us through music and picture?

GENERAL REACTION threatened education in the United States during 1923. Notwithstanding a few great losses and many small ones, the new year finds education in the Nation as a whole in a much stronger position than a year ago. For this result professional organizations — National, State, and local—deserve a large share of the credit.

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Woodrow Wilson

THE GREAT heart that beat in sympathy with mankind is stilled. Educational workers will not forget that it was a teacher's heart. They will recall the long years of preparation in academic hall and study chamber that led to the governorship of New Jersey and on to the White House. They will recall the years of uncertainty when this far-flung Nation was making up its mind to enter the colossal struggle of arms. They will live anew the consecration and mighty enthusiasm of the war days. They will see afresh the bright ideals that like stars afar off promised to guide us safely into the harbor of a vaster peace—a surer understanding among the peoples of the world that would guarantee to every man justice and liberty. They will recall with horror the recoil to selfishness that paralyzed at once the thinking of the Nation and the Commander-in-Chief who had led it through the terrible war in unity and high devotion. They will note with relief signs of returning poise and vision in our world relationships as the great consecrated leader passes heroically from the scene. And in reviewing his life as State and National executive, prophet, and statesman, they will not forget that he was a teacher.

The Curriculum

WHAT the schools teach and why is a subject in which both the profession and the public show increasing interest. Investigations of the various phases of the subject are now being made by a number of cities and influential educational agencies, such as the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association, whose Second Yearbook distributed at the Chicago meeting contains a most comprehensive series of studies on the subject.

One of the interesting facts that is being brought to the light by these investigations is the large number of courses of study that contain no reference to the fundamental objectives of education. It is to interpret basic objectives in terms of daily classroom work that courses of study exist. Countless teachers become immersed in the bewildering details of their daily tasks and are prone to lose sight of those larger purposes which are essential to a wise management of children. The teacher who is not familiar with these larger purposes is poorly equipped for the growing responsibilities that the democratic movement in education is placing upon him.

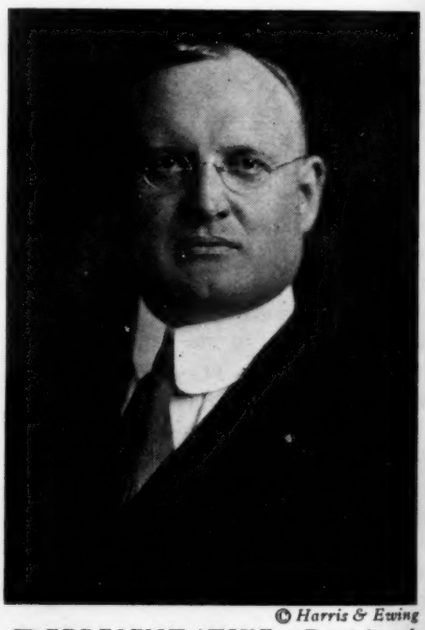
Rapid changes in our life and in the resources of education demand occasional restatement of the objectives of education. The present tendency is toward making this statement in terms that are concrete and definite. The National Education Association's Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education in its cardinal principles of secondary education set up the following objectives which have since been widely used and which are largely the basis of present curriculum studies: (1) Health, (2) command of fundamental processes, (3) worthy home membership, (4) vocation, (5) citizenship, (6) worthy use of leisure, and (7) ethical character.

Tremendous progress would be made in education if every teacher could keep constantly before him some such set of objectives and if at the end of specified periods of school work every child could be checked up as to his progress in reaching each of these fundamental objectives. The test of education is the change it makes in life habits, and if teachers and pupils can keep before them concrete objectives there is increased likelihood of well-rounded living. The further analysis of these objectives into more specific factors might well be a subject for discussion by classes in teacher-training institutions and by local teachers' associations.

LIFE MEMBERSHIP in the National Education Association means as much to the teacher as life membership in the American Medical Association means to the physician. Its value might be compared with the thirty-third degree in Masonry.

ANOTHER ARGUMENT FOR THE EDUCATION BILL—The United States Bureau of Education has recently been moved from the old Pension Building and scattered over three floors of the Interior Building in quarters that require most of its great library to be put in storage. Labor has a fine Government building. Commerce has its own building. Agriculture has many buildings, but education must still take the left-overs.

WE HAVE BEEN TRAINING teachers in the United States for only a hundred years. The beginnings of professional training were meager and local. For over three quarters of a century teacher-training institutions grew but slowly. The great extension has been during the last twenty years. The goal of a well-trained teacher for every American child is still far off, but the colossal enrolment in summer schools and extension classes plus increasing enrolments during the regular terms indicates progress.



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REPRESENTATIVE Daniel A. Reed, of New York, the new champion of the Education Bill in the House. In this leadership he succeeds the Honorable Horace Mann Towner, now Governor of Porto Rico.

FRESH FROM THE CLASSROOM

THE February JOURNAL contained excerpts from letters received by the Committee of One Hundred on Classroom Teaching Problems. Hundreds of teachers have responded to the appeal sent them through these columns to state clearly and fearlessly the problems that prevent them from rendering maximum service. Here is an opportunity to contribute to the service of teaching. If you have not already written to the chairman of this committee, Mrs. Mary C. C. Bradford, State superintendent of public instruction, Denver, Colorado, do so at once. The following are excerpts from a few of the many letters received:

THE crying need of the classroom teacher is an epidemic of professionalism. One that will make him proud of the occupation that is giving him a living and a respected place in the community; that will make him ashamed to stay in his chosen profession if he is not proud of it; that will make him honestly happy in being able to help other people's children; that will give him a bird's-eye view of the aims and purposes of education in a profession that includes the whole world, and reaches from an indefinite past into a far-distant future; that will make him examine his mental attitude more often than his methods of teaching; that will lift him out of his slump of utter weariness at the end of the day by finding relief and refreshment in varied activities; that will make him see the value, scope, and purpose of professional organizations, and seeing their value, will make his moral and financial support both cheerful and voluntary; that will above all make him worthy of his profession.—W. T. W.

THE many drives that are conducted through the schools; the exhibitions put on for show; the "weeks" devoted to this, that, and the other; in short, the exploitation of the schools for everything under the sun makes it impossible for teachers and pupils to do their best. When teachers are not harassed by so many interruptions, it will be possible for them to use their own initiative, and through the use of that initiative will come the joy of tasks well-done, of inspiration to do still better, instead of the feeling that does sometimes come that it is all to no purpose.—C. D. W.

IS there some way that we as teachers—the whole rank and file—can be made more conscious of the necessity to know, to understand, and to help promote legislation, direct or indirect, that affects the school? I urge that your committee endeavor to suggest some means to arouse such a consciousness in teachers. I am offering only this one suggestion, because I feel it is such a vital problem.—E. M. W.

ONE of the problems which confronts us is lack of supervision of the common branches. Promotion is based on reading, arithmetic, geography, spelling, language, and history. Yet these studies receive no supervision. If good, helpful, constructive criticism were given, if kindly suggestions were made and some few devices proposed, the standard of each and every school might be raised and in the case of large cities the standard equalized as well. Our rural schools receive no supervision of this kind. Would not the young teacher profit by this supervision? Would not the school as well as the community be helped?—V. T. W.

IT seems to me special rooms for the excellent pupils should be more common; rooms in which a child can enrich his life by much reading in the fields in which he is most interested; rooms in which he can keep alert and keen for forging ahead instead of wasting his time sitting idle while the slower students are helped over some high bump. I certainly do believe in doing all we are doing for the slow student and more. But we have too long sacrificed the keener student for the slower and it is time that we turn our attention toward the alert pupil.—O. T. W.

THE following would do much to increase the efficiency of the schools: (1) Employ principals who could and would organize work so as to cut down on energy-using waste; (2) Cut down on the number of activities and problems brought in from civic and other organizations to the schools; (3) Allow or require pupils to do fewer things but do them well—respectably well; (4) Educate the community on the matter of *cutting down attendance at "movies"* on the part of school children.—O. T. W.

THE principal of a grade school building should keep up to date in scholarship. Perhaps he should attend a summer school now and then. He should give serious study to his problems as an executive. He should study his work along with other thinking men and women. He should strive to advance his school for the good of all pupils, and it should be done honestly, never with a motive of self-advancement. If we grade teachers could feel that we were working with honorable, clear thinking, sympathetic principals it would give us a real inspiration for our classroom work.—W. W. W.

I AM handicapped in my efforts to give my best to my children by the red tape of the ordinary school system. I feel that I could give much greater service were it not for the constant demands of this particular factor. I believe that we are over-supervised and over-systematized until a teacher's own soul which she wants to put into her work becomes a machine like the rest of the system. If teachers had more chance to express their own individuality, I believe that there would not be a set type of teacher to which all of us are supposed to conform.—Y. T. W.

TO stimulate thinking by means of classroom environment, to inspire boys and girls to their best efforts, to encourage them in their attempts at work, to bring to them, through their life activities, the greatest educational values, to supervise the development of their bodies, their morals, their civic life, as well as to give them the right attitude toward knowledge, is the great service of a teacher. I know that I am not rendering my best service but the reasons for this are difficult to state. I would mention, however, the limitations of equipment, of finances, of grading systems, of courses of study, the lack of sympathetic understanding of primary needs on the part of school officials and legislators, and not the least of these, my own limitations.—A. Q. F.

TO demand higher qualifications and more professional training of teachers is the tendency at present. There should be an organized movement to conserve the experience of teachers and to give teachers an opportunity to be more efficient. Some of the conditions which impair a teacher's efficiency are: the financial question, housing conditions, crowded school room, adopting new methods without supplying the necessary equipment to go with them, lack of real understanding of the teacher's daily work by both supervisors and principals, and the limited time for doing the manifold tasks called for. New methods should not be injected into a system which retains old methods that are inconsistent.—T. S. W.

THE JOURNAL is remarkable for its interesting, appropriate, and informational content. The attractive arrangement of the material on the page adds to its value.—M. I. P.

TO me the most interesting article in the January number is, How the Department of Commerce Works.—B. F. M.

I AM weary of exploiting the schools for savings banks and drives. So much of our work is controlled by industrial and vocational ideas and by persons of economic instead of spiritual vision that I am growing suspicious of such interests.—J. G. M.

THE subject matter of each JOURNAL has been so full of things the teacher feels she needs that I have read mine through everytime.—E. H. H.

THE plan of publishing vivid accounts of special schools is commendable and should be systematically continued.—C. S. C.

EDUCATIONAL progress during 1923" is splendid in view of the hue and cry for retrenchment over which some of our members are loosing their equilibrium. A careful perusal of this article gives one a securer and firmer faith in the people of the Nation who are supporting the educational program of the National Education Association.—F. G. M.

Radio in Education

RESPONSES to letters sent by THE JOURNAL to State commissioners and superintendents of education throughout the United States indicate that, except in a few States, educational workers are doing comparatively little to make radio a great educational force in the life of the Nation, either by talks broadcasted from educational institutions or by efforts to improve the quality of programs broadcasted from commercial stations. There are notable exceptions, but for the country as a whole the influence on wireless of educational workers is in striking contrast to the practice in the British Isles. There, permission to broadcast has been granted to only one organization, known as the British Broadcasting Company, which operates under a license from the Postmaster General and is guided by him in certain matters.

The director of programs for the British Broadcasting Company is aided by a National Advisory Committee and several local committees in the towns where stations are situated. The National Advisory Committee includes representatives of the Association of Educational Committees, the Directors of Education, school associations, and the National Union of Teachers. A typical local committee is that at Glasgow which includes a representative of the board of education, Glasgow University, Royal Technical College, Glasgow School of Art, and the Headmasters' Association.

In an address before a conference of educational associations in London early in January, reported in the *Teachers World*, London, Mr. Arthur R. Burrows, director of programs for the British Broadcasting Company, calls attention to the wireless system in the British Isles and its educational implications. The following extracts from his address are of interest to educational workers in America—

"*Advantages of single control*—The British Broadcasting Company, therefore, conducts a form of semi-public service, and will shortly have the assistance of an advisory committee appointed by the government. The result of this systematic arrangement is that of several stations, being under one control, do not overlap or interfere with one another, either technically or in the programs transmitted. On the contrary, the programs from the eight stations in London, Birmingham, Manchester, Glasgow, Cardiff, Newcastle, Aberdeen, and Bournemouth are carefully arranged to provide the greatest possible variety of interest, and to fit in with a definite plan.

"Another advantage of this single control is that by means of a series of trunk telephone lines rented from the postoffice, all the stations can be linked together physically, so that at any pre-arranged moment the program of one station can be transmitted simultaneously from any other one or all of the others. This, in fact, happens twice nightly,

ARTHUR R. BURROWS, director of programs, British Broadcasting Company, which has a monopoly on radio broadcasting in the British Isles, and which seeks to make wireless a great educational force.

when copyright news bulletins specially prepared by the recognized news agencies of this country are spoken into a microphone in the London studio and radiated simultaneously from all stations. At least on one night per week a first-class musical program is similarly treated.

"*Programs*—The preparation of these programs is, of course, no simple matter, for amongst the 550,000 homes already possessing the government license to receive this service there is represented all classes of society, persons of all tastes and temperaments. The work involves, even as at present arranged, the provision of 20,000 hours ever-changing material per year, during which the standard is kept on what I will term the 'top-side' of public taste.

"Now, the world of education, unlike the community at large, has one mutual object—the imparting of knowledge and the cultivation of intellect. The methods vary for several different reasons, but there is much common ground and there would be still more common ground did financial conditions permit. There are few schools outside the public schools, and perhaps even within the public-school group, which can afford at present to supplement the teaching by the regular staff with frequent lectures on topical and other informative subjects given by the greatest authorities in the land. This state of affairs, I am confident, will gradually be changed by the systematic application of wireless telephony to school work.

"Whilst, as an old science master, I recognize the fact that there are a number of subjects that can never be handled satisfactorily except by the actual presence of a lecturer or demonstrator, yet there are also a number of subjects in which broadcast telephony can provide facilities at present denied to the teaching world.

"*Educational lectures*—Nothing has yet been done towards the systematic radiation of lectures to schools, but a number of talks have been included in our nightly programs during the twelve months which might have been broadcast in school hours to the benefit of pupils.

"I anticipate some little time will elapse before broadcast lessons become a regular feature of the curricula of all schools in this country, for the simple reason that the treasury has not too much money to spend today on education.

"In order that scholastic institutions may judge for themselves the value of a service such as I have indicated, we propose to start transmitting on each Friday afternoon. These half-hour transmissions may be extended to two and even three afternoons per week, so soon as data is available upon their popularity. We shall begin by dealing with subjects likely to interest the whole of school life, such as musical appreciation, correct speaking (in English and French), and applied art, and we will welcome reports from all able to follow our experiments in this direction.

"One thing is certain, there are many parents who will seize the opportunity for listening at the hours of these transmissions in order that, for the first time in history, they may be as well-informed as their children. Apart from the subjects already mentioned, we believe there are also fields for development in the broadcasting by the best artists of Shakespeare and other recognized dramatic works, and of 'general knowledge' talks by the greatest authorities on their particular subjects.

"The power of the spoken word is unquestionably greater than that of the written word, particularly when the spoken word is backed by unquestioned authority. How great, for instance, would be the impression created on the child-mind by the actual voice of Mr. Howard Carter narrating in simple language the story and meaning of the discoveries at the tomb of Tutankhamen. This brings us to a future development. We hope to demonstrate that narratives like the last-mentioned might be broadcast and illustrated simultaneously by lantern slides or cinematograph films in hundreds of schools."

Albert Edward Winship

THE seventy-ninth birthday of the Dean of Educational Journalists and Lecturers—Doctor Albert Edward Winship—is the occasion of a remarkable luncheon to be held in connection with the Department of Superintendence at Chicago, on February 28. In planning this luncheon President Payson Smith has struck a chord of love and appreciation that is Nation-wide. For more than fifty years Doctor Winship has been an indefatigable traveler. He has a prodigious personal acquaintance with educational workers and conditions in every section of the United States. From this intimate knowledge have sprung the vision and optimism with which he has thrilled countless audiences both lay and professional. Second only to his service as an orator is the contribution which he has made to the profession as a journalist and writer. *The World's Work* in commenting on Doctor Winship's writing remarks that "If the sheets were pasted end to end, you would have a great white way . . . more than thirty miles long. The remarkable thing is that you could walk it from end to end without once setting foot on a whine, a snarl, a slam, a jibe, a sneer."

In preparation for the luncheon at Chicago, the President of the National Education Association, Miss Olive M. Jones, suggested that educational workers who have known Doctor Winship, send personal letters of appreciation to be bound into a book to be presented at the luncheon. From every section of the country and from every branch of the profession these letters have been flowing into headquarters, reflecting the amazing range of Doctor Winship's service and acquaintance. The number of letters available as THE JOURNAL goes to press is so great that it is possible to print extracts from only a few:

To Albert Edward Winship: It becomes my proud privilege to give to you, in behalf of the National Education Association of the United States, this book of tributes from a great host of men and women who have been blessed with your friendship, spurred on by your faith in them, inspired by your tireless zeal in pursuit of the highest educational aims.

To all of us you are the great Evangelist of Education. The Association welcomes this opportunity to give to you this testimonial of our appreciation.—Olive M. Jones, President, National Education Association.

LOVE and gratitude flow to him from every hill and hollow.—Sarah Louise Arnold, Lincoln, Massachusetts.

HIS vigor, virility, and power are unusual and have increased with years of experience.—John H. Beveridge, Superintendent of Schools, Omaha, Nebraska.

TO no other man have I entrusted so much of value of an educational and spiritual

DOCTOR Winship was born at West Bridgewater, Massachusetts, February 24, 1845. He served in the Civil War and was later school principal and teacher, becoming editor of the JOURNAL OF EDUCATION in 1886. He is the author of a number of well-known books and has been many times honored by both professional and lay groups.

nature and none have surpassed Dr. Winship in achievement.—Thomas W. Bicknell, former owner and editor of THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATION, founder of the National Council of Education, and President of the National Education Association, 1884.

A TEACHER of children, a teacher of teachers, a teacher of humanity at large.—Katherine D. Blake, Principal, Public School No. 6, New York City.

THE valiant defender of the original American ideals.—Mary C. C. Bradford, State Superintendent of Public Instruction for Colorado, and President of the National Education Association, 1918.

HE has taught us to speak with personal boldness but with individual humility.—E. W. Butterfield, Commissioner of Education for New Hampshire.

ALL over America today the Catherines of Happy Valleys, and young people everywhere, declare that you have been the greatest encouragement of their lives.—Mabel Carney, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.

OPEN of mind, generous of heart, rich in experience and wisdom, observant, charitable, optimistic.—Arthur H. Chamberlain, Secretary, California Council of Education, San Francisco, California.

ONE who marks new trails and has the courage and the conviction of mind and heart necessary to maintain his belief in new paths.—M. G. Clark, Superintendent of Schools, Sioux City, Iowa.

I SHALL always remember your boosts, your advice, and your short practical sermons.—Albert Worthington Clancy, Minneapolis, Minnesota.

YOU have never stopped mentally.—Frank Cody, Superintendent of Schools, Detroit, Michigan.

COURAGEOUS in speaking his own mind he has nevertheless at all times been magnanimous in his consideration of the views of others.—L. D. Coffman, President, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minnesota.

YOU have led in many a forward march, but you have never sounded a retreat.—O. T. Corson, President, National Education Association, 1900, Oxford, Ohio.

AND hosts of youth shall bless his name when he hath gone his ways.—Ambrose Cort, N. E. A. State Director for New York.

FORTUNATE is the man who approaches four score years with his eyes undimmed and his natural force unabated.—Frederick W. Dallinger, U. S. Representative from Massachusetts, Washington, D. C.

THE wisdom which he has gathered in his long journey through life, he broadcasts in his long journeys "from sea to shining sea."—Agnes E. Doherty, Central High School, St. Paul, Minnesota.

THE best of all possible salesmen of educational ideals and practices.—William L. Ettinger, Superintendent of Schools, New York City.

HIS visits have always been followed by eras of renewed activity and progress.—C. B. Glenn, Superintendent of Schools, Birmingham, Alabama.

HAIL to the Dean of Educational Journalists!—Frank Pierrepont Graves, Commissioner of Education for the State of New York.

WHAT means the passing of years to a mind that is young and to a nature always on the sunny side of life?—J. M. Gwinn, Superintendent of Schools, San Francisco, California.

LONG may you continue your service akin, indeed, to that of the Great Teacher 'who

1924. "DRASTIC ECONOMY" IS BEGINNING TO THINK HE WILL HAVE TO SPARE THAT TREE ANYHOW.

THIS Cartoon from the Teachers' World (London) suggests that the tide of reaction which handicapped education in England during 1923 may be ebbing. Some of the most stirring utterances on the importance of public education in the development of peoples have come from the Mother Country.

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went about doing good and healing all that were oppressed'!—Florence M. Hale, State Agent for Rural Education, Augusta, Maine.

MY heartfelt congratulations for the great service you have done education in this country in suggesting and leading new pioneer movements.—G. Stanley Hall, Worcester, Massachusetts.

YOUR influence will prove a beacon light forever; may your presence stimulate us for many years to come.—T. H. Harris, Superintendent of Education for Louisiana.

THE outspoken friend of all teachers.—Sallie Hill, Denver, Colorado.

THE whole cause of education has been enriched and advanced by the sanity of his views, and the clarity of his expression.—H. H. Horner, Editor, Journal of the New York State Teachers' Association, Albany, New York.

AFFECTIONATELY regarded by the members of the teaching profession as their foremost editorial spokesman.—Fred M. Hunter, Superintendent of Schools, Oakland, California, and President of the National Education Association, 1921.

YOU have been the precursor of educational progress and expansion; guiding with patience, kindliness, and vision.—Ida Christine Iversen, President, Department of Classroom Teachers, National Education Association, Los Angeles, California.

HE has remained young, fore-seeing, far-seeing, and progressive to this good hour.—D. B. Johnson, President, Winthrop College, Rock Hill, South Carolina, President of the National Education Association, 1916.

A TEACHER OF teachers, sane, helpful, and broadminded, always looking beyond forms and traditions to the realities.—David Starr Jordan, President Emeritus of Stanford University, and President of the National Education Association, 1915.

MAY his optimistic philosophy continue to sustain and inspire us.—John .F. Keating, Superintendent of Schools, District No. 20, Pueblo, Colorado.

HE NEVER drives; he leads.—James H. Kelley, Executive Secretary, Pennsylvania State Education Association, Harrisburg, Pennsylvania.

HE kept no evil in his heart and sought to help his fellow man.—Helen M. King, Portland, Maine.

A HUMAN radio who all his lovable life has broadcasted cheer, encouragement, faith, in a great world-service.—William McAndrew, Superintendent of Schools, Chicago, Illinois.

I HAIL you as the Ulysses of American education.—Charles McKenny, President, State Normal College, Ypsilanti, Michigan.

HIS faith in us and our work has driven us out of our narrow stalls under the wide beauty of the sky.—Mary McSkimmon, President, Massachusetts Teachers Federation, Brookline, Massachusetts.

HE'S the Prince of Good Fellows, pure gold, no alloy.—Wallace E. Mason, State Normal School, Keene, New Hampshire.

GENIAL, whole-souled, clean, vigorous, full of initiative.—S. M. N. Marrs, Superintendent of Education for Texas.

AMERICA'S greatest itinerant schoolmaster!—J. W. Searson, Professor of English, University of Nebraska, Lincoln, Nebraska.

IT is an unusual privilege to have lived such a long and productive life, every month of your mature years being effective and resourceful.—Homer H. Seerley, President of Iowa State Teachers College, Cedar Falls, Iowa.

AN old man, grandly young."—Fred L. Shaw, Superintendent of Public Instruction for South Dakota.

WHEN one has lived so well, it should be a great joy to live long.—N. D. Showalter, President of State Normal School, Cheney, Washington.

THE results of his untiring efforts in behalf of the public schools cannot be measured.—A. A. Slade, Superintendent of Schools, Wyoming.

WHAT educational movement is there during the past half century in which he has not been the prime mover?—Cora Wilson Stewart, Frankfort, Kentucky.

YOUR service to American education has been that of an ambassador from city to city.—George D. Strayer, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.

I HAVE asked a large number of leading school men to name the ten greatest living educators, and Dr. Winship has been in every list, and in most of them he has led.—Augustus O. Thomas, Commissioner of Education for Maine.

THE nobility of his ideals, his abounding usefulness, and his rich Christian character call forth my affection.—Charles F. Thwing, President Emeritus of Western Reserve University, Cleveland, Ohio.

NO one has ever heard him utter an unkind, unfriendly, or destructive criticism.—John J. Tigert, U. S. Commissioner of Education, Washington, D. C.

SUCH youth as yours is good for another quarter century.—Arthur H. Wilde, Boston University, Boston, Massachusetts.

NO one among America's leading educators can approach you in breadth of vision, in genuine interest, and in heartfelt sympathy with the problems of the American school system.—Will C. Wood, Superintendent of Public Instruction for California.

Measuring and Testing in Education

ALEXANDER C. ROBERTS

University of Washington, Seattle, Washington

THIS paper has to do with the youngest member of the family of educational interests and activities—tests and measurements. It attempts in brief quotations to account for the rapid development and the importance of intelligence testing, and to present a bibliography as well as announcements of the recent books in this expanding field.

It has been said that the ancient history of tests and measurements came to a close about 1908, with the publication of the epochal work of Binet and Simon. The middle ages extended only to 1918, for the sudden ending of the war returned hundreds of trained psychologists to their schools, and their activities have made possible the most interesting, pertinent, and hopeful chapter in recent American education. Modern history, therefore, is but five years in extent, and it will be well to keep that fact in mind when considering these statements by great American educators.

In the Introduction to the Twenty-first Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Dr. S. S. Colvin writes:

> In 1897, Dr. J. M. Rice published in the *Forum* two articles giving an account of his investigations of the spelling abilities of school children in the United States. The simple tests that he employed were the first definite attempt made on an extensive scale to measure any aspect of school achievement. For this reason, Dr. Rice has been called the "father of educational measurements." Since this early attempt, the movement to measure school attainments in a fundamental and scientific way has grown to astonishing proportions.

The reception Dr. Rice received is well expressed in the first sentence of chapter one of Wilson and Hoke's *How to Measure:*

> When Dr. J. M. Rice, a little more than twenty years ago, published his studies applying scientific measurement to the results of teaching, there was a storm of protest by educators from one end of the country to the other.

Dr. W. S. Monroe, in an introductory sentence in his *Theory of Educational Measurements,* writes:

> Wholly within the past two decades, and largely since 1909, a vast change in educational procedure has been effected in this country as a result of the development of scientific methods as applied to the measurement of both children to be taught and the instruction to be given.

President Henry Suzzallo sums up the advancement of the movement in his editorial comment in Hines' *Measuring Intelligence* in these words:

> Scientific method had been entering the profession in a small wedge-like way for fifteen years. Not until the last half-dozen years, however, has its presence been felt with such force as to give it a position of high respectability and wide acceptance.

The degree of spread is indicated in part at least by the statement of Dr. L. M. Terman in the editorial introductory chapter of Wood's *Measurement in Higher Education:*

> Mental and educational tests have come into very general use in elementary and secondary schools throughout the country. There are a great many standard tests of various types . . . and the number of pupils given one or more of them in a year must run into the millions.

The extreme recency of the development of this movement is well expressed by Dr. Virgil Dickson in the preface of his *Mental Tests and the Classroom Teacher:*

> Five years ago mental testing was almost unknown in the public schools except in a few cities in which tests were made to discover those who were mentally defective for placement in a special class. Now the movement has grown to immense proportions. Hundreds of thousands, if not millions, of school children are being tested annually.

Dr. W. C. McCall in the Preface of *How to Measure in Education* brings in an interesting sidelight which indicates that the American educator has not sensed the magnitude and importance of the testing movement as have those who come into contact with it for the first time:

> The science of measurement is in its infancy and the art of measurement is younger still. Yet both have developed at such a phenomenal rate in the last few years as to make this movement for the mental measurement of children the most dramatic tendency in modern education. Educators returning from a few years' sojourn in foreign missionary fields testify that no recent change in educational practices compares with that effected by the growth of scientific educational and intelligence testing.

Pioneering Books

THORNDIKE, E. L. *An introduction to the theory of mental and social measurements.* N. Y., Teachers College, Columbia University, 1913. 277p.

STERN, WILLIAM. *The psychological methods of testing intelligence.* Baltimore, Md., Warwick and York, 1914.

WHIPPLE, GUY M. *Manual of mental and physical tests; part 2.* Baltimore, Md., Warwick and York, 1915. 336p.

STARCH, DANIEL. *Educational measurements.* N. Y., Macmillan Co., 1916. 197p.

TERMAN, L. M. *The measurement of intelligence.* Boston, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1916. 362p.

PINTNER, RUDOLPH, and PATERSON, D. G. *A scale of performance tests.* N. Y., D. Appleton & Co., 1917. 218p.

MONROE, W. S., DEVOSS, J. C., and KELLY, F. J. *Educational tests and measurements.* Boston, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1917. 309p.

MONROE, W. S. *Measuring the results of teaching.* Boston, Houghton Mifflin, 1918. 297p.

TERMAN, L. M. *The intelligence of school children.* Boston, Houghton Mifflin, 1919. 317p.

YOAKUM, C. S., and YERKES, R. M. *Army mental tests.* N. Y., Henry Holt & Co., 1920. 303p.

DEWEY, EVELYN, and others. *Methods and results of testing school children.* N. Y., E. P. Dutton & Co., 1920. 176p.

WILSON, G. M., and HOKE, K. J. *How to measure.* N. Y., Macmillan Co., 1920. 285p.

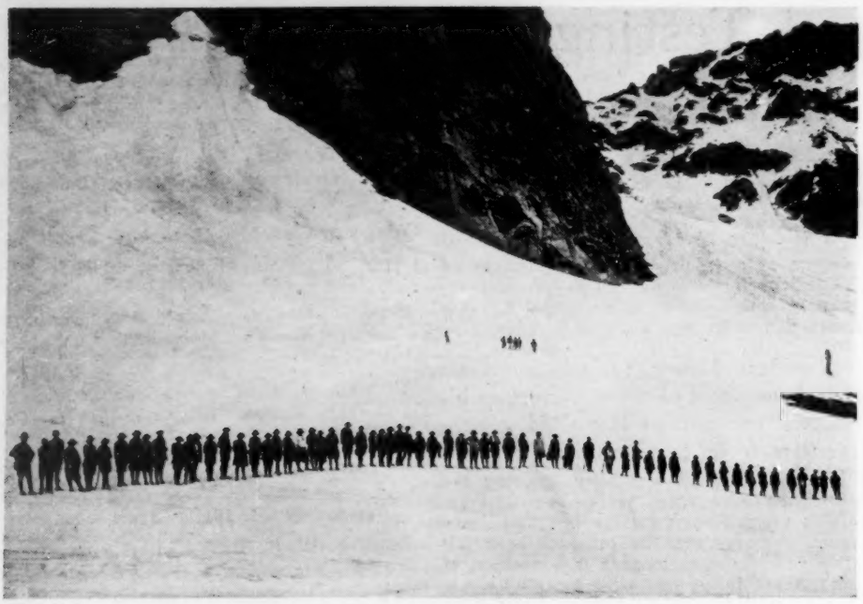
TRABUE, M. R., and STOCKBRIDGE, F. R. *Measure your mind.* Garden City, N. Y., Doubleday, Page & Co., 1920. 349p.

PROCTOR, W. M. *Psychological tests and guidance of high-school pupils.* Bloomington, Ill., Public School Publishing Co., 1921. 70p.

Books of 1922

BOOK, WILLIAM F. *The intelligence of high-school seniors.* N. Y., Macmillan Co., 371p. $2.40.

Dr. Book, professor of educational psychology at Indiana University, conducted a State-wide mental survey of the Indiana high schools in order to locate the seniors of superior ability, determine the college intentions of this group, and to find out if the high schools and colleges were conserving these best seniors. The scale used was devised by Dr. S. L. Pressey, and was given throughout the State; the tests were scored and the data assembled at Indiana University. The results constitute an exceedingly keen analysis of academic, social, and economic status of these groups of students, and possess an interest for school people much broader than is indicated by the State limits of the investigation. It is possible that Dr. Book took too much for granted as to the validity of one test, therefore his generalizations may be too sweeping. His study is highly valuable, however, and indicates the possibilities of scientific procedure in State-wide investigations.



LIFE in the open is coming more and more to be a part of summer schools for teachers. These students of the University of Colorado are enjoying a hike on the Arapahoe, the largest glacier in the Colorado Rockies.

BROOKS, SAMUEL S. *Improving schools by standardized tests.* Boston, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1922. 278p. $1.75.

Superintendent Brooks found himself confronted by four major problems when under the provisions of a new New Hampshire law, he became superintendent of a district containing twenty-six rural, ungraded, one-room schools, taught by untrained teachers, nearly all of whom had not worked under a superintendent before. These problems he stated as follows: (1) to grade the schools fairly and accurately, (2) to measure the progress of the pupils, (3) to measure the ability of the teachers, and (4) to find a practical method of supervising study and teaching how to study.

This book is a well-written report of his attempt to solve these problems by means of standardized tests, in which he tells of the tests used, the uses made of the data derived from the tests, and the results upon teachers, pupils, schools, and patrons. Here is an extended application of scientific procedure to a rural situation, limited by all the drawbacks of poor teacher preparation, old textbooks, inadequate housing, and up to that time, absolutely no supervision. Superintendent Brooks presents the rare combination of holding his head high and keeping his feet squarely upon the ground, and as happens when the idealistic and the practical are happily combined, a good job is the result.

GREGORY, CHESTER A. *Fundamentals of educational measurement.* New York, D. Appleton & Co. 372p. $2.25.

Professor Gregory, professor of school administration and director of the bureau of educational research, University of Oregon, has covered a large amount of material—historical background, formulation of different types of scales and tests, objections stated and answered, and uses of tests possible and desirable. He includes directions for giving different tests, scoring, using the results, their values in guidance, etc. There are chapters on statistical methods, administrative problems, the evolutionary and developmental processes whereby the tests have come into being—all dealt with in non-technical language as far as possible.

MCCALL, WILLIAM A. *How to measure in education.* N. Y., Macmillan Co. 416p. $3.25.

This volume, the results of the scholarship and teaching in Teachers College for years, was developed with the fourfold aim of reviewing the successes and warning against the mistakes of the intelligence testing movement, of helping forward the movement for making teaching a genuine profession, of meeting the needs of educators who are interested to know the how and the why, and of bringing together into one book most of the techniques needed by those engaged in mental measurement. Professor McCall divided the book into three parts, in the first of which he discussed the use of measurements in various fields of education; in the second, he presented a technical, scholarly study of the problems arising from the attempt to organize, validate, and use test materials; and in the third, he furnished much valuable information respecting tabular and graphic methods, statistical methods, and the like.

This volume is a college classroom and laboratory guide and was not planned to carry the enthusiastic but untrained teacher through the mazes of a testing program.

PRESSEY, S. L., and PRESSEY, L. C. *Introduction to the use of standard tests.* Yonkers, N. Y., World Book Co., 1922. 263p. $1.80.

This is an introductory handbook for the use of tests for teachers, principals, and superintendents, and it aims to fit a testing program into a school. Space is given to the use and misuse of tests, to the common sense of statistics, to the tests in the school subjects, and to the tests of mental ability. Directions are given for the formulation, utilization, and standardization of test materials, and the glossary of technical terms is unusually valuable.

RICHARDSON, C. A. *Methods and experiments in mental tests.* Yonkers, N. Y., World Book Co. 94p.

An English writer presents an English viewpoint against an English background, as to the nature, validity, methods of application, and conclusions to be drawn from mental tests. A great deal is said in few words, and the book is impressive in its simplicity and straight-thinking. It may be read with profit by American teachers, since it is based in large part upon the Stanford-Binet and the Terman Group Tests.

TERMAN, L. M., and others. *Intelligence tests and school reorganization.* Yonkers, N. Y., World Book Co., 1922. 111p. Paper, 96c.

Dr. Terman presents in this volume the sub-committee report to the Committee on the Revision of Elementary Education of the National Education Association. The introductory chapter sets forth the problem of individual differences and the place of mental testing in gradation and promotion. Suggestions are offered for an adequate testing program. Then follow five chapters, written by different research experts, detailing the work of reclassification of pupils by means of tests at Oakland, Los Angeles, Des Moines, and Miami, Arizona.

WHIPPLE, GUY M. Intelligence Tests and Their Use. *The twenty-first yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education.* Bloomington, Ill., Public School Pub. Co., 1922. 275p. $1.60.

This is a high-class summary of the intelligence-testing movement. The first part consists of four outstanding chapters, one each by Thorndike, Colvin, Rugg, and Whipple. The second part is devoted to the administrative use of tests and shows how they have been adapted to the needs of many school systems, high schools, junior high schools, normal schools, women's colleges, and colleges and universities. The Yearbook is the best summary up to the date of its publication, February, 1922.

Books of 1923

The output of productive scholarship, setting in strongly in 1920 has continued through the year 1923, with the result that several distinctly worthwhile books have been published this year. Some others have been announced by publishers, but the following are already in the hands of teachers.

DICKSON, VIRGIL E. *Mental tests and the classroom teacher.* Yonkers, N. Y., World Book Co. 231p. $1.80.

Dr. Dickson has been a public-school teacher, a trainer of teachers in a normal school, a city superintendent, and is now director of research and guidance at Oakland and Berkeley. He builds a wealth of experience and excellent scholarship into this book, for he was one of the first to institute an extensive testing program and the *first* to make such a program the basis for a thorough-going reclassification for purposes of instruction. He prepared this book primarily for teachers, hence he follows the topical method of presentation and avoids technical terms. The book is not a manual of instruction in the technique of giving and scoring tests, but proceeds to show (1) why mental tests are needed, (2) what they are like, and (3) how they can be made most useful. A clear-cut unifying principle runs through the volume—that modern American schools require a new and superior instrument as a basis for classification of school

children and that mental tests constitute that instrument. The high spots are too numerous to mention; it is high-spot book, however.

HINES, HARLAN C. *A guide to educational measurement.* Boston, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1923. 270p. $1.90.

This is another in the list of notable textbooks published in the Riverside Textbooks in Education series, under the editorial supervision of Ellwood P. Cubberley. Dr. Hines has presented the results of his scholarship at Iowa University and the University of Washington, and his experience as director of research at Los Angeles. He has divided the book into three parts, first a very simple statistical treatment of the three types of measures required by all workers in educational measurement, second, the measurement of mental ability, with a comprehensive development of the Stanford-Binet scale and the various group tests, and third, a discussion of the various measures of achievement. All the tests for elementary subjects, high-school subjects, and general intelligence are listed, evaluated, and directions furnished for giving, scoring, and evaluating the results. The critical judgment of the author comes into play in the determination of the "Three Foot Shelf of Tests," and the helps in the way of lists of publishers, references, etc., are highly useful.

HINES, HARLAN C. *Measuring intelligence.* Boston, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1923. 146p. $1.20.

The purpose of this little volume in the series of the Riverside Monographs, edited by President Suzzallo, is to present a brief résumé of the aims, principles, problems, and progress of the measurement of intelligence, and to present these facts in a treatment simple enough for the ordinary teacher. It is interesting and well-written, a summary of recent thought along these lines as reflected for the most part in current educational literature. It is a companion for the other volume, in that it is a treatment from a more philosophical viewpoint of the materials covered in the manual of tests.

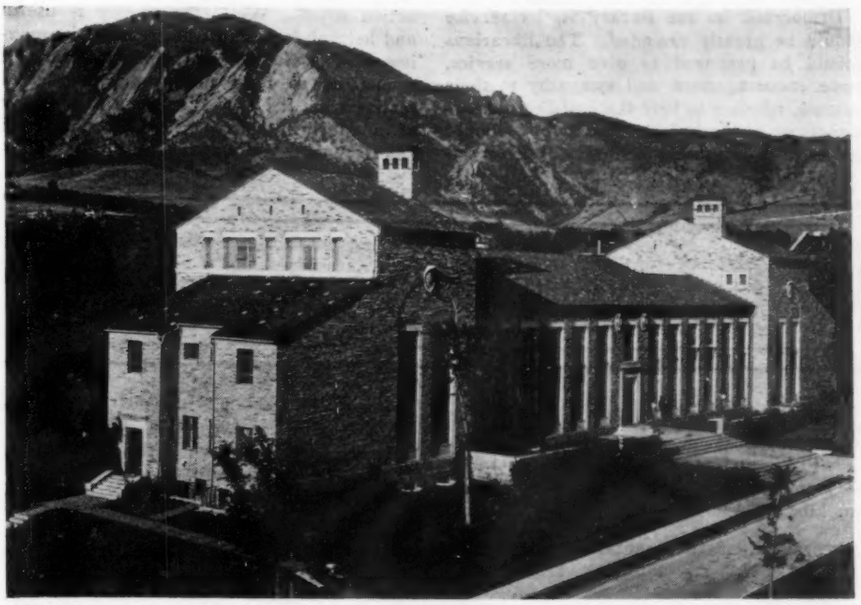
MCCALL, WILLIAM A. *How to experiment in education.* N. Y., Macmillan Co., 1923. 281p. $2.60.

This volume is the first in a new series of books on Education under the editorship of Professor M. V. O'Shea. The author says: "This book is a sort of companion volume for 'How to Measure in Education' and has for its purpose to complete the presentation of the methodology of research. The first book covers descriptive investigations. This book presents the techniques for experimental and casual investigations."

This book is scholarly, the outgrowth of advanced university classwork, excellently fitted to help those interested in the construction and elaboration of test materials, a useful manual of directions for the technician in the field of test construction. For that reason it is technical and too difficult for untrained and unsupervised teachers; it will find its great usefulness in the hands of trained workers.

MONROE, WALTER SCOTT. *An introduction to the theory of educational measurements.* Boston, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1923. 364p. $2.

This is announced as an advanced book, the outgrowth of courses for advanced college and graduate students, designed to enable them to make critical judgments with reference to the usefulness of educational tests. While there is much interesting and valuable material for the untrained worker in this field it presupposes considerable knowledge and is excellent for those prepared to use it.



THE campus of the University of Colorado extends to the foot-hills. Last summer it provided a full-time recreational director to acquaint its students with the wonderful possibilities of its surroundings. This is the University's new arts building.

WOOD, BEN D. *Measurement in higher education.* Yonkers, N. Y., World Book Co. 337p. $2.16.

Dr. Wood, assistant professor of collegiate educational research and assistant to the dean of Columbia College, offers the first book in the field of higher education. The introductory chapter is written by Dr. Terman, who sets forth the need for many studies such as this in the colleges and universities in order that scientific experimentation may be used in the solution of the problems of scholarship in the higher fields. The book is founded upon the Columbia College experiment in which the Thorndike Intelligence Examination for High School Graduates has been in use as a criterion for admission. The need for measures of capacity to accompany the measures of achievement already in use is shown. A considerable part of the book is given to a description of the Thorndike Examination—form, validity, analysis, and a presentation of the scholarship records of those who entered by this examination. The book has a large interest for teachers in general, and one of the best chapters elaborates sixteen principles of educational measurement, principles which hold for all measurements, elementary as well as university. Dr. Wood has written a valuable book, well-written, well-edited; it approaches a difficult field and shows the possibility of using newer and objective means even for college entrance. It is pertinent for high school, normal school, college and university teachers and administrators.

THE Educational Service of the Library—Ignorance is the menace of civilization. If America continues to grow, the minds of her people must grow. And the schools alone cannot satisfy this need for continuing the intellectual growth of American citizens. In America today, 85 per cent of the boys and girls are in school until the age of fourteen. After that, but one in five continues school until the age of 18. Then what happens? A few go on to college or university, and the others do not. Is this the end of their education then? Must their mental growth cease when the school doors close behind them?

There must be some way out. Some way to continue the educational growth of American citizens. And there is a way. That way is the public library. It is America's continuation school. It is the most democratic of American educational institutions. It is free to every person. Color, race, nationality, or creed make no difference. It is free to every person who wishes to read and who is willing to read. If the schools will only teach the reading habit, the library will educate the world, for the public library of America is free to every new idea, free to every fresh point of view; nothing is barred because it is new or radical or different. The public library is free from party politics; it is free from religious intolerance and prejudice. The public library provides information on all sides of every important question—so far as its funds will allow.

The citizen has his duty toward the library. First of all, he should encourage larger appropriations of funds. Too many people are being turned away, because there are not enough copies of certain books to supply the demand, or not enough money to buy all the books that should be on the shelves. More than half the people of the United States do not have library facilities of any kind. The educational facilities of the library have not been recognized as they should be. With that recognition will come greater service.

Democratic as the library is, its service should be greatly extended. The librarians should be prepared to give more service, more encouragement and sympathy to their patrons, whether to help the half-literate foreigner or the scholar. The public should be made to see that the library is a continuation school. While the library is useful and helpful, it has still not reached its maximum of usefulness or helpfulness, and it cannot do so until the people themselves realize what it has to give them in the way of advancing their physical, mental, and moral being.—William Allen White.

GUIDE TO BOOKS

Descriptive List

TITLES and notes in this list are taken from the January *Booklist* of the American Library Association.

LAIMBEER, RICHARD HARPER. Birds I have known. N. Y., Putnam, 1923. 401p. Illus. $4.

Might be called "adventures in friendship with birds," being a bird lover's observations of the lives and habits of birds commonly seen on Long Island. Good full-page illustrations in color and numerous black and white snapshots of birds who, through encouragement and care, lost all fear of their observer. Makes no pretense of authoritative nature study.

LAW, FREDERICK HOUK. Modern essays and stories. N. Y., Century, 1923. 314p. Illus. $1.25.

For use in teaching English composition in high schools. Contains models of the various types of the modern essay and examples of the short story which show its development. These are preceded by introductory notes and followed by study questions, suggestive lists of subjects for imitation, and directions for writing. The author's theory is that familiarity with these literary forms will stimulate an interest in and a desire for written self-expression. A convenient and useful collection.

LLOYD GEORGE, DAVID. Where are we going? N. Y., Doran, 1923. 371p. $3.

A collection of papers and addresses on questions raised by post-war events, especially the peace settlement. While not profound or of any permanent value, it is interesting as a forceful expression of the political convictions of England's war prime minister.

OPPENHEIM, JAMES. Your hidden powers. N. Y., Knopf, 1923. 249p. $2.

In simple, journalistic language its author interprets psychoanalysis, making an application of the new theories to problems of individual and National life.

Contents: Your hidden powers—The four kinds of people—The inner doctor—Quacks and psychoanalysis—Parents and children—The round peg in the square hole—The meaning of a dream—The dark side—The two-faced people—Drink and psychoanalysis—They who feel inferior—Love and marriage—Turning inward—Art—Ways of life—Religion—The fear of death—Civilization—What's America?—The one people—Appendix one: Some questions on analysis—Appendix two: The language of psychoanalysis.

QUINN, VERNON. Beautiful America. N. Y., Stokes, 1923. 333p. Illus. Map. $4.

An agreeably written travel book in which the places of greatest scenic beauty in the States and in Alaska are vividly described. Contains much useful information for the tourist. Well illustrated. Index.

THOMAS, WILLIAM ISAAC. The unadjusted girl; (Criminal science monograph 4). Boston, Little, 1923. 261p. $3.

Popular and interesting case material from records, newspapers, clippings, letters, and personal interviews relating to delinquent girls. Its values is in the angle of approach—treating the girl as a product of conditions which surround her. Style easy and readable. Large libraries.

VAN LOON, HENDRIK WILLEM. The story of the Bible. N. Y., Boni & Liveright, 1923. 452p. Illus. $5.

An animated story told from a strictly personal and modern scientific viewpoint, not, the author assures us, intended to supplant the *Bible*, but rather in the hope that children will thereby be led to the King James version itself. The orthodox will object to the liberties of omission and to the rationalistic interpretation and there is a wide divergence of opinion as to its suitability for children. The illustrations are as illuminating as those in the author's *Story of mankind*, and there is a reading list compiled by Leonore St. John Power, of the New York Public library.

WILLIAMS, ROTH. The League of Nations today. N. Y., Holt, 1923. 223p. $2.25.

A practical discussion from the point of view of an Englishman and a strong upholder of the League. Summarizes the working of the League and what it has accomplished and discusses its present status and the attitudes of Germany, Russia, and the United States, advocating that Great Britain take the lead and that the League be employed to bring to a final close the inadequate peace settlement. Appendix contains useful statistical material. Index.

Classified List

THIS list is based on books received at THE JOURNAL office, supplemented by information from publishers.

Reference Books

BARTHOLOMEW, J. G. *A literary and historical atlas of Europe.* N. Y., Dutton, 1923. 254p. $1.

Technical books of 1922; a selection. Brooklyn, N. Y., Pratt Inst. Free Library, 1923. 28p. Paper, 10c. Single copies, gratis to free libraries.

Elementary School Texts

CASTLE, A. W. *Reader and guide for new Americans; bks. 1 and 2.* Illus. N. Y., Macmillan. 286p. 323p. $1. $1.20.

CENTER, STELLA STEWART. *Workaday English; a book to stimulate the interest of working boys and girls.* Illus. N. Y., Century. 211p. 90c.

Safety education; a plan book for the elementary school. Chicago Board of Education. 160p. 25c.

SMITH, HARRIOTT, and WALKER, DARTHULA. *The geography of Texas.* Illus. Boston, Ginn, 1923. 327p. $1.20.

Children's Books

BARRY, FLORENCE VALENTINE. *A century of children's books.* N. Y., Doran, 1923. 257p. $2.

The Boy Scouts' yearbook. Illus. N. Y., Appleton, 1923. 256p. $2.50.

CAVILEER, JOHN W. *Model boat building for boys.* Illus. Milwaukee, Wis.., Bruce Pub. Co., 1923. 72p. $1.35.

COUZENS, REGINALD C. *The stories of the months and days.* Illus. N. Y., Stokes, 1923. 160p. $2.

ELIOT, ETHEL COOK. *The little black coal.* Illus. N. Y., Stokes, 1923. 109p. 75c.

GAYLORD, ILSIEN NATHALIE. *Little sea-folk.* Illus. Boston, Little, 1923. 213p. $1.50.

HEWINS, CAROLINE M. *A traveler's letters to boys and girls.* Illus. N. Y., Macmillan, 1923. 184p. $2.25.

HUGHES, THOMAS. *Tom Brown's school days.* Illus. Philadelphia, Jacobs, 1923. 312p. $1.50.

PHILLIPS, ETHEL CALVERT. *A story of Nancy Hanks.* Illus. Boston, Houghton Mifflin, 1923. 125p. $1.50.

Books to Grow On

Educational Books of 1923

Brim—Rural education
Charters—Curriculum construction
Clement—Curriculum making in secondary schools
Cubberley—The principal and his school
Dickson—Mental tests and the classroom teacher
Gates—Psychology for students of education
Gesell—The Pre-school child
Groszmann—Parents' manual
Grunberg, editor—Outlines of child study
Hollingworth—Special talents and defects
Horn—American elementary school
Hine—Guide to educational measurements
Kilpatrick—Source book of the philosophy of education
McCall—How to measure in education
McDougall—Outlines of psychology
McMurry—How to organize the curriculum
Meikeljohn—Freedom and the college
Mirick—Progressive education
Monroe—Introduction to the theory of educational measurements
Mother's letters to a schoolmaster
N. E. A. Dept. of Elementary School Principals, and yearbook—Problems of the elementary school principal
Parker—Types of elementary learning and teaching
Phillips—Modern methods and the elementary curriculum
Pintner—Intelligence testing
Roback—Behaviorism and psychology
Seashore—Introduction to psychology
Whipple—Problems in educational psychology

Prepared by Anna L. French, librarian of the Western State Normal School, Kalamazoo, Michigan.

RIGGS, RENÉE. *Animal stories from Eskimo land.* Illus. N. Y., Stokes, 1923. 113p. $1.
ST. NICHOLAS. *Stories about horses.* Illus. N. Y., Century, 1923. 193p. $1.25.
TASSIN, ALGERNON DE VIVIER, and MAURICE, A. B. *A child's story of American literature.* Illus. N. Y., Macmillan, 1923. 353p. $2.25.

Education and Philosophy

ASQUITH, CYNTHIA M. E. *The child at home.* N. Y., Scribner, 1923. 278p. $1.75.
BAILEY, LIBERTY HYDE. *The seven stars.* N. Y., Macmillan, 1923. 165p. $1.50.
BEEBY, DANIEL J. *The teaching of spelling.* Chicago, Ill., Plymouth Press, 1923. 39p. Paper, 35c.
BENNETT, ARNOLD. *How to make the best of life.* N. Y., Doran, 1923. 224p. $2.
BODE, BOYD H. *Fundamentals of education.* N. Y., Macmillan, 1922. 245p. $1.40.
BURKE, AGNES, and others. *A conduct curriculum for the kindergarten and first grade.* Illus. N. Y., Scribner's, 1923. 123p. $1.25.
CLEVELAND FOUNDATION EDUCATIONAL COMMISSION. *The professional education of teachers in Cleveland; report and recommendations of an educational commission appointed and financed by the Cleveland Foundation.* Cleveland, Ohio, Bd. of Educ., 1922. 101p. Paper.
DAVIS, CALVIN OLIN. *Junior high school education.* Yonkers, N. Y., World Bk. Co., 1924. 451p. $2.20.
DRURY, SAMUEL S. *Backbone; the development of character.* N. Y., Macmillan, 1923. 216p. $1.50.
DUKE, CHARLES W. *Getting ahead as a teacher.* Harrisburg, Pa., Handy Bk. Corporation, 1923. 104p. $1.25.
ELLIS, DON CARLOS, and THORNBOROUGH, LAURA. *Motion pictures in education; a practical handbook for users of visual aids.* N. Y., Crowell, 1923. 284p. $2.50.
GOLLOMB, JOSEPH. *Working through at Lincoln High.* N. Y., Macmillan, 1923. 228p. $1.75.
GROVES, ERNEST R. *Personality and social adjustment.* N. Y., Longmans, Green, 1923. 296p. $1.40.
GRUENBERG, BENJAMIN CHARLES. *Parents and sex education; 1. for parents of children under school age.* N. Y., Am. Social Hygiene Assn., 1923. 106p. $1.
LUCKEY, G. W. A. *Outlines of education systems and school conditions in Latin America.* (U. S. Bur. of Educ. Bulletin, 1923, No. 44.) Supt. of Docs., Govt. Pr. Off., Wash., D. C., 1923. 111p. 15c.
MARCHANT, SIR JAMES. *The claims of the coming generation.* N. Y., Dutton, 1923. 175p. $2.50.
PENNSYLVANIA DEPT. OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION. *Report on the school plant survey and the school building program for City of Reading, Berks County, Pennsylvania.* Reading, Pa., Board of School Directors, 1923. 222p. $2.
PICKETT, LALLA H., and BOREN, DURALDE. *Early childhood education.* Yonkers, N. Y., World Bk. Co., 1923. 220p. $2.
RILEY, JOHN L. *Administration and organization of immigrant education in the State of N. Y.* Albany, N. Y., Univ. of State of N. Y. Press, 1922. 35p. Paper, 10c.
ROBINSON, JAMES HARVEY. *The humanizing of knowledge.* N. Y., Doran, 1923. 119p. $1.50.
SPRADING, CHARLES T. *Freedom and its fundamentals.* Los Angeles, Calif., Libertarian Pub. Co., 1923. 255p. $1.50.
WILLIAMS, TOM ALFRED. *Dreads and besetting fears.* Boston, Little, 1923. 217p. $1.75.

Health, Science, and Mathematics

CALDWELL, OTIS W., and SLOSSON, EDWIN E. *Science remaking the world.* Garden City, N. Y., Doubleday, Page, 1923. 292p. $2.50.
DERIEUX, SAMUEL ARTHUR. *Animal personalities.* Illus. Garden City, N. Y., Doubleday, 1923. 298p. $2.
GRIGGS, ROBERT FISKE. *The valley of ten thousand smokes.* Illus. Wash., D. C., National Geographic Soc., 1922. 341p. $3.
LATTER, OSWALD H. *Elementary zoology.* N. Y., Dutton, 1923. 383p. $4.80.

Books to Grow On

For children in second grade

Baldwin—Fairy reader.
Bass—Stories of animal life.
Brooke—Golden Goose book.
Brooks—Stories of the red children.
Browning—Pied Piper of Hamelin.
Carrick—Picture tales.
Chance—Little folks of many lands.
Cooke—Nature myths and stories for little children.
Cox—Brownie books.
Fox—Indian primer.
Hopkins—The sandman, his farm stories.
Lang—Cinderella.
Lansing—Rhymes and stories.
Lindsay—Bobby and the big road.
Lucia—Peter and Polly in winter.
Meyer—Orchard and meadow.
Orton—Prince and Rover of Cloverfield farm.
Peary—Snow baby.
Perkins—Dutch twins.
Pyle—Careless Jane.
Scudder—Book of fables and folk stories.
Smith, M. E. E.—Eskimo stories.
Smith, E. B.—Farm book.
Stevenson—Child's garden of verses.
Treadwell—Reading literature, second reader.

This list represents the combined judgment of workers with children in America's largest public libraries. Permission is here given to reprint the list, referring to its source in THE JOURNAL of the National Education Association. Children vary so widely in reading ability and interests that the books listed for each grade are useful also for adjacent grades. Information about many more excellent books may be had from the school or public library.

Art, Music, and Games

COLLINS, FRANCIS ARNOLD. *Mountain climbing.* Illus. N. Y., Century, 1923. 314p. $2.
DURYEA, MINGA POPE. *Gardens in and about town.* Illus. N. Y., Dutton, 1923. 183p. $5.
HACKER, FRED A., and EAMES, PRESCOTT W. *How to put on an amateur circus.* Illus. Chicago, Denison, 1923. 112p. $1.75.
PIRANI, EUGENIO. *Secrets of the success of great musicians.* Illus. Philadelphia, Presser, 1922. 321p. $2.

Language and Literature

BALD, MARJORY AMELIA. *Women-writers of the nineteenth century.* N. Y., Macmillan, 1923. 288p. $4.20.
BARROWS, SARAH TRACY. *English pronunciation for foreigners.* Illus. Sacramento, Calif., State Supt. of Public Instruction. 35p. Paper.
COBB, IRVIN SHREWSBURY. *A laugh a day keeps the doctor away.* N. Y., Doran, 1923. 246p. $2.50.
DRINKWATER, JOHN. *The outline of literature, vol. 2.* Illus. N. Y., Putnam, 1923. 686p. $4.50.
ELLIOTT, MAUD. *Three generations.* Boston, Little, 1923. 418p. $4.
ERSKINE, JOHN. *The literary discipline.* N. Y., Duffield, 1923. 231p. $1.50.
HASTINGS, WILLIAM T. *Syllabus of American literature.* Chicago, Univ. of Chicago Press. 101p. 78c.
LEACOCK, STEPHEN BUTLER. *College days.* N. Y., Dodd, 1923. 169p. $1.25.
LOCKLEY, LAWRENCE CAMPBELL, and LOCKLEY, PHYLLIS HARRINGTON. *Faulty paragraphs for composition classes.* San Francisco, Calif., Harr, Wagner, 1923. 132p. Cloth, $1.
STEVENSON, ROBERT LOUIS. *Complete poems.* N. Y., Scribner, 1923. 528p. $4.
Svodoba; interpreter for Russians to learn English. Milwaukee, Wis., Casper, 1923. 355p. 90c.
WALDRON, WEBB. *We explore the Great Lakes.* Illus. N. Y., Century, 1923. 384p. $3.50.

History, Economics, and Statecraft

GARLAND, HAMLIN. *The book of the American Indian.* Illus. N. Y., Harper, 1923. 274p. $6.
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How Shall Debates Be Judged

P. CASPAR HARVEY

Debate Coach, William Jewell College, Liberty, Missouri

ONE REASON that debating has not the high place it naturally should have in interscholastic and intra-mural activities lies in the fact that judges of debates are called in to do one thing and then do another. The result is unsatisfactory, and those who would support debate unconsciously feel that something is wrong. Their interest is lost. Forensics suffer and unthinking persons blame this lack of support on everything else but the proper cause—poor judging of the contests.

There is no one who will deny that generally athletics have a greater part in school life than do forensics. No one would take anything from the glamor that surrounds the athletic teams. Part of the high place that athletics have in school life is due to the very nature of the competition. Human nature is so constituted that everyone enjoys a contest. Toward the race for the presidency every four years and toward a street dog fight everyone turns his attention. Why not toward forensic contests? In a debate, months of effort have been concentrated into a few minutes of expression. Is not that contest enough when brain and argumentative skill meet in contest?

In an athletic contest, the skill of the players is in competition. Everyone, both onlookers and players, know how the game is progressing. Side-line activity and interest is kept keyed up by this knowledge. In an athletic contest it does not matter what an official thinks of the value of the use of certain tactics, but it does matter how far those tactics actually get the team using them. A football referee may think that under certain circumstances a forward pass should not be used. This does not disqualify him as an official. When a team uses a forward pass and gains fifty-six yards, the official *must* grant the gain in yardage. *This is not true in debate.* Most debates are not judged by persons who are selected for their prominence and reputed fairness. How far would athletics get with such a system of judging contests?

James M. O'Neill, professor of rhetoric and oratory in the University of Wisconsin, who is probably the greatest single expert judge of inter-university debate in the United States, says on page 53 of his book, Argumentation and Debate, that "in an intercollegiate debate the decision should go *always* on the skill of the debaters, *never* on the strength of the case (except insofar as this is indication of the skill of the debaters). The decision to mean anything at all must be based on the skill shown in debating—not on the strength of the evidence or the merits of the case * * * Judges should know enough about debating to render a decision on ability alone."

Know enough about debating—not anything else! When a debate in which the contestants are students is judged by anyone other than a person possessing the single qualification set forth by O'Neill and a decision given, those debaters have their sense of right warped. If they win, they have unconscious training in manipulation; if they lose, they feel that merit does not win and the next time will seek that something else. School heads who do not watch closely the selection of judges in forensic contests are not only doing the cause of forensics an injury in their respective schools, but they are also giving their students training in a desire to use intrigue, appeals to prejudice, and trickery in order to win.

How should a debate be judged? Have you ever seen a debate where an usher collects three slips of paper from three members of the audience, delivers them to the chairman, and then the chairman reads them out? And that is all. Unless it is a decidedly one-sided contest, many persons doubt the correctness of the decision. Can this be avoided? Yes, and easily.

Have you ever seen a debate in which some recognized successful debate coach is the single expert judge? Have you seen him come to the platform after the debate and from carefully taken notes explain the debate from a skillful, disinterested viewpoint? This is the only way to have a debate and have it decided as nearly correctly as it is humanly possible to decide it. The single expert judge may take ten minutes to half an hour to sift through the various phases of the contest. He keeps the audience on the edge of the seats by withholding the decision and carefully balancing his remarks. No audience ever goes away dissatisfied, and the defeated team, and also every one present, knows why it lost.

The single expert judge cannot let anything but skill in debate assist in arriving at the decision, because he must explain it to the audience or to the teams in conference afterwards. This is the method of judging debates that is being used by more enlightened coaches of debate. Of course, if the person acting as a single judge is a poor judge, the contest is as much a farce as when three prominent men vote more or less blindly, but the debaters and the audience know exactly how foolish have been the judge's ideas, because he has been forced to appear before them all and to explain. Debating has not been injured, and the debaters have not been trained to give respect to trickery or prejudice; rather they have been given an opportunity to recognize these sinister sisters.

Every coach of debate knows that instructions to judges are useless. They hamper and make uncertain the poor judge, and the good one does not need them. Most instructions to debate judges ask that they do not consider the merits of the question. It cannot be helped. This is not lack of honesty on the part of the unskilled judge, not at all. It is merely human that he judge on what he can judge on—his opinion of the merits of the question, with a slight consideration for the side having what he considers the more forceful speakers.

What to consider in giving a decision on a debate has not been touched in this article. It has been written to call attention to the main reason why debate does not occupy the high place in school life that it should and to make an appeal for the proper judging of such forensic contests.

How many good judges of debate are there? How many first-class football officials are there in your State? Very few. And really good debate judges are still fewer in number. At that, football officials receive, many times, handsome fees, and in many circles debate judges are beginning to receive not only their expenses but also adequate fees for their services.

IT is possible to be so sophisticated that the naive courage to experiment will be lost. This does not mean that education is to be disregarded; it means only that it must be improved to the end that it will make men more interested in doing new things than in simply knowing about old things.—Edward A. Filene, in the *Bulletin of the San Francisco Grade Teachers Association.*

The National Illiteracy Conference

FIVE MILLION American citizens, according to the 1920 Census, were confessed illiterates, and if each individual were put to the test of reading simple paragraphs in the newspapers and writing simple sentences, this number would probably be doubled. *Every State has its quota of illiterates.* Through the untiring efforts of the leaders of the movement to blot out illiteracy, it has been considered by many State legislatures in the past few years; now it has come to be recognized as a National problem.

The first National illiteracy conference was held in Washington, D. C., January 11-14. It was sponsered by the United States Bureau of Education, the General Federation of Women's Clubs, the American Legion, and the National Education Association. The fact that these four great organizations saw fit to plan a conference which was attended by delegates from practically every State in the Union shows how far the leaders in the illiteracy movement have brought it from a stage of volunteer effort to a stage of organized and publicly supported endeavor.

The chief aim of the first National conference was to provide that every man and woman in the United States who cannot already do so be taught to speak, read, and write the English language. The personnel of the conference was of special interest. The four coöperating agencies were represented by their National officers, all of whom spoke at the opening session and presided over the succeeding sessions. These national leaders included John J. Tigert, Mrs. Thomas G. Winter, Mrs. John D. Sherman, John R. Quinn, Olive M. Jones, and Cora Wilson Stewart. Among others in attendance were: Members of Congress, State, county, and city superintendents of schools, State directors of Americanization, State directors, and section chairmen of the General Federation of Women's Clubs, officers of the American Legion, and public-school principals, supervisors, and classroom teachers.

This great conference was the result of the patient work of such pioneers in the illiteracy movement as Mrs. Stewart, who, by establishing the Moonlight Schools of Kentucky, demonstrated that illiterate adults are interested in learning to read, that they can learn, that they will avail themselves of the opportunity to learn when it is offered them, and that the results are worthwhile. These facts have been established, hence no time was spent at the National Conference in discussing whether or not illiterates should be made literate—instead, the great problem before the conference was: How can every man, woman, and child in America be taught to read?

IS KNOWLEDGE disseminated among the masses of a people a Nation's chief asset? A leading economist says, "Yes." Scientists may discover physical laws; inventors may create marvelous machinery for increasing human efficiency; economists may develop workable theories of money getting and money spending; statesmen may formulate National and international policies; physicians may discover ways of developing and maintaining physical fitness; idealists may visualize a Nation freed from superstition and fear and inspired by beauty, truth, and service. The press may make available the findings of the world's scientists, but can the individual citizen profit by them? He must be able to read. That is the great key. Democratic society cannot afford not to give this key to every citizen. The magnitude of the problem and the forces at work on it are described in this report of the Illiteracy Conference.

The following phases of the problem were discussed: (1) Organization, management, and financing of movements for the eradication of illiteracy; (2) the teaching staff—how to secure competent paid and volunteer teachers; (3) courses of study and methods of instruction—what materials are most in use, suitable textbooks, and how to secure them, what to teach adults, and methods of instruction that will make learning for adults easy; (4) publicity—national campaigns and how to secure effective publicity; and (5) recommendations for State action.

Delegates commenting on the Conference are unanimous in saying: "We are highly gratified at the attendance and at the recommendations made. We have learned how excellent work has been accomplished in other States. We are going to adapt the same plans to fit the needs of our State. We are convinced that in time all States should introduce literacy tests for voting." One well-known club woman said, "I have gained more practical suggestions from this National Illiteracy Conference than from any conference I have ever attended."

The recommendations made by the conference will doubtless determine many State policies and will stimulate and direct the thinking of men and women in the removal of the illiteracy menace. The following are indicative of the practical recommendations made:

"That the removal of illiteracy—juvenile and adult—is naturally and logically the business of the public schools. Consequently, the age limitation of free public-school education should be removed. School boards should be required to organize day or night classes for adults, when a certain minimum number apply for instruction."

"The teacher's work in the removal of illiteracy is a part of the larger program of adult education, leading to more complete citizenship training. The ultimate objective is a more efficient workman, a more intelligent voter, and a more cultured home. Therefore, the teacher's responsibility does not end with teaching adults to read and write, but with the certainty that these tools are being used by their students to develop themselves as better and better citizens."

"Efforts for the removal of illiteracy, undertaken by public-school authorities, should depend primarily upon the extra service of regular public-school teachers. This extra service may be rendered in the late afternoon, following the regular school session, or in the evening in classes or individual instruction. The services of the teachers in the rural districts may well be supplemented by the efforts of home demonstration agents and by county nurses in reaching illiterate mothers."

"In many instances urgent conditions will require the full-time services of competent teachers for longer or shorter periods."

"The ideal for adult illiteracy work conducted by public-school authorities is to have the extra service performed by the teachers on a paid basis. Obviously, special full-time teachers should receive adequate pay."

"In the selection of teachers serving public-school authorities and the voluntary agencies, care should be exercised to choose persons who are capable, reliable, patient, sympathetic, tactful, enthusiastic, and vigorous. Special training devoted to the problems of instructing illiterate adults should be required of all teachers."

The Junior Red Cross in Education

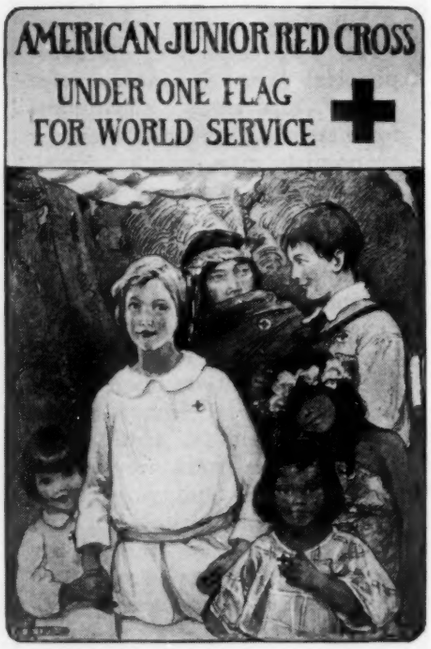
ARTHUR WILLIAM DUNN

National Director, American Junior Red Cross
Washington, D. C.

THE school's obligation to community and Nation is clearly defined. Its resources and the time and energy of pupil and teacher are taxed to the utmost in fulfilling this obligation. No enterprise or movement, however meritorious in itself, should be imposed upon the school from without, nor accepted by the school, that does not contribute positively to the effective performance of its sole function—that of education. This was clearly recognized and affirmed by the American Red Cross authorities in the period immediately following the war, when the question of the continuance of the Junior Red Cross was under discussion. The present thriving condition of the American Junior Red Cross, and of the Junior Red Cross in many other countries, is due to the conviction of school authorities and teachers of its genuine assistance to them in their work of education. One of the foremost school superintendents in the United States, in an address at the World Education Conference in San Francisco last July, said: "In order to grasp the great significance for education of the Junior Red Cross, it is only necessary to appreciate fundamentally the contribution it has made owing to the types of effort it has rendered possible. Those who realize this will never be willing to see this organization withdraw its influence from the school until ways have been found to secure without it all of the values for the children of America which it has brought and is still offering."

In the first place, the varied activities of the Junior Red Cross fit admirably into that theory of education, generally accepted in the United States, by which "purposeful activities" on the part of the children are made the point of departure and the organizing principle of instruction. It is the theory that instruction in oral or written language, arithmetic, geography, manual training, and other subjects will be more effective when the children have immediate *use* for the various kinds of information and skill involved in connection with ends to be achieved in which they have a vital interest.

It is on the side of social education, however, that the Junior Red Cross activities are especially useful. An American educator has said that "the true end of public education is neither life, nor a living, but *living together;*" and it is now quite generally accepted by our educators that social education by



the schools can be effective only when textbook instruction is supplemented by social activities and interpreted in terms of the children's social experience; and that the children must have as broad experience as possible in their own lives, of the common purposes and the interdependence of social life, and in coöperation for social ends. Such experience the local, National, and international activities of the Junior Red Cross afford to a unique extent.

In the second place, the Junior Red Cross furnishes enrolled schools with valuable materials for the supplementation and vitalization of textbook instruction. The more important of these are furnished, first, by the *Junior Red Cross News;* second, through international school correspondence; third, through the exchange of exhibits, which is an extension of the correspondence idea to include a wide variety of objects illustrative of life and environment in the several countries; fourth, by means of a series of moving-picture films presenting scenes from European countries.

In the third place, there is the spiritualizing influence which the Junior Red Cross introduces into the educational process. The Junior Red Cross places at the disposal of the schools a means of implanting a conception of service as the most essential factor in social and civic life; of demonstrating that a continuous exchange of service and a habitual cooperation in service for the common good is the key to effective community life and to good citizenship under normal everyday conditions, and a preventive of those social ills which the Red Cross seeks to assuage.

In the fourth place, there is the nationalizing influence of the Junior Red Cross. It places at the disposal of the educational system in the United States an organization of 5,000,000 children under the leadership of 125,000 teachers, in as many schoolrooms, in every State and Territory of the United States, in city and in rural schools, including native Americans and foreign-born, *all working together consciously for National purposes and ideals.*

Finally, the Junior Red Cross offers to the schools a mechanism and a program, unique in the history of the world, for the promotion of a phase of education that is now commanding the attention of educators in the United States, and throughout the world—namely, an education that will effectively promote international understanding and friendship.

THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION needs your assistance. Its great program of service is financed by membership fees. It cannot surrender its independence by accepting money from other agencies. The two-dollar fees sent by the classroom teachers are an expression of their loyalty, devotion, and vision. The Association has less than 150,000 teachers enrolled—one fifth of the army of teachers in the United States. To which group do you belong? If not a member, why not? Address J. W. Crabtree, Secretary, National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street Northwest, Washington, D. C.

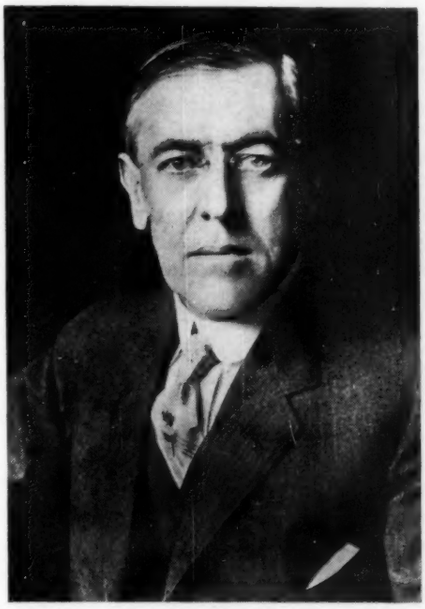
Woodrow Wilson—The Educator

WOODROW WILSON, the statesman, overshadows Woodrow Wilson, the educator, in popular accounts that now crowd the articulate air, the newspapers, and the magazines, but educator he was in the fullest and most significant sense of the term. It would be wholesome if those who practice the profession of education could study his great life not so much by reading what others write about him as by studying the things that Mr. Wilson himself did and wrote. The task would be pleasant and profitable for it is doubtful if any other modern master of the English language has left so much that is beautiful and rich and stimulating.

Mr. Wilson was an educator in three senses. He was an educator as everyone who teaches or administers schools is an educator. At the age of thirty, in 1886, we find him establishing himself as associate professor of history and political science at Bryn Mawr, where he had been called the year before from his post-graduate work at Johns Hopkins University. In 1888 he began a similar service at Wesleyan University, Connecticut. In 1890 he was called to the chair of jurisprudence at Princeton from which he had graduated in 1879. These were years of intense activity. While holding this chair Mr. Wilson rendered many other professional services which were recognized and honored with several degrees.

He was an inspiring teacher. His classrooms were crowded and his influence remarkable. Students were fascinated by his eloquence and aroused to a sense of responsibility for their place in the life of their country. He became president of Princeton in 1902 and created there the machinery for realizing an educational ideal he had stated years before. He believed that wide and intelligent reading is the heart of university culture and that no talking about books could take the place of getting inside them. He believed that tutors could organize students into groups according to their tastes and guide and stimulate them to sharpen their minds and steady their nerves by liberal contact with great writings—that these tutors "Could not only get the tasks performed, but relieve them of the hateful appearance of being tasks, and cheer and enrich the whole life of the university." This plan Wilson—the president of Princeton — established as the well-known preceptorial system. It contains the germ of sound educational practice, which even the elementary school teacher can use with profit—the idea of creating a community of interest among pupils that will lead them to set tasks for themselves.

Woodrow Wilson was a practical educational philosopher. He gave much thought to the relation of education to the life of the individual and society. He believed that liberal education ought to be required of students in law, medicine, and theology. His clear analysis of the reasons for that belief are found in an address before the International Congress of Education at Chicago in 1893. He urged that a few independent professional schools lead the way by closing their doors "to all who have not a first-rate college training." During the thirty years since then professional schools have greatly increased their requirements for liberal education as a necessary foundation. Teacher-training institutions also are demanding a more liberal mastery of the history, the literature, the ideals, and the occupations of society on the part of those who are preparing to teach the younger generation in our public schools.



THE DEATH of Woodrow Wilson on February 3, though expected, cast over the entire world the gloom that accompanies the passing of a great man. In keeping with the last few years of his life was the unostentatious burial in the crypt of the Cathedral of Saints Peter and Paul, at Washington, D. C. The remains of our War President may in time be removed elsewhere, but for the present it is fitting that the National Capital—the scene of his greatest service to his country and to the world—should be his resting place.

The mission of the university in society was a subject to which Wilson gave much thought. He believed that the college is one phase of our specialized life with a specific mission, that it should give men "elasticity of faculty and breadth of vision, so that they shall have a surplus of mind to expend, not upon their profession only, for its liberalization and enlargement, but also upon the broader interests which lie about them, in the spheres in which they are to be, not breadwinners merely, but citizens as well, and in their own hearts, where they are to grow to the stature of real nobility. It is this free capital of mind the world most stands in need of—this free capital that awaits investment in undertakings, spiritual as well as material, which advance the race and help all men to a better life."

Mr. Wilson's fine conception of the high mission of the university did not lessen his appreciation of the dignity and nobility of toil with the hands, provided heart and conscience went into it.

Finally, Woodrow Wilson was an educator as every great statesman is an educator. He led people everywhere to higher levels of thinking. He seemed during the thrilling war years to express, as if he had had a revelation, the pent-up aspirations of the multitudes as Lincoln had expressed them a half century before. Little wonder that, having his understanding of the great sweep of human history with its terrific battles for the right to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness, he felt the compelling obligation to fight for a better dispensation—to insist that the sacrifices of men who had fought and died under his leadership should be rewarded by the end of war—by the creation of social machinery to carry on the common services of mankind without friction and catastrophe. Schools exist that intelligence may govern the destinies of men in their affairs as nations as well as individuals. The five million teachers of the world will not forget that the modern knight who fought for this ideal most valiantly was a teacher.

Mrs. Snaffy, Psycho-Analyst

LAURA B. EVERETT and ELIZABETH A. EVERETT

2632 Regent Street, Berkeley, California

NO, Artie Mesia, I won't give you five dollars to get pizcho-analyzed when I can do it myself while you peel the potatoes at the same time. I ain't read them twelve lessons in the evening paper for nothing. Knowin you as I do, I can pizcho-analyze you bettern a stranger could."

Mrs. Snaffy gave the finishing touches to the pudding and turned again toward her daughter. "I can tell you what type you are, Artie Mesia, jest as well as that pizcho-analyzer down town could. It was in the second lesson in the paper. You're the alimentive type. Now don't look worried. It's nothing against you. It jest means that you're nice and comfortable and good to every body."

Mrs. Snaffy paused in the blending of hard sauce to turn a maternal ear toward the back door and to ask, "Most done with the coal? What? Mince pie? I believe that boy's got a mince-pie complex inherited from your pa, Artie. You take Reggie the piece that's ready cut."

"Now let's see, you're a nice girl with only a little complex, and I'm going to tell you how to manage that. You don't think enough of yourself, and you get your feelins hurt. That's your complex.

"When you go to school in your blue skirt and middy, you're jest as good as the girl that has a two-hundred-dollar coat. You jest say to yourself, 'I'm a American and I had a bath this morning. It's wrong for me to look down on folks what ain't. Also I don't need to feel that anybody has any call to look down on me. I'm a American and I've had a bath.' Jest you keep that in mind.

"Artie Mesia, I'm doing this jest for you. I wouldn't do it this way for Sophronisba, but you have a mite of a inferiority complex, which she ain't. Now you wouldn't look down on anybody and be a snob."

"No, Ma," Artie Mesia spoke slowly, "I think it's awful to be stuck up."

"Well then, you mustn't think folks is lookin down on you, or you're makin snobs of 'em when maybe they ain't. Now you say that ev'ry day when you get in sight of the schoolhouse, 'I'm a American and I've had a bath'; an if a girl don't treat you right, jest stand there and analyze her. Think, 'Why should she be a patronizin of me? Ain't it too bad she's got that kind of obnormality to contend with! I'm normal.' You jest think that, and you won't be complexed any more."

"Ma," asked Artie Mesia, with interest, "couldn't I get a book and read it for myself?"

Mrs. Snaffy considered for a moment; then she spoke judicially, "No, not yet. In time they'll get it rid up. It's sech a new subject. It's like when you bore a well, the first water's part mud. There ain't no real way yet of x-rayin folks' minds, and most of them books make you think that the men that made the experiments in pizcho-analyzin wan't interested in anything in morals that didn't smell like a glue factory. Some of their books ain't fit for man or beast. I've read 'em while I waited for my change at Nickel's. Some things they say, f'rinstance that ev'ry man wants to marry his mother-in-law, is about as likely as Edgrallin Poe's story 'bout the man engaged to his great-great-grandmother that you brought home from school. I mean that glasses story."

"Yes, the name is *Spectacles*. I liked it."

"Of course you did, Artie Mesia, jest because it's so awful improbable. Accordin to the analyzers, nothin' too bad to be the likeliest thing there is. There's a sayin about the devil's not bein so black as he's painted. If some of them analyzer books is true, the best folks there is, is a sight worsen the worst ones *you* ever heard tell of.

"But pizcho-analysis does explain a lot of things we haven't had no names for. I'll say that for it. Now I'd noticed lots of sublimations, but I never knew what to call 'em till I studied them twelve lessons.

"What's it like, Ma? Did I ever see one?"

"Course you have, Artie Mesia. W'y, it jest means makin over into something else, like I sublimated my wedding dress over into your party dress. Most school teachers are sublimated-like. Now think, did you ever have a teacher that you didn't love?"

"No, 'cept Mrs. Dibbins. It was kind of hard to love her."

"And how many married teachers have you had?"

"Jest her and Mrs. Welch."

"Well, the teachers you've had that never was married, they was sublimated into mothers to you school children, because they loved children. Mrs. Welch, she was a real mother and a sublimated one, too, and Mrs. Dibbins was a sure-enough mother, but marrying and havin children of her own wasn't enough to make her a real mother. I spose she was born a old maid. It's funny, but the real dyed-in-the-skin old maids I've known have most of 'em been married women, and one was a married man.

"We'll take the analyzin' jest as fast as you can work it out. You'll be ready for the next thing, Artie Mesia, jest as soon as you get shet of your complex."

FOR A SECRETARY OF EDUCATION—The Senate Committee on Education and Labor, of which Mr. Borah is chairman, is conducting hearings on a bill presented by Senator Sterling, "to create a department of education, to authorize the appropriation of money to encourage the States in the promotion and support of education."

Nothing more important could be done by the Congress now in session than to enact such a bill into law. It is futile to fight over the details of the measure. It is unfair of the objectors to the bill to mask their opposition under the disguise of economy, unequal distribution of Federal moneys, defense of States' rights and opposition to further centralization of government, when as a matter of fact the objectors have ulterior motives for their opposition.

Everything could be stricken out of the bill beyond the enacting clause quoted and the provision of Section 1, establishing a Secretary of Education as a member of the President's Cabinet, leaving the details of organization and activity to the new Executive Department when duly created and functioning. The one thing to be assured is the creation of a department of education and so to register America's appraisal of the importance of education to a self-governing, self-directing democracy.

Surely, if a referendum could be secured to discover the Nation's opinion on the subject of EDUCATION AS A NATIONAL CONCERN, there is no doubt that the Nation would demand a department of education headed by a secretary of education, a member of the President's Cabinet.

The fundamental education of the entire people is the most pressing task before this Nation *as a Nation*.—From an editorial in the *Washington Herald* and other Hearst newspapers, February, 1924.

The Education Bill Advances

HEARINGS on the Sterling-Reed Education Bill were held before the Committee on Education in the Senate, January 22 to 25. A clear statement was made of the reasons for the creation of a Federal Department of Education with a Secretary in the President's Cabinet, for the creation of a National Council of Education to advise with the Secretary, and for the authorization of Federal aid to encourage the States in the removal of illiteracy, the Americanization of the foreign born, physical and health education, the training of teachers, and the equalization of educational opportunities. The testimony of expert witnesses was supported by a wealth of charts and figures prepared by the Research Division of the National Education Association. The published reports of these hearings will be a veritable encyclopedia of information on the needs of the schools.

There have also been hearings before the joint congressional committee on the reorganization of the Executive Departments. On January 25 and 26, representatives of the Association appeared before this committee and forcefully presented the Association's objections to having education submerged in a Department of Education and Welfare, or in connection with any other great Federal activity which would divide the time and attention of the member of the Cabinet charged with the responsibility for this vast and primary National interest.

As THE JOURNAL goes to press the hearings on the Education Bill before the House Committee on Education are scheduled to begin on February 20. Various members of Congress and representatives of allied organizations which are supporting the Education Bill believe that the outlook for the legislative program of the National Education Association has never been so good as now. The members of the congressional committees were intensely interested in the facts presented. There was a live interchange of questions and answers which emphasized the great strength of the Education Bill and the character of the opposition. The following are abstracts from statements that were made before the committee by those who opposed as well as by those who supported the Education Bill:

Before the Senate Committee on Education

GEORGE D. STRAYER, *Chairman Legislative Commission of National Education Association, and Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.*—Whether it be in matters of curriculum or matters of accounting, matters of making a budget, or the building of a building; the question of an organization of a school system or the way children ought to be located in it—in every one of these fields we have the possibility of making significant inquiries and of giving to the people in all parts of the country the results. In my judgment that can never be adequately done until we have the leadership and the prestige represented by a Secretary of Education in the Cabinet of the President of the United States.

MARY C. C. BRADFORD, *Superintendent of Public Schools for the State of Colorado.*—Because I believe in States' rights, because I believe also that we have the right to tax all the property of all the people for the benefit of all the children of all the people, because I believe it is treason to the flag not to guarantee to all the children who live under its protection absolutely equal rights, I urge the passage of this Bill.

CHARLES FLEISCHER, *Editorial Writer for the Hearst Newspapers.*—Those who are worthy of being free are worthy of being educated, and those who have the responsibility of government must necessarily have the education with which to discharge the obligations of citizenship.

H. L. BOWLBY, *General Secretary of the Lord's Day Alliance.*—In New York State, there was spent more money last year in looking after and developing a certain breed of calf than was spent on all the normal schools in the State of New York. We pedigree our animals, we have a great aristocracy in the animal kingdom below man; but when it comes to man—God help us, but it is true—we have not given man a square deal.

J. A. C. CHANDLER, *President, College of William and Mary, Williamsburg, Virginia.*—The question was also raised as to whether we would not have to establish a Federal system of taxation. Why, we have it. It is not a question of establishing it. It is already established. I remember, as a young man, that we paid no taxes to the Federal Government. What we paid was the tariff, an indirect tax, and a tax on whiskey and a tax on tobacco. I remember when the first income-tax act was passed by the Federal Government and was declared unconstitutional, and that afterwards we passed an Amendment to the Constitution of the United States making an income tax a constitutional matter. When we added that Amendment to the Constitution of the United States we established a system of Federal taxation, and right now we raise taxes under that, and the theory of the Federal Government, in raising income tax, is that every man should pay into the Treasury of the United States according to his ability, and not that the State of New York, or the State of Massachusetts, or the State of Virginia, or Mississippi should pay.

FREDERICK W. MARONEY, *Director Health Instruction of Public Schools, Atlantic City, New Jersey.*—I ask for physical education, not for the select group in the high school, the normal school, and the college, but physical education that will reach every child in the United States.

WOODBRIDGE N. FERRIS, *U. S. Senator from Michigan.*—I can't see any sense in enrolling a child who has poor teeth, poor eyes, poor hearing, until he has had done for him all that modern science can do.

MRS. JOSEPH SWAN, *Member, National Committee for a Department of Education.*—I think that it is a very un-American proposition that we of all the civilized and modern countries of the world should be the only one that does not have education represented in our Federal councils.

JAMES H. KELLEY, *Executive Secretary, Pennsylvania State Teachers' Association.*—I do not fear at all any centralization of authority, neither am I afraid of States' rights, so far as this bill is concerned.

JOHN A. H. KEITH, *President, Indiana Normal School, Indiana, Pennsylvania.*—Some people in Congress, as well as out, seem to think that this proposal for Federal aid for the removal of illiteracy, the Americanization of the foreign-born, the equalization of educational opportunities, and the establishing of programs of health education in the several States is something brand-new. It is older than the United States of America. It began immediately after the close of the Revolutionary War, under the Articles of Confederation.

ROYAL S. COPELAND, *U. S. Senator from New York.*—I think the teacher is the greatest moral force in society. One thing about this bill that is appealing to me is the item relating to physical education. I am very keen to have developed in every school in America education as regards the body and the need of development of the body and the building of good health.

JOHN H. COWLES, *Sovereign Grand Commander, Ancient and Accepted Scottish Rite of Free Masonry of the Southern Jurisdiction of the United States, Washington, D. C.*—In my opinion, based upon an extensive correspondence, and personal information and observation during official visitations throughout our jurisdiction, there is a wide popular demand for the enactment of the proposed legislation to establish a Department of Education.

A. LINCOLN FILENE, *Chairman, National Committee for a Department of Education, Merchant, Boston, Massachusetts.*—As a matter of fact you noticed that there was a growing vote (referring to the Chamber of Commerce of the United States) when it came to the question of Federal aid. You see there was a growing sentiment, and after all 576 Chambers of Commerce of the United States voting for Federal aid is not a very small number. Particularly if you take this report I speak about and find which chambers of commerce they were. That would be very helpful and it is the only word I can say on that. *Senator Sterling:* There was a majority report and a minority report, Mr. Filene? *Mr. Filene:* Yes. *Senator Sterling:* Did you ever analyze those to show the localities from which came the majority and the localities from which came the minority? *Mr. Filene:* No, I haven't. It could be done. *Mr. Frank Page:* Repre-

senting the U. S. Chamber of Commerce, I can explain that, if I may. The majority and minority reports were merely the committee that was divided. They were not unanimous and one filed a majority report of five members and the other a minority report of two members. The majority report was signed by Frank J. Loesch, of Chicago, Ill.; John J. Lonsdale, of St. Louis, Mo.; Henry Pritchett, of New York; Henry Sharpe, of Providence, R. I.; and James J. Storrow, of Boston. The minority report was signed by Thomas E. Finegan, of Harrisburg, Pa., and Mrs. Ira C. Wood, of Chicago. *Senator Walsh:* The minority report was in favor of the bill and the majority was against the Bill? *Mr. Page:* Yes. *Senator Copeland:* Pritchett was on the majority? *Mr. Page:* On the majority. *Senator Copeland:* Against the Bill? *Mr. Page:* Against the Bill.

DAVID I. WALSH, *U. S. Senator from Massachusetts.*—Teaching is either a profession, or it is not a profession. A young man hasn't any chance to go out of a college without further training and practice medicine and law. And yet for teaching they can go directly out of the colleges and teach without any professional training.

WILLIAM C. BAGLEY, *Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.*—No phase of public education is more significant than the professional education of the teachers who are to serve in the public schools. There is no way in which Government stimulus could affect public-school development more quickly or more healthfully than through Federal aid for the training of teachers in the several States. Our Nation, as a nation, gives less attention to the training of teachers for public schools than does any other nation of comparable rank.

O. H. BLACKMAN, *Associate Editor, Collier's Weekly, New York City.*—The great majority of our people are still cheerfully trudging along with the idea that the little old red schoolhouse is the proper thing, and with the impression that we stand as a leader among the nations in education. As a matter of fact, we stand eleventh.

C. R. MANN, *Director of the American Council on Education, Washington, D. C.*—I find that everyone who has considered this matter of a Federal education office agrees on the fundamental idea that that office must be so constructed and organized that it will coördinate all the educational activities of the Federal Government.

SMITH BROOKHART, *U. S. Senator from Iowa.*—Every child, when he gets through school, ought to know how to earn a living in some vocation.

MRS. F. P. BAGLEY, *Vice-Chairman, National Committee for a Department of Education, Boston, Massachusetts.*—It is practically certain that not all or even a respectable fraction of the States will deal adequately with the Americanization problem wholly of their own initiative and with their own funds. This judgment is based on what the States have already done with regard to this particular problem, the problem of illiteracy, health education, the preparation of teachers, and the equalization of educational opportunities.

CORA WILSON STEWART, *Chairman, Illiteracy Commission of the National Education Association, Frankfort, Kentucky.*—The Federal Government has already had a great deal to do with illiteracy. It has permitted about 1,700,000 foreign-born illiterates to come into this country and to be scattered over the States. Without the consent of the States, the illiterates have been foisted upon them. However high their ideals may have been about illiteracy, they have had no choice about this matter.

EDGAR WALLACE, *Member, Legislative Committee, American Federation of Labor, Washington, D. C.*—We endorse the purposes of this Bill. We believe that the Government has a duty to help the States, especially those that have received so many immigrants.

S. D. SHANKLAND, *Executive Secretary of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association, Washington, D. C.*—Some of the superintendents of schools whom I represent are in the situation of one of the members of the committee. They have constituents. The opinion expressed in the resolution by that group is the opinion of men who have studied the question and arrived at what they think is right and just.

JAMES H. RYAN, *Executive Secretary of the National Catholic Welfare Conference, Washington, D. C.*—The Sterling-Reed Bill would establish a national system of education under the pretext of "encouraging education." That education possesses national significance no one can deny. But so do religion, art, and many other things. As it is not the function of government to "encourage" or recognize all these activities, but to govern, so likewise it need not "recognize" nor "encourage" education nationally, in the sense of appropriating huge subsidies for its benefit. This recognition and encouragement must, as it has been in the past, come from the different States. It is an assumption pure and simple that if we possessed a Federal Department of Education we would also have good schools. One thing is certain—we would have an army of bureaucrats, tens of thousands of inspectors, countless other jobs, political interference in education, and an annual demand on Congress to increase appropriations from $100,000,000 to an indefinitely larger sum.

FRANK L. PECKHAM, *representing the Sentinel of the Republic.*—I had an experience coming home from France just after the war that I might tell you of. There was a young man from Kentucky who was in the same casual company with me. . . . The only trouble his illiteracy caused him . . . was that he was carrying on an illicit correspondence with a married lady in his home town, and not being able to read or write himself, he was obliged to rely on the boys in his company to conduct it for him, and in that way the boys in his home town found out about it, and in that way he was caught. If he had been able to read and write that would not have happened. I have had some experiences with illiterate soldiers.

But that did not interfere with their fighting qualities. A soldier did not have to read anything, Senator. I would have been just as good a soldier if I had not been able to read. . . .

Senator Sterling: Do you not think that on the average a man who has an education is a better soldier than the man who is wholly ignorant and illiterate?

Mr. Peckham: I am inclined to believe he is; and I am very strong on this Americanization stuff. I am an Americanization officer of this department of the Legion. But I believe that these illiterate mountain people you hear so much about are better Americans than any of us. They cannot read the devilish pacifist propaganda that was spread all through the country during the war. . . .

Senator Sterling: You would not argue for a moment that ignorance would be any protection against German propaganda, and therefore we ought to keep the people ignorant and illiterate.

Mr. Peckham: No; but I would argue that being able to read and write would not have made men any better fighters, because those mountain boys acquitted themselves very well. . . .

Senator Ferris: Mr. Chairman, can we not bring this sort of rambling, irrelevant discussion to a finish and get through some time? I do not want to protest or to be discourteous, but I do not want to sit here hour after hour listening to a lot of stuff that is really not relevant.

Before the Committee on the Reorganization of Government Departments

THOMAS STERLING, *U. S. Senator from South Dakota.*—I am opposed to a Department of Education and Welfare because the subject of education is of that dignity and vital importance to the people of the country, and they are so much interested in it, that it ought to be a Department of Education alone, without reference to "welfare," into which may be brought nearly every conceivable activity of the Government.

J. O. ENGLEMAN, *Field Secretary, National Education Association.*—I believe the school men and women of the country feel that our Department of Education with a Secretary in the President's Cabinet ought to bear about the same relation to the health interests of the country that a commissioner of education in any State bears to the health interests of that State; or that a city superintendent of schools in any large city bears to the health interests of that city.

CHARL O. WILLIAMS, *Field Secretary, National Education Association.*—There never has been in the history of this country so widespread interest in education as at the present time. You read the papers, you read the magazines, the great periodicals that have millions of subscribers, and you know that that is a fact. I believe there is not the remotest possibility of the public's interest in public education decreasing. On the other hand, I believe that there is every indication that the people are studying more and more this whole problem of public education.

As to the subject of welfare, I have had a very interesting time trying to find out from various people what welfare is—— *Senator Harrison:* Dr. Sawyer could tell you. *Miss Williams:* I have tried to find out what it is, what it is going to be, and there is the haziest idea in the world about what would go into a department of welfare. What is

welfare? If we knew what social welfare was or where it would lead, that might help us in formulating our ideas about it. *Representative Moore:* Secretary Hoover the other day suggested that the designation should be changed to Department of Education and Health. He had the same difficulty that you have in determining the meaning of the term welfare.

JOHN K. NORTON, *Director of Research Division, National Education Association.*—Education to be effective should be based on exact and scientific information. If information is given teachers and the executives they can be trusted to use it to the benefit of the children without compulsion. We have scientific information in practically every line except education. If you want to know how to breed cattle you can get exact information from the researches of the Federal Government. If you want to know how to protect your hogs from hog cholera you can get information on that. If you want your cotton protected from the boll weevil you have experts on the job, who tell you what to do. If you want the barberry bush eradicated you have experts to study the problem. But what is the situation with reference to school children? If you have children who are not promoted, children who are breaking down physically, what study is made of them?

JOY E. MORGAN, *Managing Editor,* JOURNAL OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION.—I believe that if this Committee could see its way to write into this reorganization bill, when it is drawn and presented, the first six clauses of the Sterling-Reed Bill, providing for a Federal Department of Education with a Secretary in the Cabinet and appropriating $500,000 for the organization of that Department, it would have taken action which would satisfy the people of the United States, which would command the ringing approval of the Nation's 700,000 teachers and the support of the twenty millions of citizens that are represented in the forces back of the Sterling-Reed Bill.

JOHN J. TIGERT, *United States Commissioner of Education, Washington, D. C.*—The Bureau of Education will shortly be of practically no service to the interests of the country because of the fact that it is so neglected and has gone along for years without practically any increase of appropriation and is such a very meagerly supported organization that it is not in a position today to attack the great problems in research that are needed to promote education in this country.

NOTES *and* ANNOUNCEMENTS

PATRIOTIC PILGRIMAGES to significant points in and around Washington are proving a most attractive feature of the program which President Olive M. Jones is preparing for the Association's meeting, to be held in the Nation's Capital, in July. Among the historic shrines which will be included in these pilgrimages are Gettysburg, the Lincoln Memorial, Mt. Vernon, the White House, Yorktown, Jamestown, Williamsburg, and Annapolis. A special committee will be in charge of each pilgrimage. Additional information will appear in the April JOURNAL. Advance reports already received indicate that there will be special trains from various sections of the United States.

"WASHINGTON WILL BE READY!" This was the slogan which Superintendent Frank W. Ballou, chairman of the local committee on arrangements for the summer convention of the National Education Association, Washington, D. C., announced at a dinner given by the teachers of Washington, D. C., February 9, in honor of President Olive M. Jones. The slogan came as a fitting answer to the one adopted by the educators of the country, "On to Washington!" The reception and dinner was held at the Hotel Roosevelt, Washington, and was attended by over two hundred guests, including the N. E. A. executive staff.

It was an occasion of enthusiastic dedication to preparations for the greatest meeting in the history of the Association. Mr. S. E. Ely acted as toastmaster, introducing Superintendent Frank W. Ballou as chairman of the committee; Miss Augusta Mary Swan, representing the kindergarten teachers of the city; Mr. James T. Lloyd, president of the Board of Education; Mr. H. W. Draper, president of the Grade Teachers' Association; Mr. E. F. Coliday, chairman of the Washington Board of Trade; Miss Carrie E. Toner, representing the junior high school teachers; Mr. J. W. Crabtree, secretary of the National Education Association, speaking on behalf of teachers generally; Miss Margaret B. Merrill, representing the high school teachers; Miss Cornelia Whitney, representing the normal school teachers; and Miss Jeanette Speden, representing the senior class in the Washington normal schools.

Miss Olive M. Jones, president of the National Education Association, responded by telling of plans that are being made by the teachers in every State for the pilgrimage to the Nation's Capital. As an indication of the enthusiasm that is being shown, Miss Jones stated that never before in the history of the Association have plans been made so far in advance. Already arrangements have been made for thirty special trains, and letters requesting information on the convention are pouring into headquarters. The Washington committee has appointed subcommittees to look after the many details in connection with the meeting, and with the special attractions which the city itself offers, every delegate and visitor will return home with renewed pride in his Capital City and in the great National organization of which he is a member.

ARRANGEMENTS have been made with the *Chicago Daily News* and with station KYW to broadcast talks by prominent educators during the meeting of the Department of Superintendence in Chicago. This will be a part of the publicity in connection with the Chicago meeting.

Under the auspices of the National Education Association talks on educational topics are broadcasted each Monday evening from Station WRC, the Radio Corporation of America, Washington, D. C., at 6:15 eastern standard time. Persons hearing these talks and wishing to encourage the plan should write to THE JOURNAL of the National Education Association indicating their interest and making suggestions. Since the list was published in THE JOURNAL for February the following talks have been noted:

The Menace of Illiteracy, Vaughan MacCaughey, associate editor of the Sierra *Educational News,* from the San Francisco Examiner Broadcasting Station, November 22, 1923.

World Peace Through Education, A. O. Thomas, commissioner of education for Maine and president of the World Federation of Education Associations, Augusta, Maine, WRC, Washington, D. C., January 12.

Citizenship in the School and the Nation, Mary C. C. Bradford, State superintendent of public instruction, Denver, Colorado, WRC, Washington, D. C., January 14.

The Education Bill, Thomas Sterling, senator from South Dakota, WRC, Washington, D. C., January 21.

Education Today for the Home of Tomorrow, Joy Elmer Morgan, managing editor of the JOURNAL of the National Education Association, WRC, Washington, D. C., January 28.

The Fight to Reduce School Privileges, J. W. Crabtree, secretary of the National Education Association, WRC, Washington, D. C., February 11.

DR. J. O. ENGLEMAN, field secretary of the National Education Association, made four addresses before the Kansas State Teachers Association and its various sections at its recent meeting. This is characteristic of the service that Doctor Engleman is rendering associations throughout the country.

MR. WILLIAM MCANDREW, who has been connected with the New York City schools since 1893, became superintendent of the Chicago schools on February 1, at a salary of $15,000 a year. Mr. McAndrew is well known as a writer, having recently written a notable series for *The World's Work.* Beginning with the June issue, he will become editor of *The Educational Review.*

DR. J. G. CRABBE, president of the Colorado State Teachers' College, died at his home in Greeley, Colorado, January 30, as a result of heart trouble due to overwork. At the time of his death, he was president of the American Association of Teachers' Colleges. He had been prominent in the work of the National Education Association for many years, having been a member of the National Council since 1911.

DR. SHERMAN WILLIAMS, who has given more than half a century of service to education, retired from his post as director of the School Libraries Division of the State Department of Education, Albany, New York, on November 1 and shortly thereafter passed into the Great Beyond. Few men have rendered more varied and distinguished service. As a writer, teacher, superintendent, and library worker, Dr. Williams has touched the lives of thousands of men and women.

Basic Studies in School Finance

ONE outstanding indication of future educational progress is the clear recognition by school people of the importance of the problems of school finance. A growing percentage of the teaching profession is coming to understand the fundamental principles of public-school finance. It is coming to be realized that the obsolete property tax must decrease in importance as a source of public-school revenue if educational progress is not to be stifled. It is recognized that, if equality of educational opportunity is to be a fact, the proportion of the burden of public-school support which rests upon the local community must be considerably decreased. It is generally recognized that the methods of distributing State school funds in most States need revision.

These recognitions on the part of school people have resulted in the initiation of a number of important investigations in the field of educational finance. To review all of these adequately would require much space. A few that are typical may be briefly mentioned.

The reports now being issued by the Educational Finance Inquiry Commission are of especial significance. This commission will present a series of thirteen volumes dealing with public-school finance. Work on these has been in progress since September, 1921, by a capable staff directed by Doctor George D. Strayer, of Teachers College.

This series will cover all phases of educational finance. There will be a detailed presentation of the situation in New York, California, Iowa, and Illinois. The fiscal administration of city school systems is the subject of one volume. Another consists of an exhaustive bibliography on school finance.

Two reports in this series are already available. The first is entitled, *The Financing of Education in the State of New York*. School accounting is probably as well developed in the State of New York as any in the Union. This has made possible one of the most detailed and accurate statements on the financial side of a State school system that has yet been completed. The first half of this report analyzes the school finance problem in the State and the second deals with the resources for financing an adequate school program.

The other volume already issued in this series is entitled, *Financial Statistics of Public Education in the United States, 1910-1920*. This is of unusual value on account of the large amount of exact, comparable nformation which it gives for the various States for the war decade. The data in this volume are of especial interest in view of the questions that are now being raised as to whether we can afford public education and as to what share of governmental expenditures should go to education.

THE EDUCATIONAL FINANCE INQUIRY COMMISSION will issue thirteen volumes, published by The Macmillan Company, 66 Fifth Avenue, New York City. Two volumes already released are:

Volume I. The Financing of Education in the State of New York. George D. Strayer and Robert Murray Haig, 205p.

Volume VI. Financial Statistics of Public Education in the United States, 1910-1920. Mabel Newcomer, 188 p.

The first two of four studies in public-school finance issued as Research Publications of the University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minnesota, are entitled:

I. Studies in Public School Finance; The West—California and Colorado. Fletcher Harper Swift, 221p.

II. Studies in Public School Finance; The East—Massachusetts, New York, and New Jersey. Fletcher Harper Swift, Richard A. Graves, Ernest Walter Tiegs, 240p.

The Ohio State Teachers Association, Columbus, Ohio, has published:

The Financing of Public Education in Ohio, 72p.

If the first two reports may be accepted as indicative, this series will constitute a library of scientific information in the field of school finance that is destined to play a leading rôle in future educational progress.

Studies in Public-School Finance is the title of a series of Research Publications now being issued by the University of Minnesota. These studies have been conducted under the direction of Doctor Fletcher Harper Swift. The first volume deals with the educational situation in the West, with the California and the Colorado systems as special subjects of study. The detailed analysis of the California situation is of especial value because of the many unusual, if not altogether unique, features that mark its system of school support. Colorado is a State in which school finance is still dominated by the district system.

The second number in this series deals with public-school finance in the East, Massachusetts, New York, and New Jersey receiving special attention. The detailed analyses of the situation in these three important States present both striking contrasts and similarities. The Massachusetts situation is of especial interest because of the important progress in distributing State school moneys that has been made in this State.

Both of the volumes now available in this series are marked by the clarity and thoroughness that has characterized other authoritative and well-known investigations conducted by Doctor Swift.

The Financing of Public Education in Ohio was recently issued by the Ohio State Teachers' Association. This study is of unusual significance since it was prepared under the jurisdiction of a committee appointed by the State Teachers' Association, being representative of several that have recently been initiated by such associations. It presents detailed information relative to the present financing of public education in Ohio and reflects the determination of public-school people to place the support of public education on a sound basis. It deals principally with the sources, amounts, and distributions of the income for public education rather than expenditures. It is more a compilation of facts than a statement of policies.

It is significant that many of the basic studies in public-school finance have been privately supported. Thus far the scientific value of these studies has not been lessened by undue influence from their source of support. The time has come, however, when the percentage of the scientific research in public-school finance that is conducted under public auspices should be increased. Education is of peculiar public concern in America. Basic investigations in school finance are paid for by the people in the end whether privately or publicly supported. In the future some public agency, such as a Federal Department of Education should lead in those investigations upon which educational progress is dependent.—John K. Norton, Director, Research Division, National Education Association.