

What Is Education?

AS COMMENCEMENT season approaches and four million children leave the schoolroom for the last time, the nation may well pause to ask what it all means. Why should society allow these young people to go forth thus when most of them have only an elementary schooling or less? How many of them should go on to high school and college? Will they meet the test of life in our efficient and high-pressure civilization? Or will they break as they struggle with problems of health, home, learning, citizenship, work, leisure, and conduct? Do they really know how to learn? Do they know the difference between schooling and education? Do they appreciate the importance of building fineness, beauty, and harmony into every phase of their daily lives? These and a host of other questions come crowding into the minds of teachers and parents during the last days of the school year, and they are important questions.

To the question, when should the youth leave school, there is but one answer—when he is prepared to take his place as a happy and effective member of the community. To educate is to guide growth. Parents, teachers, and the community continue to guide the growth of young people until they are able to guide their own development. How long this guidance should continue depends primarily on two factors—first, the complexity of civilization itself; second, the capacity of the pupil to learn.

In a simple society children need little formal schooling. They learn by watching their parents and neighbors. In a complex and changing civilization they need much schooling. The child who is bright and strong should be able to make his adjustment more quickly than a child who is weak or stupid. The dull child, therefore, needs school more than his gifted brothers and sisters. This is contrary to the old idea that only the bright should be encouraged to go on, but it is plain common sense. Schools exist to fit young people into life, and when they turn youth out before it is ready for life, they are merely passing on burdens of ignorance, inefficiency, or criminality which all of us must eventually bear.

It is idle to debate who is responsible for crime. The crude fact is that crime exists—hundreds of thousands of people pass through our jails and prisons each

TO EDUCATE is to guide growth.

Schools exist to help children until they are able to continue their own development. The child's connection with the school should not cease until

1. He habitually maintains himself in sound health.

2. He is a constant learner in all the problems of life.

3. He maintains his home relationships with an appreciation of their meaning to him and to society.

4. He assumes his responsibility for faithful citizenship, including the duty of helping to form righteous public sentiment.

5. He is able to maintain himself happily in a useful vocation with a fair prospect of growth and advancement.

6. He knows how to use leisure time in ways that build up, enrich, and beautify his own life and the lives of others.

7. He appreciates ethical character as a means of harmonizing his own life with the well being of his fellows.

year. The prevention and correction of crime are primarily educational problems and can best be handled by the authorities that are most skilled in dealing with those problems.

This new concept of the school is making profound changes in curriculum, methods, and organization. Even greater changes are ahead. The elementary school is becoming more efficient and will probably be shortened to six years. The period of growth that is now covered by the junior high school, the senior high school, and the junior college, presents varied problems which in the end will lead to the development of a school—or groups of schools—sufficiently diverse to meet those problems. These schools will be less wooden in their insistence on a fixed period of years, uniform lengths of term, or fixed routines covering the entire day. They will make increasing use of ideas now evident in opportunity schools, part-time schools, evening schools, cooperative classes, adult study

groups, libraries, and similar agencies.

Meantime we have the four million who are now facing commencement. Their education need not stop, even though their schooling does. The idea that adults cannot learn is quite exploded. We have daily before us the inspiring example of millions of adults who have gone through the difficult learning process of mastering the automobile—an achievement that requires the individual to do six distinct things at once, quickly and in coordination. With his eyes the auto driver watches a changing foreground; with his ears he listens to the movement of the engine; with his left foot he releases the clutch; with his right foot he manages the brake; with his left hand he turns the steering wheel; and with his right hand shifts the gears. That this complicated learning process has been achieved by millions of adults—many of them of an advanced age—is fair proof that the power to learn is lifelong, even though the rate of learning may diminish.

Could we make but one suggestion for commencement 1927, it would be a new emphasis on the importance of learning as a lifelong project. As suggested in *Education For a Changing Civilization* by William H. Kilpatrick, society faces today a problem quite different from that of education in former times. And society is meeting that problem. In addition to the schools there are now a host of educational influences of large importance. These include magazines and newspapers, radio, public library service, groups like the General Federation of Women's Clubs and the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, whose total enrolment runs into the millions, luncheon clubs like the Rotary and Lions, whose weekly attendance is now several million, summer schools, institutes of banking, and conventions by the thousands. These are all agencies which have sprung up to meet the need for continuing education in a civilization whose most conspicuous characteristic is rapid progress. For the young people who can catch a vision of what is ahead and prepare themselves for it there are truly remarkable opportunities.—J. E. M.

The Teaching Spirit

BERNARD BRODIE

Principal, Alexander Henry Public School, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

ONE WAKES up every so often with a guilty start at having slept too late. There follows a sheepish rubbing of eyes and a brisk rub to make one fit to start the day right.

Strange that an article in the January JOURNAL should have caused that with me. I had been dozing; along came "Happiness in Teaching," an inspiring article, and with a sudden jerk, I awoke. I rubbed my eyes. Suddenly, I realized that I, too, had something to say, something that might even help to augment that happiness.

For ten years I have been a teacher in the Philadelphia schools. During that time, I have experienced every possible emotion that the work can give, ranging from the highest form of elation to the most sordid and harrowing depression. Children can be cruel, as well as sublime. There were times when I doubted my capacity for teaching, as I doubted the nobility of teaching itself. And as the humble subject of that conflicting range of emotions, there has been molded in me gradually, even sometimes painfully, a definite conception of what constitutes for me "the teaching spirit."

There is, I am sure, such a spirit. But before we can attempt to fathom it, we must have awakened to the basic idea—that there is nothing more ennobling than the desire to reach for the "dream" in the eyes of little children. Aside possibly from the madness which distinguishes the art of creation, there is nothing that consoles like having a finger in the shaping of those dreams. And unless one is conscious that the dream is there, for it is often shadowy and elusive, one can never be possessed of the teacher spirit. I believe more than anything else that the spirit took seed in me almost ten years ago due to a most peculiar and rare incident. I had been given my first class, a 6A and 6B combined. I was only twenty at the time, fresh from the school of pedagogy, too busy with my own dreams to be really immersed in those of others. I was attempting to convey some of the dark mystery of a picture by Millet; as I recall it now, a little vainly. The lesson was about to be brought to its close, when it occurred to me to ask this question of the class, "Why do you

like the picture?" There was a deep silence; then one hand went into the air, slowly, shyly. It belonged to a

My Pedagogic Creed

JOHN DEWEY

I BELIEVE that all school life should grow out of home life; that it should take up and continue the activities with which the child is already familiar in the home.

I believe that it should exhibit these activities to the child and reproduce them in such ways that the child will gradually learn the meaning of them, and be capable of his own part in relation to them.

I believe that this is a psychological necessity; and because this is the only way of securing continuity in the child grown, the only way of giving a background of past experience to the new ideas given in school.

I believe it is also a social necessity because the home is the form of social life in which the child has been nurtured and in connection with which he has had his moral training. It is the business of the school to deepen and extend his sense of values bound up in his home life.

vigorous, overgrown Italian boy, Joseph BonavitaCola by name, decidedly inferior in his studies and definitely retarded for his fifteen years—a common type in the schools. I honored the hand, and Joseph rose hesitantly. There followed an interesting scene. Joseph suddenly went speechless; his hands and arms trembled; his face swiftly poured forth perspiration; and his eyes gleamed and glistened as though he were passing through a brief period of divine exaltation. I waited, sympathetically, as I recall. Still he could not speak. There was torture in his soul. Rarely have I seen such power, or such futility. Finally, unable to bear the anguish of the moment longer, Joseph sat down again, crestfallen. Since then, I have thought often of this episode in my teaching life, and connected it with Edgar Lee Master's poem, "Silence," longing to add, "There is the silence which comes between pupil and teacher, and which cannot be explained."

It was then, I believe, that the teacher

spirit was born. I realized instinctively that the rôle of the true teacher was that of the breaker of barriers. One cannot be a real teaching personality unless one can be a real humanizer. The art of teaching, more than any other art, requires the Whitmanic conception of melting, of giving oneself totally, which made Pestalozzi the gracious and gentle spirit that he was. It needs the "cosmic" individual, the man or woman who sees each little child in the light of eternity, and understands above all that each one is a sacred messenger that the teaching spirit sends forth to posterity.

The teacher spirit yearns to finger the student's dreams, sculptor-like. "Here is a fragile, lonely face," it says, "it shall be my clay. Tenderly must I shape it, with infinite care, after infinite study." And the reward—the realization that one has blown a faint breath of perfume along a dusty road.

IT MAY SURPRISE you to learn that most of the learning experiments have been based upon results from but a few persons. The psychologist in his laboratory does not have access as the teacher does to large numbers of learners.

The work of the psychologist is of high value, but it is valuable, so far as education is concerned, largely because it opens up new fields and sets up new problems. . . .

The teacher's occupation is fascinating. He has children to study—not stones, bugs, fossils or old manuscripts, but the most interesting of all possible materials—namely, human beings. Moreover, he has at hand human beings at their most engaging period—childhood and youth. And his children never grow old. In constant procession they present to him, always at the level of childhood, their innumerable interesting aspects. Yet each is different from the other—different in strength, talent, and character; different in origin, growth, and need. If teaching these children is to include studying them, the job of teaching takes on new dignity. Its scope is broadened. Its meaning is enriched. No other calling may then be compared with it. It is the great adventure.—Burdette Ross Buckingham in *Research for Teachers*.

Training Appreciative Consumers

FREDERICK G. BONSER

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WE ALL DESIRE to make a good personal appearance and to be surrounded in our homes with furnishings and decorations selected and arranged to give restful and pleasing effects. We wish that everything we have, from our simplest possessions to our house and grounds, should be in good taste. All of us have some feeling for beauty in form, color, and arrangement, although few of us have capacity for producing art objects. Our problem is not that of producing art objects, but of expressing our feelings for art through the selection and arrangement of products made by others, or of the enjoyment of the art products of the masters in production. We add to the beauty of our surroundings if we choose and arrange well, we subtract from it if we choose poorly. We add to our own happiness if we can see and enjoy the elements of beauty in the work of the masters in any of the graphic or plastic arts; we are deprived of a source of rich enjoyment if we have not been trained to know and see the beauties of art in industry, painting, sculpture, and architecture.

To be able to select that which is appropriate and beautiful—to be appreciative consumers—does require training. This training is not the same as that required to produce skill in designing art objects. It does include the development of ability to recognize the applica-

tions of design in products and to use art principles in arranging products in pleasing compositions. I have no thought

must be taken into account besides the hat itself in the selection? A friend recently saw what he called a perfectly "soul-satisfying" necktie in a shop window and immediately bought it. When he took it home his wife would not permit him to wear it, soon convincing him that it was not at all appropriate with his other clothing. The problem of dress is always a problem of composition. Most of us have had no training in the selection of garments from an art standpoint. In house furnishing, the problem is also one of composition. Each object to be included in a room must harmonize with the other objects and aid in making a pleasing total effect. We have all had the experience of visiting homes in which every piece of furniture and every rug was of excellent quality, yet the arrangement was such as to give us the feeling that we have when we go into an overstocked antique shop.

Almost daily we have these problems of choice and arrangement—buying articles of clothing, furnishings, and gifts, or arranging the furnishings of rooms, setting the dining table, arranging the flowers or shrubbery in our yards, or selecting colors for painting the house or the automobile. From an almost limitless variety of possibilities we must select. It is a social problem no less than an individual one—many others share the results of our selections. If I

Training Appreciative Consumers

Ashbee, C. R. Where the great city stands

Baldt, L. I. Clothing for women

Davies, Henry. Art in education and life

De Garmo, Charles. Aesthetic education

Hayward, F. H. The lesson in appreciation, an essay on the pedagogics of beauty

Luckiesh, M. Lighting the home

Picken, M. B. Secrets of distinctive dress

Rittenhouse, Anne (pseud.) Well-dressed woman

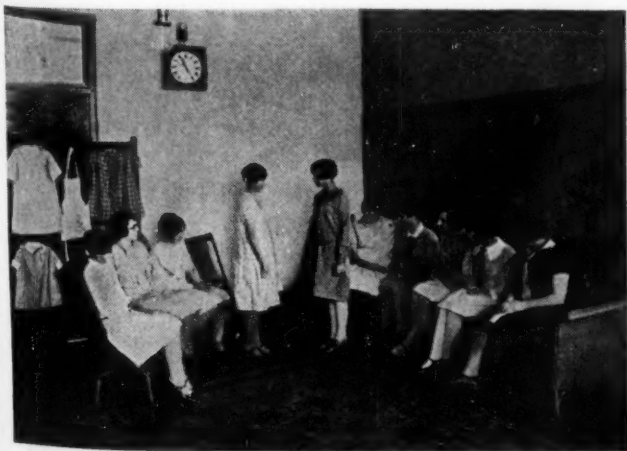
Sargent, Walter. Fine and industrial arts

Smith, Holmes. The appreciation of the fine arts

Thompson, E. B. Silk

Prepared by the Cleveland Public Library

of designing my hats or other garments, my furniture, my rugs, or my china. I need, however, when I try on a hat to know whether it is becoming. If it is not becoming, I need to know why. Is it the size, the shape, or the color that is wrong? What other features and objects



THESE freshman girls are learning to judge lines, color, and appropriateness of dress in garments made by themselves. The group of seniors at the right is refinishing furniture as part of a course in house decoration.

dress like a fright I radiate distress to all who observe me; if my house is an atrocity in furnishings and composition, all who visit me are made to suffer discomfort.

It is the opportunity and the responsibility of the school to provide the education and training in artistic selection and composition desirable for all. The development of appreciation for good dress may begin with the dressing of dolls in the primary grades where considerations of appropriateness to purpose, season, and use, and of line, tone, and color may introduce an elementary knowledge of art principles that will apply to clothing problems throughout life. As the study of costuming proceeds through the grades and high school, the selection of suits, dresses, ties, hats, hose, shoes, and clothing accessories may be fully considered, each pupil working on the basis of his own problems of personal appearance. Is it any less reasonable that the schools should help the pupils to select their clothing in good taste than that they should help them to cultivate good taste in reading? Usually local shops and stores will cooperate thoroughly in such studies.

In a way somewhat similar, house construction, furnishings, rugs, and utensils may be studied in connection with building playhouses in the lower grades, and by the selection of furnishings for rooms, houses, or apartments in upper grades and high school. Practice houses and apartments in high schools offer an excellent opportunity for furnishing a room as a whole—a diningroom, livingroom, kitchen, or bedroom—or in selecting a chair, or rug, or wall paper for a room otherwise furnished and decorated.

These are typical of the art problems of the average consumer in house furnishing. Here again, shops and stores will cooperate. Current magazines and advertising matter, as well as books on the history of costume and furnishings, may be used helpfully. Books on period furniture may be used in upper grades to teach young people just what it is that makes the values in antique furniture, the intrinsic values in quality of material and design, and the sentimental values appealing to those who "splurge." What has been said of clothing and furnishings may be applied also to china and other forms of pottery, to utensils in general, to vehicles, to the products of the printer's art, to architecture, to painting, and to sculpture. The purpose is to learn to recognize that which is good, to cultivate a love for it, and to select and arrange such products as one may be able to afford in ways to give the greatest pleasure.

For clothing, furnishings, and other material products in common usage, one may well utilize the method of agricultural schools in judging corn, livestock, and other farm products. A hat-judging contest, a dress-judging contest, contests in judging neckties, chairs, rugs, jewelry, china, wall papers, pictures, and almost every other common commodity for specific purposes and situations are excellent methods in developing appreciation of the exact kind required in selecting the products used in daily life.

Designing and producing simple objects has its place in developing art appreciation, but this phase is relatively small except for art specialists. For the consumer, art education is best developed in direct relationship to the problems in

which appreciation is needed in selection and use. This means that much of the art work in the public schools should be directly and vitally related to the industrial and household arts. In the new conception of industrial arts as a school study, the development of appreciation for the art qualities of products is one of the outstanding aims or objectives. Construction is used as a means through which we may learn of the health, economic, social, and art values of products and their appropriate use. The art phases stressed are those of the consumer. We enter into the art interests of other peoples—Egyptians, Greeks, Romans, Japanese, and modern Europeans—and interpreting the art of these find more beauty in our own surroundings than our limited production could afford.

To bring about a better teaching of the appreciative aspects of the arts for the consumer, the normal schools are the strategic points for help. Teachers trained in both the point of view and the method of teaching are necessary. With the change of emphasis from producing values to consuming values, any teacher may develop these qualities in herself and may succeed well in developing them in her pupils. Training for art production may be left to teachers of special talent and preparation.

To help children to know what is beautiful, to love that which is beautiful, and to cultivate good taste in selection and arrangement should be the primary purpose in the teaching of art in the public schools. This will furnish the appropriate training for the use and enjoyment of art products and at the same time lay the best foundation for productive work in the talented few.



THESE two interiors were planned by high school students; the furniture was made by the boys, the curtains and other furnishings by the girls. The pictures for this article are used through the courtesy of the Federal Board for Vocational Education, Washington, D. C.

Teaching the Beauty of Landscape

FRANK A. WAUGH

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ART HAS two phases, appreciation and creation. In the creative artist both these activities go on side by side; in the layman appreciation may be highly developed with little or no exercise of creative skill.

Ordinary art education for the layman will, therefore, be directed chiefly toward appreciation. On the basis of well known teaching principles it might readily be assumed that the best materials for teaching appreciation would be those most conveniently at hand; in other words, the native landscape. The landscape is everywhere and is universally admired. It is the one form of beauty which is available to all and the one in which unaffected delight may most easily be aroused.

Unfortunately it has seldom been considered art material at all. It has almost never been used for teaching the appreciation of beauty. For the ordinary teacher in the ordinary school art means nothing but painting; yet only one school pupil in a thousand in the broad states of America has ready access to real pictures. The heavy preference ought to be given rather to the native landscape which is accessible to all and which is at least partially intelligible to the average mind.

The ordinary observer does not appreciate the beauty of the landscape any

more than he appreciates the infinite variety of chemical, physical, and biological phenomena going on in the world

Beauty in Landscape

A Few Good Books

Cosmos, (pseud). The position of landscape in art
Gilbert, Josiah. Landscape in art before Claude and Salvator
Hamerton, P. G. Landscape
Harrison, Birge. Landscape painting
Michel, Emile. Great masters of landscape painting
Stokes, Adrian. Landscape painting
Prepared by the Cleveland Public Library

which he hourly touches. Our scientific education endeavors to open up the pupil's mind somewhat to the practical value and the intellectual wonder of this scientific world.

If we had an equally adequate art education it would open up the pupil's mind to a similar understanding and appreciation of the beauty of the earth's surface, of its sweetly molded contours, of its vegetation, of its moving musical waters, of its infinitely varied skies.

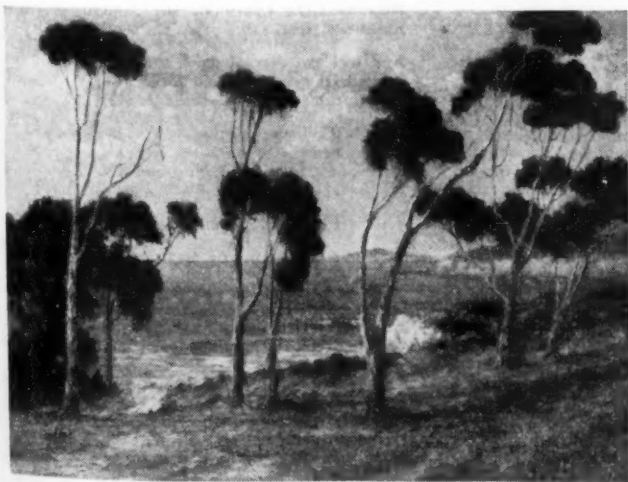
Fixing attention—The first step in the teaching process here, as elsewhere, is to fix the pupil's attention. In one way

or another he must discover that he is surrounded by a beautiful landscape.

There is no harm in the first instance in telling the pupil this fact. However, unless he comes very early to have some appreciation of it for himself the teacher has little more to build upon. Yet so far as I know there is no pupil so dumb and insensible as not to have some beginnings of appreciation—some sense of the beauty of surrounding nature. He will, at any rate, admire an orchard of apple trees in bloom, a redheaded blackbird sweetly singing in the swamps, a colony of ladyslippers blossoming in the woods. From these simple elements it is possible to build up a considerable superstructure.

Perhaps the best way for the teacher to start upon subjectmatter and to gain the pupil's primary attention is by asking some simple questions such as: "What is the most beautiful spot in Smithville?" or, "From what point can one get the widest outlook?" or, "Where is the best grove of trees in our neighborhood?"

In ordinary school practice such a question should be offered with plenty of time for consideration. The pupils should be given three or four days to look the ground over, to make fresh observations, to discuss the question among themselves. Then while the matter is still fresh in their minds it should be



THE varied beauty of landscape in the United States is suggested by these two pictures by American artists: *Westward to the Sea* by R. Clarkson Colman and *Magnolia Gardens*, South Carolina by Alfred Hutty. The reproductions were furnished through the courtesy of the American Federation of Arts, Washington, D. C.

brought to an issue. The teacher should promote a lively discussion of the subject, giving everyone an opportunity for full expression of his own feeling. It should be remembered that the best feelings are hard to discover; much time and patience should be used, therefore, in gaining a frank statement from reticent pupils whose feelings may be deeper and truer than those of their more vocal classmates.

It should be understood further that it is by no means necessary, nor even desirable, in this discussion to arrive at a conclusion. It is better for pupils not to agree wholly with one another; and perhaps the worst thing that can be done is for the teacher to settle everything by obtruding his own opinion.

Analysis and comparison—The second step comes of itself. It is not possible to ask such questions as those already proposed—to gain any attention upon them whatever—without arousing also the faculty of analysis and comparison. At this point each pupil exercises whatever taste he has, and this exercise of taste is a most essential factor in further art education.

The teacher will, therefore, promote every sort of discussion possible, even to staging formal debates. Such a question as "Resolved that the picnic grounds in Cedar Creek are more beautiful than those in Thompson's Grove" turns ab-

solutely on a practical art question. Any school can discuss such an issue quite as profitably as women's suffrage or states rights.

Practicing appreciation—We have already spoken of the exercise of taste. This means clearly an exercise of the appreciative faculty. Constant practice in this field is of the utmost importance. The pupil must be directed to landscapes and landscape features of definite beauty, his interest must be aroused, his comparisons stimulated; but most of all he must learn more and more to appreciate these things. Practical exercises of this sort are not difficult to arrange if a teacher has some imagination. Photographs may be made and photographic competitions arranged; in some cases essays may be undertaken, discussing autumn colors, native trees, the best swimming hole, and the most beautiful native wild flowers.

Constant association with the landscape in its pleasantest form is highly valuable. Such associations come through the camps of boy scouts, through fishing excursions, and picnic parties. Young people are nearly always engaged, in one form or another, in this sort of association with the landscape. It makes all the difference in the world, however, whether, in this association, they are blind to the beauties about them or whether they are being intelligently led to see such beauty and progressively to

appreciate it. If their attention is constantly recalled to the landscape beauty, and if their appreciation is constantly built up by intelligent exercise, their art education will be going forward with considerable success.

Support of knowledge—As a next step in the educational process it seems safe to fall back on interesting information about the landscape. A knowledge of botany makes the native flowers more interesting, and even the solemn forests mean more when one understands something of the trees and their life history. A knowledge of geology makes the hills and valleys more interesting to the average mind. Local history of the places studied has a value in arousing interest.

All this accumulation of scientific knowledge, however, has only an incidental art value. Unless it builds upon appreciation it has none at all. The commonest failure in ordinary art education, in my judgment, lies in filling the pupil with art information, with names and dates and other stale facts, while neglecting to build up a live personal appreciation of beauty. The love of beauty is after all the only thing worth-while in art.

I have tried out these theories of teaching the beauty of landscape on students of all grades. They respond joyfully to any leadership which is offered them in the study of it.

Arbor Day in Poetry

A B C's in Green

LEONORA SPEYER

The trees are God's great alphabet:
With them He writes in shining green
Across the world His thoughts serene.
He scribbles poems against the sky
With a gay, leafy lettering,
For us and for our bettering.

The wind pulls softly at His page,
And every star and bird
Repeats in dutiful delight His word,
And every blade of grass
Flutters to class.

Like a slow child that does not heed,
I stand at summer's knees,
And from the primer of the wood
I spell that life and love are good,
I learn to read.

An Arbor Day Tree

UNKNOWN

Dear little tree that we plant to-day,
What will you be when we're old and gray?
"The savings bank of the squirrel and mouse,
For robin and wren an apartment house,
The dressing-room of the butterfly's ball,
The locust's and katydid's concert hall,
The schoolboy's ladder in pleasant June,
The schoolgirl's tent in the July noon,
And my leaves shall whisper them merrily
A tale of the children who planted me."

What Do We Plant When We Plant the Tree

HENRY ABBEY

What do we plant when we plant the tree?
We plant the ship which will cross the sea,
We plant the mast to carry the sails,
We plant the planks to withstand the gales—
The keel, the keelson, and beam and knee,—
We plant the ship when we plant the tree.

What do we plant when we plant the tree?
We plant the house for you and me.
We plant the rafters, the shingles, the floors,
We plant the studding, the lath, the doors,
The beams and siding, all parts that be,
We plant the house when we plant the tree.

What do we plant when we plant the tree?
A thousand things that we daily see.
We plant the spire that out-towers the crag,
We plant the staff for our country's flag,
We plant the shade from the hot sun free:
We plant all these when we plant the tree.

Shade

THEODOSIA GARRISON

The kindest thing God ever made,
His hand of very healing laid
Upon a fevered world, is shade.

His glorious company of trees
Throw out their mantles, and on these
The dust-stained wanderer finds ease.

Green temples, closed against the heat
Of noontime's blinding glare and heat,
Open to any pilgrim's feet.

The white road blisters in the sun;
Now, half the weary journey done,
Enter and rest, Oh, weary one!

And feel the dew of dawn still wet
Beneath thy feet, and so forget
The burning highway's ache and fret.

This is God's hospitality,
And whoso rests beneath a tree
Hath cause to thank Him gratefully.

There is Strength in the Soil

ARTHUR STRINGER

There is strength in the soil:
In the earth there is laughter and youth.
There is solace and hope in the upturned loam.
And lo, I shall plant my soul in it here like a seed!

And forth it shall come to me as a flower of song:
For I know it is good to get back to the earth
That is orderly, placid, all-patient!
It is good to know how quiet
And noncommittal it breathes,
This ample and opulent bosom
That must some day nurse us all!

From *Arbor Day in Poetry*, by Carnegie Library School Association.

Teaching Personal Efficiency

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WHEN I returned from my vacation last summer, and inquired at the high school about my program for the fall term, I was told that one of the subjects I should be expected to teach would be "Personal efficiency."

Personal efficiency! What was that! I had never heard of, or seen that subject in the curriculum of a secondary school; but instantly there flashed into my mind E. E. Purinton's definition of efficiency.

"Efficiency," says Mr. Purinton, "is the power of doing one's most and best, in the easiest way, and the shortest time, to the satisfaction of all concerned."

This definition I had been requiring the members of all my classes for the previous ten years to memorize, so I knew its worth and its practicability. On this, as a foundation, I felt I could safely build.

Following that came the thought: Personal efficiency! Why that is only another name for character development. I began to see my way a little more clearly.

Then I asked about textbooks. There were none known to the principal, nor to the other teachers in the commercial department.

I found it would devolve upon me very largely to use my own ingenuity to plan the course and compile my own text, so to speak, from day to day.

In doing this, I have drawn upon various sources. In the first place, I found in my own files, which I have been keeping for the past nine years in connection with an evening class in short-story and scenario writing, a newspaper clipping naming eleven standards of efficiency. To these I have added others, bringing the number up to sixteen. These are:

- | | |
|--------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1. Attitude | 10. Obedience to instructions |
| 2. Application | 11. Earnestness |
| 3. Industriousness | 12. Definite purpose |
| 4. Ambition | 13. Concentration |
| 5. Courtesy | 14. Selfreliance |
| 6. Attention | 15. Reaction to stimuli |
| 7. Punctuality | 16. Persistence |
| 8. Initiative | |
| 9. Cooperation | |

In studying these standards of efficiency, each topic has been considered

separately, a definition found for each word, and then, from books obtained from the high school library, each student has been required to find out every-

Books for Further Reading

Brisbane, Arthur. *The Book of Today*
Fiske, L. R. *Choosing a Life Work*
Fowler, N. C. *Starting in Life*
Marden, O. S. *Choosing a Career*
Drysdale, W. D. *Helps for Ambitious Boys*
Candee, H. C. *How Women May Earn a Living*
Stoddard, J. S. *What Shall I Do?*
Scott, W. D. *Increasing Human Efficiency in Business*
Weaver, E. W. *Profitable Vocations for Girls*
Robbins, F. W. *What Can a Young Man Do?*
Jackson, B. B. *Opportunities of Today for Boys and Girls*
Gowin & Wheatley. *Occupations*
Hemingway, A. T. *How to Make Good*
Davis, J. B. *Vocational and Moral Guidance*
Purinton, E. E. *Efficient Living*
Johnson, Edith. *To Women of the Business World*
Knox, James S. *Personal Efficiency*
Magazines: The American; Success; Lefax; Personal Efficiency; Business Machine World; Pitman's Journal; The Gregg Writer; The Rotarian.

thing he could about the topic under consideration, make notes on it, and bring these notes to the class to be read, commented on, and compared with other notes.

After all the notes had been discussed, each one wrote an essay on the subject selected. This, again, was brought to the class, read aloud, and commented on by the teacher and other students.

Then in my files I came across several of Elbert Hubbard's *Preachments*, such as his *Initiative*, *A Hundred Point Man*, *Helpful Hints for Business Helpers*, and *A Message to Garcia*. I also found in *Lefax*, a magazine of "Business Facts Boiled Down," published in Philadelphia, a number of helpful articles which could be condensed and outlined for the class, some of the work being done by one or more of the students.

Another feature of this work has been the use we have made of the *American Magazine*. Each member of the class was requested to bring to the school a back number of the *American*. When a sufficient number had been brought to provide each student with a copy, the magazines were given out with instructions to each boy and girl to try to find one or more human interest articles or stories of men or women who had made a success in life. As every issue contains a number of such articles, we had no difficulty in finding just what we wanted.

From these magazines each member of the class was required to select the most attractive article of this kind, make in his notebook a topical outline, and come to the class prepared to give, with or without notes, a brief account of the person he had chosen to report on.

This personal research work proved to be very interesting and attractive to the class. It was also made helpful by requiring the students to write in their notebooks some of the things which had enabled these men and women to make a success of their life.

Among the things noted were: perseverance, ambition, persistence, keeping an eye on the goal, hanging on, the reward of helping other people, selfreliance, hard work, being willing to take the first job offered, and holding on to it satisfactorily until a better one was secured.

Pupils have been encouraged to bring to the class newspaper articles, or articles found in books and magazines, on personal efficiency, or related subjects. In this connection, Dr. Frank Crane's essays have been found helpful and inspiring. As a result of all this cooperative work, enough material on the subject of personal efficiency was accumulated for a much longer course than one semester only.

And now, what have teacher and pupils got out of the course?

For myself, I consider the assignment to teach this subject the most splendid opportunity which I have ever had in my experience as a high-school teacher for the building of character, and for

teaching directly the importance of the relations which these young people should endeavor to sustain toward their jobs, their business associates after they have left school, toward their school work while students, and with respect to other people with whom they come in contact, socially and in the home.

The cultivation of right ideals has been one of the important objectives in this course, which has offered also an excellent chance for instruction along moral and ethical lines.

It has seemed almost as if I could see the characters of many of these young people developing and unfolding in a most remarkable manner during the progress of the work.

As for what the pupils themselves feel that they have got out of this work, the following comments made by them will be found interesting and illuminating.

"The things which have helped me most in the course on personal efficiency are: The definition of efficiency, the sixteen standards of efficiency, the study of the lives of successful men and women, how to determine the strong and weak points in our character, efficiency in reading."

"One of the important things I have learned from the course is not to give up the ship. This I got from the study of the careers of successful men and women."

"The different standards of efficiency have taught me how to organize my thoughts, and have shown me what elements it would be necessary for me to cultivate."

"After studying the lives of several successful persons, I have found you do not have to be born with a brilliant mind to be a success, but that in each

case it was hard work and persistence that reaped the rewards. This lesson alone has meant a great deal to me. This study has also given me a truer meaning of friendship."

"This course has taught me not to waste so much valuable time, but to do things efficiently. I try now to make the most of every day with my school work."

"I have learned to cultivate a real love for reading the right kind of literature. The entire course has given me a broader view of the more important things of life."

"I have tried to use efficiency in everything I do, while I am in school or anywhere else."

"After studying the habits that affect efficiency, I think there is not a person in my class who has not resolved to try to be like the efficient man."

"The importance of good posture in the lesson on efficiency in relation to health was drilled into us, with the effect that we are all now trying to assume the right posture. I, for one, learned how much better it makes one feel to sit and stand straight. It gives a feeling that the world is all right after all."

"The most important thing I have got out of this course is 'sticktoitiveness.' So many things I start which I never complete because, after working or studying awhile, I would imagine myself tired and quit."

"I have learned the importance of being prepared before going out into the business world."

"I have learned when studying how to concentrate by dismissing all outside thoughts from my mind. Besides, I can now apply myself to my studies so that I can get something out of them which

will aid me to be more successful in life."

"It is hard for me to tell which lesson has done me the most good. There has really been a good moral lesson in every lesson we have had so far this year. The one thing which impressed me most was the lesson we had on our attitude toward other people. It brought out the fact that most of our dislikes of others are only trifles, and that we should harbor no grudge against anyone."

"The lesson which impressed me greatly was the one about trashy stories. Most of my friends do not read good books, but will sneak away and read stories that do not do us any good, and are like a pile of trash, and which, unless you have a strong will, may drag you down into the gutter."

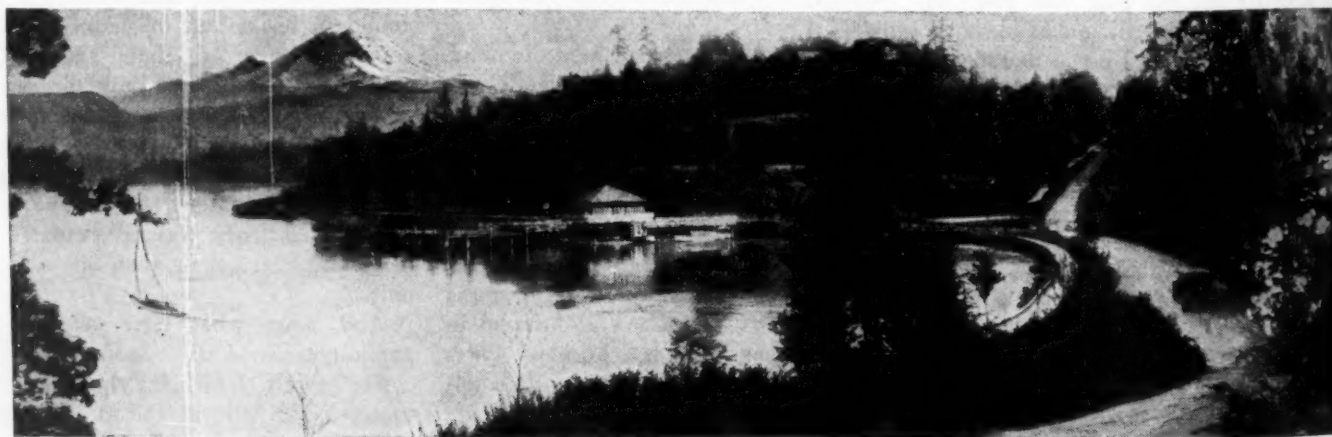
"From these lessons I have learned how to study efficiently; also how to read, what to read, and what not to read."

"In the lesson about not liking your boss and the way he acts, I learned not to growl and talk about him to the other employees in the theater where I am employed as usher evenings and Saturdays, but to keep still, and do the best I can so long as I am taking the firm's money."

"My mother and I are very much pleased with this course, because we can both notice a great improvement in my work, both in school and at home. In the morning, now, instead of lounging around, I jump up and do the dishes and practice. By doing this little routine, I feel much better the rest of the day."

"I have learned not to criticize people, and to pay no attention when they criticize me."

Such tributes as these are the best commentary of lasting benefits.



LAKE Washington and shore-line drive, Seattle, showing Mt. Rainier in the distance. Here the peace and beauty of the great out-of-doors will charm and refresh visitors to the summer convention.

Educational Experiment in Hawaii

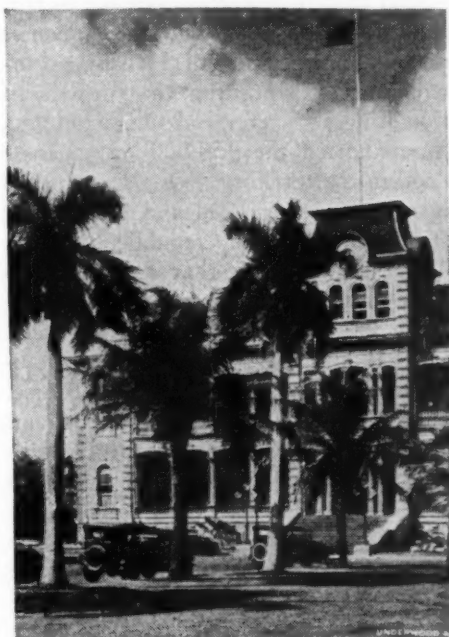
MARC TIFFANY GREENE

HAWAII today is the scene of an educational experiment no less than of a racial, though the two are so intimately related in the manner of their conduct and so closely allied in their ultimate purpose that they may almost be deemed one. This experimentation, which has really been going on ever since the United States annexed the Hawaiian group of islands in 1898, has had as its aim the establishment of internationalism, so far, at least, as that embraces nationalistic amity and interracial understanding, as something more than a nebulous theory.

Here, where more races mingle than in any other place under the sun, efforts are being made to develop between those races complete accord, upon which the world may be invited to gaze and forced to admit the possibilities of internationalism in its finest sense. In the achievement of this purpose, the part that education is playing and must play is quite obvious. The thing that is not so obvious is what education has already accomplished and is continuing to accomplish in Hawaii, and the vital interest to educators everywhere of the experiment in these mid-Pacific islands.

Clearly any internationalism worthy the name must be based as much as anything upon education, not only upon education in the generally accepted meaning, the fitting of a man or a woman for a reasonably desirable place in society and in the economic world, but also upon education in a much broader sense, the understanding of interracial relationships, of the value of racial amity, and of the folly of a perfervid and antagonistic nationalism. It must be shown—and the fundamentals of such a teaching can be instilled into a very youthful mind—that the future of mankind can best be served by international understanding, by avoidance of the hostility which is born in misconceptions and misapprehensions and which develops logically into suspicion and distrust. It must be insisted upon that the future of humanity itself rests upon tolerance and sympathy and resultant accord, as distinguished from bigotry and aloofness and resultant discord. It can be made clear that fellowship of nations is, in the last analysis, nothing more than fellowship of individuals; and thus will be

sown the seeds of internationalism which, in its best and truest sense, is only another name for human brotherhood.



Copyright Underwood and Underwood

HAWAIIAN kings and queens knew this building as Iolani Palace before Hawaii became an American territory. Now the Stars and Stripes floats over this capitol building in Honolulu, the "crossroads of the Pacific."

The best proof that all these things can be done is that they are being done in Hawaii today. The work is growing all the time more successful, with definite results that are ever more apparent. And they are being done through education. Were that not so, had education not done its duty, and more than its duty, in and by Hawaii, thirty races would not be living side by side and shoulder to shoulder in perfect friendliness today in this island group more than two thousand miles out in the Pacific. That these thirty races are so living, that twenty-seven different races and race-blends are studying together in one single school, is good evidence of the long way toward success that the racial experiment—and the educational experiment—have already progressed.

In Honolulu, at the "crossroads of the Pacific," there are well-equipped institutions of learning of every grade, from the numerous open-air kindergartens to the recently established Univer-

sity of Hawaii, which in itself is about as fine an illustration of the possibilities of internationalism as the world can reveal. From kindergarten to college every single place of learning undertakes the instruction of at least a dozen different nationalities. It is but pointing out the obvious to suggest that, under the existence of any racial feeling or nationalistic antagonism, little progress could be made anywhere, except perhaps in kindergartens. And even in these the sentiments of parents would find reflection. Each man and each woman of the hundreds of teachers of Hawaii is well aware of all this; and the promotion of international goodwill is the ideal which actuates them all. They realize that, just as life itself in Hawaii is the most unique—and perhaps the most vital—experiment in the possibilities of racial amalgamation of all time, so education there is the most significant undertaking of its sort in history. The part of each instructor is a part in a great movement, a movement which shall go far toward determining the practicability of making worthwhile men and women out of the blood of twenty races, or show the utter futility of the entire task. In Hawaii education will determine not alone the future status of these islands, but it will also sound in large degree the possibilities of blending mixed blood into future worthy American citizenship.

In illustration of the international significance of the educational experiment in Hawaii, and of the Hawaiian educator's appreciation of that significance, one of the leading members of the faculty of the University of Hawaii made this statement: "The significant thing with us is a development of racial and national amity even more than the dissemination of knowledge." What could be more definite? And it voices the feeling of kindergarten teacher and university professor alike. Was there ever in the world's history, or is there anywhere in the world today, an educational system functioning along lines like that, having so broad an outlook, inspired by so lofty an ideal? To "develop racial and national amity!" In other words, to bring nearer the era of human brotherhood! There, exactly, is what the educational experiment in Hawaii is aiming at; and the American peo-

ple, even the educators of America, are only dimly aware of it.

The leader and guide of the instructional system of Hawaii is the comparatively new university. It is a college of cosmopolitan ideals and equally cosmopolitan practices, and from an obscure institution of scarce two score students a decade ago it has grown to one of nearly six hundred. There is about equal division in the student body between Caucasians of a dozen nations, and Orientals. In this remarkable development, by no means yet under full headway, there is striking testimony of the extraordinary work the institution is doing, and of the great appeal it is making to all classes and races of young men. Its equipment is probably superior to universities of similar size in the United States, and it occupies a place in educational work that is as unique as it is important. It includes in its enrolment the youth of a score of races who work together and play together with no thought that the flag floating over the campus means any more to one than to another. The rare possibilities of an intimacy like this, its potency almost beyond estimate, were understood by the men who founded the University of Hawaii, as they are by the men who are conducting its destinies today. And the impetus of that founding, no less than the ideal of the established institution, is discernible in a desire to offset in some effective, but amicable fashion, the arrogance and the bigotry which have characterized so much of the white man's dealing with other races. As an illustration of the clear reflection which this sentiment has found in the life of Hawaii, one of the newspapers of Honolulu recently declared editorially, in connection with the plans for enlarging the work of the university:

We are no more God's own people than the Japanese, or the Korean, or the Hindu, or the South Sea Islander. . . . The thing that really matters to civilization and to human brotherhood is what constitutes our prevailing character and our relationships in that brotherhood, and whether our determinations for the future are such that the future holds a surcease from the cares and the bitternesses of the past and present.

And as if in fraternal response to that declaration of goodwill, the Japanese Students' Association of Hawaii, an organization existing for the purpose of promoting a better racial understanding, thus exhorted the 150,000 of Japanese blood in the territory, "Our first duty is to make ourselves loyal and law-abiding citizens of the great republic. . . . With the many eyes that are now upon us we must make every effort to satisfy."

All this discloses a degree of racial and national concord to whose establishment many factors have, of course, contributed. Hawaii is a sweet and lovely land where every natural condition makes for contentment and the spirit of friendliness. Geographically it is far enough from the world to be free from many of the conditions that make for discontent and nationalistic antagonism. Poverty is absent, and although there is a large wealthy class which grows constantly larger and more wealthy, yet the existence of such is not the spur to discontent among the moderately well off of the eastern peoples that it is among similarly placed Caucasians. And, of course, the Oriental, whose numbers now equal more than half the entire population of Hawaii, finds here a degree of personal liberty, a material prosperity, and a consequent happiness which he never could have hoped to achieve at home. Admittedly all these things conduce to amicable racial intercourse. But more than the aggregate of them all is the importance of the part which education has played, and is play-

ing, and will continue to play in the establishment and the maintenance and the further development of racial and nationalistic amity in Hawaii. If this is a secure and comfortable place to live side by side with thirty races and race mixtures, if no hereditary antagonisms or newborn suspicions are apparent, and if there is every evidence of an enduring truce to hatreds which have caused races and nations to distrust one another elsewhere in the world—a truce which shall presently lead to a lasting peace—it is all attributable chiefly to an educational system which has taught these peoples from childhood that men should be friendly, one to another—the precepts, in short, of the Man of Nazareth. Quite clearly there must exist some potent and determining reason, to which all others are but contributory, why all these peoples, whose ancestors have hated and distrusted and fought for centuries, can come to Hawaii and be friends, while their children and their children's children are destined to become even better friends. Quite as clearly that determining reason is education, education on a scale so complete and with a scope so broad as to direct to it the attention of the rest of the world. And if such a thing can be achieved in Hawaii, why, in the name of all that is precious to the future of men, cannot it be achieved elsewhere?

THE HAWAIIAN Islands are the most isolated inhabited islands on the globe. But they are in the track of the main-traveled sea ways and they have drawn people from the corners of the earth. The amalgamation of the different races gathered there has progressed very rapidly. There is a famous photograph of a group of thirty-two girls attending a school in Honolulu, each one representing a different race or racial mixture.—*High School Service.*

How Hawaii Observed World Goodwill Day

AT THE most western high school in the Territory of Hawaii, namely the Kauai High School, an appropriate program was given by the Progressive Club of the school on May 18. A large crowd attended the program. It was stated by the president of the club that World Goodwill Day has been approved by the World Federation of Education Associations as a day when the schools throughout the world may be thinking constructively along lines for the defense of civilization, for the turning aside of the drift of evil, and bringing into its place the current of good. Representatives of five countries gave a talk along the lines of goodwill; the Hawaiian representative said that Hawaii was the melting pot of the world; the Japanese representative stated in a poem that the God of the United States and Japan is one, so let none attempt to part the Sun and Stars. Homage was paid to the late Philip Henry Dodge, formerly of Honolulu, who did so much to unite the lands of the Stars and the Sun.

In the second part of the program the national hymns of the different European countries were played while the twelve representatives marched with their flags. Never in another part of the world can anyone see such a scene as that staged at the Kauai High School on that memorable day when Uncle Sam, Miss Liberty, an American soldier, and representatives of twelve different countries clothed in their native costumes stood and sang "America the Beautiful." The blood of those who were present did surely thrill and never shall that day be forgotten.—Junichi Nomura.

Scouting as a Vocation

JOHN W. WITHERS

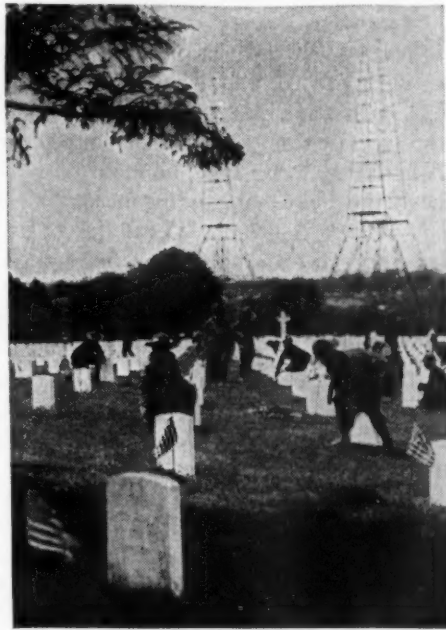
Dean, School of Education, New York University

THE rapid growth of the boy scout movement necessitates the employment of increasing numbers of scout executives to direct the work. The *Sixteenth Annual Report* of the Boy Scouts of America shows a total enrollment of 1,006,586 scouts and officials in the year 1925. In this year 264,850 boys became scouts for the first time, which is equivalent to 23 percent of 1,135,000 boys who became twelve years of age in 1925. In sixteen years, since scouting was first organized in America, there have been about three million boys and a half million men identified with this movement.

The boy scout movement has been carried forward on the principle of volunteer leadership with a minimum of paid men whose responsibility has been to recruit and train volunteer leaders to direct the activities of groups of boys. In the year 1925, 965 paid men and 163,760 volunteer workers directed the activities of 805,877 boy scouts, including 96,717 lone scouts scattered over the rural districts of forty-eight states. The Boy Scouts of America seeks men of ability and character with educational background and a flair for social work to increase its force of executives, who will lead the boyhood of America to advanced ideals of citizenship. The service is of the highest type. Scout executives are the missionaries of the boy scout movement and of its constructive service to boyhood.

This proven program of character development and citizenship training which gets under the skin of the average run of boys and makes better than average

citizens of them appeals to men who think of life in terms of service. The great appeal of scouting is from the fact



ON MEMORIAL DAY Boy Scouts decorate the graves at Arlington Cemetery, on the Potomac, opposite Washington, D. C.

that the service is delightful and worthwhile. Its associations with youth and public spirited men; its contacts with ministers, educators, philanthropists, and leading business and professional men; the large freedom, the broad principles, the community-wide relationship, and the world vision of the movement; its physical, moral, spiritual, social, and educational values are all compelling factors which grip college trained men who have vision and ambition.

The scout executive in a given community mobilizes and trains the volunteer leaders, organizes the council, administers the scout program, maintains its standards, and check results. He deals with the entire population of his council area whether it be a city of 500,000 or a rural district of several counties. He builds his organization of the biggest men in the community.

Evidently a scout executive must possess real qualities of leadership. He must be a man of positive religious convictions and recognized moral qualities, and yet he must be free from religious bigotry.

A national leader has recently drawn a close analogy between the office of the scout executive and the office of the college president. Both are administrators; they must secure funds from the public and administer those funds; both have a student body, a faculty, an executive board, and a council. It must be clear that the scout executive is a leader of men. He deals with men who deal with boys and he must have a personality that will attract men. He must also be a man who can hold the esteem of boys.

The Boy Scouts of America is one of only four organizations chartered by act of Congress. Its controlling body is an elected national council composed of representatives from the local councils and others selected at large. The President of the United States is honorary president of the Boy Scouts of America, and he is also an interested and friendly advocate of the boy scout movement. Walter W. Head, of Omaha, Nebraska, former president of the American Bankers Association, is the president of the



national council, which functions through an executive board of thirty members comprised of nationally known business executives and outstanding educational men.

For the purpose of administration, the national executive board has divided the area of the United States into twelve regions, each with a regional executive. Within the regional areas are local councils, each having an executive at its head. These local councils comprise a city, a group of towns, a county, or several counties. There are more than 600 of them and new ones are being organized each month. Within each area administered by an executive are varying numbers of troops of scouts, each with a scoutmaster as its leader.

In its main essentials the boy scout program is a program of education looking to the development of information, skills, ideals, habits, and attitudes which make for good citizenship. Constantly the boy is encouraged to undertake new and larger achievements. He can only reach advanced stages in scouting as he learns new skills and informations and shows satisfactory evidence of the development of wholesome attitudes toward life and his social responsibilities. There are more than seventy subjects covering

as many arts, trades, sciences, and professions in which it is possible for a scout to gain useful skills. These he works out in the laboratory of life from handbooks prepared by experts in their various lines. This is the scouting road to vocational guidance. By showing proficiency in twenty-one merit badge subjects and by giving satisfactory evidence of character development, a boy may advance to eagle scout rank.

The Boy Scouts of America established in the fall of 1925 a national training school for scout executives. When the late James J. Storrow assumed the presidency of the Boy Scouts of America two years ago, he inquired what were the three outstanding needs of the boy scout movement. "Training of the leaders," he was told, "then more training, and after that, still more training." Mr. Storrow replied, "There is no time like the present; we will start at once," and plans were forthwith drawn for the beginning of specialized scout training courses conducted under the auspices of the boy scout movement.

The first experimental training school was held in 1925 at Bear Mountain Park, New York. Five other courses were given during 1926. In all, 235 men completed this intensive thirty days'

training course, many of whom have since entered scouting professionally. More than 100 of these men were former scout leaders and 45 of them were eagle scouts. These students averaged three years of college training before training as scout executives.

Six intensive courses for scout executives will be given in 1927. The national training school is located at Briarcliff Manor, near New York City. A distinguished corps of educators and national scout officials will contribute to this training.

The course at each of the training schools places major emphasis upon the technic of the scout executive's job. Insofar as it is practical, the case or project method is used. Students build budgets, make reports, outline training courses, set up camps, care for office detail, arrange programs, direct activities, organize councils and committees, and solve all sorts of problems which arise in scout administration. Individual and patrol study, demonstrations, lectures, discussions, scoutcraft, handicraft, recreation, and inspiration make up the course.

Further information on scouting may be had from the Department of Education, Boy Scouts of America, 200 Fifth Avenue, New York City.



GEORGE WASHINGTON's stately home at Mount Vernon is one of the great patriotic shrines of the nation and the world. Each Memorial Day Boy Scouts place a wreath at his tomb which is on the slope below the house.

Yellowstone National Park

JAMES D. LANDSDOWNE

THE GEOGRAPHIES make much, or did "when I was a boy," of the fact that one's watch could be set by the regular discharge of "Old Faithful." Too many of us think of the Yellowstone only as the home of Old Faithful. Do we know of the multicolored rock terraces five hundred feet high? Do we know of the Motorboat, that stream of bubbles in the Firehole River which makes a sound closely resembling the exhaust of a motorboat? Do we know of the petrified trees? All these and many more sights of great interest are included within the area of the Yellowstone National Park.

This tract of nearly three thousand square miles was set aside by Congress as a national park in 1872, as a result of the tireless efforts of a group of public-spirited men, who might have made fortunes from its private exploitation. The wonders of nature are far from exhausted by the enumeration above. Wild animals are there in abundance: deer, antelope, elk, buffalo, and bears. The trees, chiefly evergreens, add greatly to the scenery. The wild flowers are numerous and beautiful. The mountains are glorious. Waterfalls are attractive. Yellowstone Lake, 139 square miles in extent, is located at an elevation of 7741 feet. Fishing is good. In what better place could one spend a vacation? But take plenty of time for the place. The railroads advertise four and one half day trips through the park. The time suffices to give one a comprehensive idea of the ground. Realize that Old Faithful is seventy-five miles



LOWER FALLS of the Yellowstone is a shining mass of silver foam in a marvelous setting of forest and sculptured rock.

from Mammoth, that Lake is thirty-six miles from Old Faithful, while Canyon is fourteen miles more, and back to Mammoth from Canyon is thirty miles. All travel is by auto. Stay a few days in each place to imbibe the "atmosphere"; at the same time you will get a wonderful rest. The climate is de-

lightful. During the day, it is pleasantly warm; at night, heavy coats are in order for, you must remember, the average elevation of the park is 8000 feet. Furthermore, the lack of excessive humidity will appeal to easterners. Grasp something of the immensity of the park, the time required to get around, the wonders to be seen, and plan to stay awhile. The hotel rates are as reasonable as in a large city. Here is the tragedy of a family that seemed to look upon Yellowstone as some municipal park, "We have two days to see the park, and we have had to ride and sleep and eat and we haven't seen anything, even Handkerchief Pool." Their real regret was evident. But this is a different type. A man pulled up at Old Faithful, late in the afternoon. He questioned the ranger, "When will she pop?" "In five minutes," was the answer. "Well," muttered the man, "we must make Lake tonight," and on he drove.

Suppose we swing "around the loop," as the main road system is called. We'll start from Mammoth Hot Springs, five miles from the terminus of the railroad at Gardiner. At Mammoth is located the office of the park superintendent, headquarters for the chief ranger, park naturalist, and other assistants, the weather bureau, and the postoffice. The hotel is located close to one end of the "formation," as the rocky mass is called, while the camp is at the other end. The hotels throughout the park are run by the Yellowstone Park Hotels Company, the camps by the Yellowstone Park Camps Company, while the yellow buses



TOURISTS are enjoying the decorations on this Ford car at the summit of Mt. Washburn. The picture at the right shows the new railway and eating station at West Yellowstone.

are operated by the Yellowstone Park Transportation Company. All charges are under United States government regulation. The hotel visitor is fed and housed under the same roof, the camp tourist sleeps in a single, double, or quadruple cabin and eats at the dining hall. Both places have orchestras which play at meals and for dancing in the evening. In addition, the camps provide light entertainment in the evenings, programs made up by the employees, most of whom are college boys and girls. At Mammoth and Old Faithful, the government provides guides to conduct visitors around and explain the wonders. The Transportation Company conducts bus trips. At Mammoth, the bus is the better way to go. The fee is nominal, and five hundred feet is a stiff climb in an altitude of nearly 7000 feet. The various limestone terraces, Angel, Jupiter, and Pulpit, are viewed. While all of these terraces are formed the same way, and of the same material, yet how they differ! It is possible to enter the deep cleft, bat-infested, known as the Devil's Den. The Liberty Cap, a lone column of rock, is worth seeing. The rocks are colored by the minerals in the water and by a hotwater plant, algæ, the color of which varies from white through yellow, orange, red, and brown to black, with the temperature of the water. The hotter the water, the lighter the algæ. The water, steaming as it goes, flows down the terraces forming beautiful blue pools at various levels.

From Mammoth to Old Faithful, the wayside is full of marvels. The Golden Gate, a rocky pass; the Hoodoos, white and menacing rocks; Twin Lakes—one green, the other blue; Apollinaris Spring; and Gibbon Falls, eighty feet, to mention only a few. The Norris Geyser Basin is awe-inspiring. One can't avoid a thrill as he walks along a narrow plank with steam spouting forth all about. The Paint Pots are mud geysers, bubbling and fuming. In color they shade from pure white to brilliant red. It's a sight that can't be described.

At Old Faithful, even if one travels "camp way," he should step inside to see the Inn. Its unique architecture draws universal commendation. The Canyon Hotel is also noteworthy, although built in an entirely different style. At Old Faithful, government guides conduct parties to see the wonders. And, in the evenings, as at Mammoth, rangers lecture about the park. A complete realization of what will greet you at Old Faithful is impossible.



THIS is not a curious rock or tree formation but a huge pile of elk horns before the office of the ranger service.

Mammoth is marvelous and glorious. Old Faithful Geyser, in view from the porches of both the camp and the Inn, varies in intervals, from forty-five to seventy-five minutes. Its average interval is sixty-two minutes, but that varies from year to year. Old Faithful is rather regular in its eruptions, but sometimes the wide variations just mentioned occur in a course of twenty-four hours. Its eruption is a wonderful sight, the water attaining a height of 125 feet and being expelled for three minutes. One spectator exclaimed, "So you call that playing? I'd call it work!" Incidentally, the choice of terms is interesting; play, work, go off, spit, shoot, and erupt are the most common. Distributed over the silica formation found at Old Faithful are: Beehive, Giant, Grand, Giantess, Castle, Riverside, and Daisy. How many of these have you heard of? Any? They are all important geysers, the first four all throw the water higher than does Old Faithful, but not so frequently. The Grand gives the most beautiful exhibition of all the geysers in the park. These geysers cannot be depended upon as can Old Faithful. Sometimes the Beehive doesn't play for weeks or months; the same applies to the Giantess. The Grand plays twice a day, but the times may be inconven-

ient. Therefore, count upon spending several days at Old Faithful, in order that you may see several of these geysers erupt. The Handkerchief Pool, which sucks handkerchiefs down out of sight and then returns them, interests everyone. The other pools will also prove a source of delight to the visitor. Bath Lake is hot. At Biscuit Basin is Sapphire Pool, the most beautiful blue pool in the park, although that is claimed for the Morning Glory by the guide-books. Sapphire is just the color its name implies; Morning Glory used to be turquoise, but is now a sickly green. Near Handkerchief Pool is Emerald Pool, which is magnificent. A sight of Sapphire and Emerald is adequate compensation for the entire trip. At Mammoth, Old Faithful, and Canyon there are grand hikes to take; horses can be hired; while at Lake, a boat trip is in order.

Somewhere you must visit a ranger station. Old Faithful and Canyon have the newest. There government literature can be obtained, and acquaintance made with the rangers. They are fine men, acting as police, wardens for the animals, guardians of the trees, pools, and geysers, but, in addition, serving the tourist in every possible way, even turning out at two in the morning to find some one who is lost.

No trip is complete without a visit, in the evening, to the "bear-dump." The kitchens send refuse to a designated spot. The bears soon learn its location and gather there in the evening after dinner. Canyon usually has most bears. The ranger on guard, when asked why he carried a rifle, answered, "To protect the bears." He is more than half right, too, for the bears sometimes run from the "camera-hounds." And don't miss a camp entertainment. It may be around a camp-fire, with popping corn and songs, or it may be given in a recreation hall.

The trip from Old Faithful to Lake is one of scenic grandeur. The view from Shoshone Point is excellent. Not only does one view the mountains clad with pines, and Shoshone Lake miles away, but also, in clear weather, the peaks of the Grand Tetons, seventy-five miles distant at Jackson Hole. The Continental Divide is crossed twice, at elevations of 8200 and 8400 feet. Two Ocean Lake, a small body of water which flows into the Atlantic via the Big Horn and Missouri, and into the Pacific via the Snake and Columbia, is worth seeing. At Thumb, there are more Paint

Pots, and Yellowstone Lake is seen. The Fishing Cone is renowned. From Thumb, the road follows the lake past the Knotted Forest and Natural Bridge, high in the air, to the hotel and camp. A walk at night is awesome. The trees tower close to the road, the stars sparkle; the silence is broken only by the lapping of the lake. If the ride on the lake appeals, take it, but much solid enjoyment can be obtained by sitting on the veranda, or one of the fishing piers. Here Uncle Sam has a fish hatchery which is worth inspection. And the lake is ready for the rod. This, too, is a fine place for a marshmallow toast, or a "weenie" roast. There is plenty of wood along the beach, and plenty of water nearby to quench the embers.

The way to Canyon lacks something of the ride to Lake, but is a marvelous trip. The Dragon's Mouth is very realistic. Canyon is wonderful. Upper and Lower falls are beautiful; the canyon itself is an unfailing source of never-ending delight. It is never twice the same. Compared with the Grand Canyon, it is small, but the size is compensated for by the coloring. The blue sky overhead, the narrow thread of green water twelve hundred feet below, shades of grey, red, yellow, and orange, varying from morning till noon, from noon till evening. Canyon is black at night, unlike Old Faithful, on whose eruption the hotel turns a searchlight. View the water from the side opposite the light. Ride in the bus around the Canyon; sit on Artist's Point and Inspiration Point. The hours will fly by, repaying you with endless pleasure. But do not venture down Uncle Tom's Trail unless your heart is strong, for that trip is a great physical task. And so let us leave this



TAME, but not trustworthy" is the verdict of tourists who attempt too much familiarity with the park bears.

gem—the Canyon, little heard of, yet waiting patiently to add to the enjoyment of the tourist. Don't ask, "Does the snow fill the canyon in winter?", any more than you would ask about the steaming Black Sand Pool, "Does it freeze in winter?"

From Canyon, the return may be made to Mammoth, and the West Yellowstone exit used, or the visitor may leave directly from Cody, the eastern gateway. For the tourist who desires an extra opportunity to rest, there is

Camp Roosevelt. There the commercial age has barely penetrated. Located up in the Tower Falls section, it is all as nature made it—the flowers, the trees, the animals. Few visit it because it isn't widely advertised, but when its fame has spread, it will be a popular place. Near Roosevelt is Petrified Forest; with trunks petrified but upright, which is unusual. For one who desires to rough it a bit, there's the trip outside the park, to Cooke City and the Grasshopper Glacier, where one crunches over the bodies of grasshoppers imprisoned thousands of years ago, yet kept in excellent condition by nature's cold storage.

Another side trip is to Jackson Lake. This is made all the way by auto and takes several hours. The lake itself is a thing of beauty, but the Grand Tetons, towering to 13,747 feet, dominate the scene. Fishing in the Snake River is good; listening to the wranglers' yarns is always in order; while hiking brings its rewards.

The Cody gateway is well worth the trip. It's an all-day ride from Lake or Canyon to Cody, but luncheon is obtained at Pahaska and the journey is broken. The driver will point out and name the queer formations of rock which flank the road. No names will serve to increase the grandeur one iota. It is something which must be seen and felt. The coloring, as well as the shapes, draw "Ah's." The immense dam across the Shoshone River, which has caused a lake ten miles long to form, is a recent government project. It is no mean undertaking, but comes, unfortunately, at the end of a trip of superlatives, so that the stock of laudatory phrases is exhausted.



THIS LONE buffalo, safe from hunters in Yellowstone Park, is a reminder of the mighty herds of bygone days. "Hold-up" bears welcome travelers to their park home. Liberty Cap, an extinct hot spring cone, is a landmark in this region of wonders.

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President, Francis G. Blair
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Boston Next

BY CHOOSING BOSTON as the meeting-place for the fifty-eighth annual convention of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association, February 25 to March 1, 1928, the officers of that great Department have emphasized anew its national character. During the past five years its meetings have been held in Dallas, Texas; Washington, D. C.; Cincinnati, Ohio; Chicago, Illinois; and Cleveland, Ohio. Not since 1893 has the Department met in New England.

To the city in which it meets this convention brings the best leaders in American education who in turn take back to their homes and their work an appreciation of the locality whose hospitality they have shared. This fact gives to these meetings in addition to their scientific and technical importance a large value as a force for national unity and understanding.

President Joseph M. Gwinn, superintendent of schools at San Francisco, surrounded by the beauty and energy of the Golden Gate, will join hands with Superintendent Jeremiah E. Burke of Boston, State Superintendent Payson Smith of Massachusetts, and other hosts to develop in Boston a convention worthy the rich historic setting of New England.

American Education Week

AMERICAN EDUCATION WEEK has become a permanent institution. It is to be observed during the week that

includes Armistice Day, November 11—beginning on Monday and ending on Sunday. Teachers may now make their plans to observe this important occasion for interpreting the schools to the public. The purposes, achievements, activities, and needs of the schools furnish a theme of unending interest to the parents who send their children and the taxpayers who foot the bills. In the number of persons involved the schools represent by far the biggest single interest in American life. They are making a heroic struggle to keep up with the demands made upon them. Often they are held back by a failure of parents and citizens to appreciate their needs and their services.

Appreciated Appreciation

THE TEACHERS of the nation who have been making possible the work of the National Education Association will appreciate the following tribute which is found in the *Twenty-sixth Yearbook* of the National Society for the Study of Education—an organization peculiarly qualified to speak in such matters:

Curriculum making, from the day of the Committee of Ten, has been predominantly via national committees, and most of the important ones have been sponsored by the National Education Association. This organization, through its important subsidiaries—the National Council of Education, the Secondary Department, and the Department of Superintendence—has been one of the few great formative influences in the development of the school curriculum. Specifically, it sponsored such important reports as that of the Committee of Ten (on secondary education, 1893), the Committee of Fifteen (on elementary education, 1893), the reports of its two Committees on Economy of Time (elementary education, 1908 and 1914-19), the reports of its Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education (1920) and the more recent yearbooks of the Department of Superintendence (1924-25-26).

Common Sense

IN THE ANNUAL REPORT of the Dean of Teachers College, Columbia University, is a suggestion of interest to men and women who are considering work for higher degrees in education. It relates to the practise which has forced hundreds of candidates for the Ph.D. degree to meet foreign language requirements when they were working in fields where the ability to read a foreign language was not particularly helpful. This degree is commonly pursued by mature men and women whose time has high

value and for whom the mastery of a strange language is more difficult than it would have been at an earlier age. Every hour that is given to this requirement is taken from needed research and study in fields closely related to the candidate's thesis. The following suggestion, submitted by Director Robert Josselyn Leonard of the School of Education of Teachers College, will therefore be received with general approval:

Various proposals have been entertained for the administration of the foreign language requirement for the doctorate. It is my belief that only those students should be encouraged to present a foreign language as an instrument of research whose majors are in history of education or comparative education or who are preparing dissertations which actually require the utilization of a particular language. It is important for leaders in education to know of the organization and administration of schools in other countries and to be familiar with the best sources of information regarding foreign education. With the development of our courses in comparative education, taught by professors who through travel and study are continually in touch with educational systems throughout the world, this end may be better attained by the election of such courses than by the study of a foreign language.

The great majority of candidates for the doctorate now present a course in statistics in lieu of one foreign language. The faculty has approved a new course, methods in research, which, also, may be substituted for a language. I have no doubt that many students in the future will present this course in lieu of a second foreign language.



MRS. A. H. REEVE, president of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers whose annual meeting will be in Oakland, May 21-27. Mrs. Reeve has built the program for that meeting around the seven cardinal objectives of education.

Research Improving Health Education

EAGERNESS to acquire the art of living richer and fuller lives is greater today than ever before.

The result is a steady growth in the health ideal. As people learn more about themselves and the forces at work in their lives, they place a greater value on health, for they appreciate more fully the significance of health in the accomplishment of their desires.

The public school popularizes scientific preventive health work and teaches children how to keep well. Important approaches to health and physical efficiency are being made by the rapidly developing biological, hygienic, and medical sciences and are being applied in school health programs. New discoveries unless incorporated into the lives of the people through proper health habits and attitudes toward hygienic regulations have little practical effect. "Knowledge is without influence until it is given to the public. It is without power until it is accepted by the public." Hence the work of the public school is fundamental to solid progress in preventive health work. The keynote of the modern campaign for health is education. Results can be reached only by spreading a clear knowledge of the ways in which disease spreads and the ways in which it is prevented. The practice of hygiene in the average home follows far in the rear of medical discoveries. Education of youth in personal and social hygiene is a definite obligation of the public school. Data as to the physical defects of school children show that health work must be corrective as well as preventive. It is commonly reported that more than 75 percent of the 25,000,000 school children suffer from some physical defect. The number of children with decayed teeth varies in different localities from 50 to 98 percent. It is estimated that from 30 to 40 percent have adenoids and diseased tonsils; from 25 to 40 percent have defects of posture and foot arches; from 15 to 25 percent are malnourished; and approximately 25 percent have defects in vision. These facts show that few children have had continuous and adequate prenatal, infant, and preschool care.

In many communities training in healthful living has not been made an integral part of the curriculum. In certain sections where health and physical education are recognized as important

elements of the entire school program, lack of equipment, of supervision, and of teacher training have retarded progress.

The Aims of Health Education

TO INSTRUCT children and youth so that they may conserve and improve their own health.

2. To establish in them the habits and principles of living which, throughout their school life and in later years, will assure that abundant vigor and vitality which provide the basis for the greatest possible happiness and service in personal, family, and community life.

3. To influence parents and other adults through the health education program for children, to better habits and attitudes, so that the school may become an effective agency for the promotion of health in the family and community as well as in the school itself.

4. To improve the individual and community life of the future; to insure a better second generation, and a still better third generation; a healthier and fitter nation and race.—*Report of the Joint Committee on Health Problems in Education of the National Education Association and the American Medical Association.*

Three phases of an adequate school health program. An adequate health program includes all means that make for physical well being, and the providing of an environment favorable for growth and for productive work. Such a program includes (1) health service, (2) health education, and (3) physical education.

The term, *health service*, covers such protective measures, adopted by the school to conserve and improve the health of the children, as: (a) medical and physical examinations; (b) the followup program and correction of remedial health defects; (c) regular health inspection of children; (d) school sanitation, which includes such matters as location of building, heating, lighting, ventilating, seating, and cleaning of rooms; (e) first aid and safety provisions; (f) immunization of children against infections and communicable disease; (g) hygiene of instruction, including such items as length of school day; and (h) health of teachers, janitors or

custodians, and other officials and employees coming in contact with school children.

Health education is the sum of experiences in school and elsewhere, which favorably influences knowledge, attitudes, and habits relating to health. As soon as the child's schooling begins, he needs to be taught the things that pertain to his personal health and the sanitation of his surroundings. He needs to be given a right attitude toward health and to acquire health habits through practice and repetition. Health instruction which does not carry over into habitual action is vain. Emotionalized attitudes toward good health must be established. Experience shows that health habits are best taught, not as an isolated subject, but in connection with all other interests of the child.

Physical education comprises the big brain-muscle activities such as play, athletics, dancing, and swimming.

In some school systems these three phases of educational effort in health and physical education are coordinated and directed in one administrative department. In other systems the work is divided between several departments. In fact, the rapid development of the public health movement has produced a bewildering variety of administrative procedures, good, bad, and indifferent, which are designed to accomplish similar purposes.

Curriculum questions in the fields of health and physical education cannot in any instance be completely and fully answered by available research. There are, however, certain definite trends, as shown in the *Third Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association*.

Summary of trend of research findings in health education. Research studies point out these trends:

1. A survey of the local community health needs and of the health needs of individual children is the most valid basis for the construction of the curriculum in health education.

2. To make the health program of the school effective it is necessary for the school, the home, and the community to cooperate.

3. The tendency in health education is to evaluate results in terms of effectiveness in solving actual health problems of the individual and the community rather than in terms of knowledge alone.

4. Although the final measurement of health education consists in its contribution

to the solution of health problems, it is also necessary to devise measures of the informational aspects of the health education program. Health information tests should be made and tried out to give an experimental basis for placing information in suitable grades.

5. The subjectmatter of health education should not emphasize health as an end in itself so much as the value of health as a means of accomplishing interesting and worthwhile things. With elementary school children the emphasis should be on the relationship of health to the activities of the immediate present rather than the distant future.

Trend of research in physical education. Research studies in physical education reveal these findings which should be carefully considered in a program of curriculum construction:

1. A study of age, grade, weight, and height is suggested as a means of classifying students for physical education activities.

2. The use of a four-point classification—age, grade, height, and weight—has proved a satisfactory means of grouping high school boys for interscholastic athletics.

3. The relationship of physical efficiency may be a potent factor in adjusting pupils to correct grade placement.

4. An experiment shows that play is more effective than formal exercise as a means of reaching the objectives laid down in a physical education program.

5. Group competition is desirable whenever possible for two reasons: (a) It stimulates pupils to increase their individual achievement. (b) It is socially effective in that the individual is urged to greater self-realization in keeping with the best group interests.

6. Underweight causes a lessening of motor efficiency equivalent to from one half to one year of retardation.

The case method—fitting the course to the individual. Physical capacity tests are being developed so that individual needs can be met in physical education classes. Without the application of these tests, those whose physical condition and fitness are low are often given exactly the same training as those who are in almost perfect condition. In carefully sec-

tioned classes, the bookworm is not put through the same program as the athlete—a program which is seldom designed to meet the needs of either.

Each pupil should be given a physical examination at the beginning of each semester for the purpose of discovering remedial physical defects. A record of these examinations should be kept, together with statements of response to special training offered.

Individual daily or weekly health charts should be kept, since checking up at home and at school is necessary if proper health habits are to become part of the daily life of the child. Children are interested in comparing themselves with the normal growth curve—the increase of weight with height and age. They can also be interested in keeping in "condition" or in "keeping fit."

Nutrition classes should be more than groups to which a pint of milk and a graham cracker are distributed. Individual attention should be given to diet, to rest, to exercise, and to general physical condition of each undernourished child. The recognition of individual differences in school children and the application as far as possible of education suited to individual needs and capacities is the task of health as well as of all types of education.

Mental hygiene. The tendency has been too largely to consider a child as an ensemble of lungs, tonsils, teeth, eyes, feet, and posture with very little atten-

tion to the child as a whole. Mental hygiene should become a working reality in school, clinic, and court. One of the hopeful phases of health work is the increasing use by school departments of psychologist and psychiatrist in inaugurating definite mental hygiene programs.

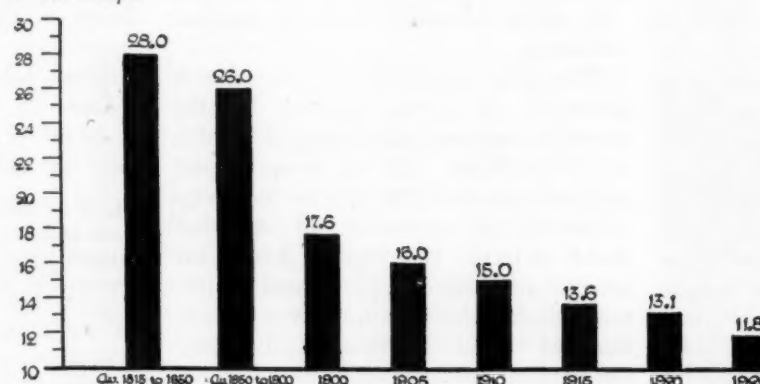
"Wreck-creation" or "re-creation"? Leisure is an asset or a liability, depending on its use. The wholesome use of leisure is one of the outcomes with which teachers of physical education are directly concerned, since it results in better work and happier living. A recent study of sixteen physical education activities was made to discover which ones students enjoyed and desired for leisure time. According to this study, the four activities preferred most frequently by students in their leisure were: swimming, hiking, tennis, and dancing.

What the lengthening of individual life means to social well being. According to one writer, "each individual and each generation takes part in the great relay race of human evolution and each retires at the end of a short period." The American public school has the task of educating children to replace the million and a quarter trained men and women over twenty years of age who die each year.

The accompanying chart shows, however, that the yearly death rate per thousand is rapidly decreasing. This means that less of our annual educational effort need go to providing "replacement education." It means that once a man is trained, he has a longer period in which to use that training, to profit by experience, and to contribute ideas and materials for the social well being. When one contemplates the tremendous contribution that each generation could make if it had even one year longer of life that was trained, experienced, healthy, and socially productive, he gets a new vision of health education.—M. M. Alltucker.

THE FOUNDATION FOR HEALTHFUL LIVING IS LAID IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOL

Yearly Death Rate
Per 1000 People



"Health as a rule is a purchasable commodity and the price is education."

Division of Research
National Education Association

THIS graph shows the reduction in the deathrate brought about in a hundred years by improvement in living conditions.

Public Interests in Art

HENRY W. KENT

Secretary, Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York City

IN THIS ERA of specialization, boxed as we are in our own compartments, we lose much of the joy of life, and especially of work, from not being able to see what is going on around us in the whole scheme of things of which we are a part. So accepted is this condition of compartmental activity that many of us do not even attempt to discover what is taking place outside of our own province; the rebuffs, perhaps, are too great, or the rewards too small. The pity of it is that sometimes things happen that we have longed for, and yet we are not aware of them. I often wonder whether all of us know what is happening in our world today among the agencies charged with responsibilities for art—for its spread and enjoyment among the people; whether our associates, trustees, principals, and teachers of other subjects are aware of what is happening, whether they understand that a crisis in public education is taking place now which eventually will make us all parties to it; and this through the reconstruction of our system, our curricula, and our methods in



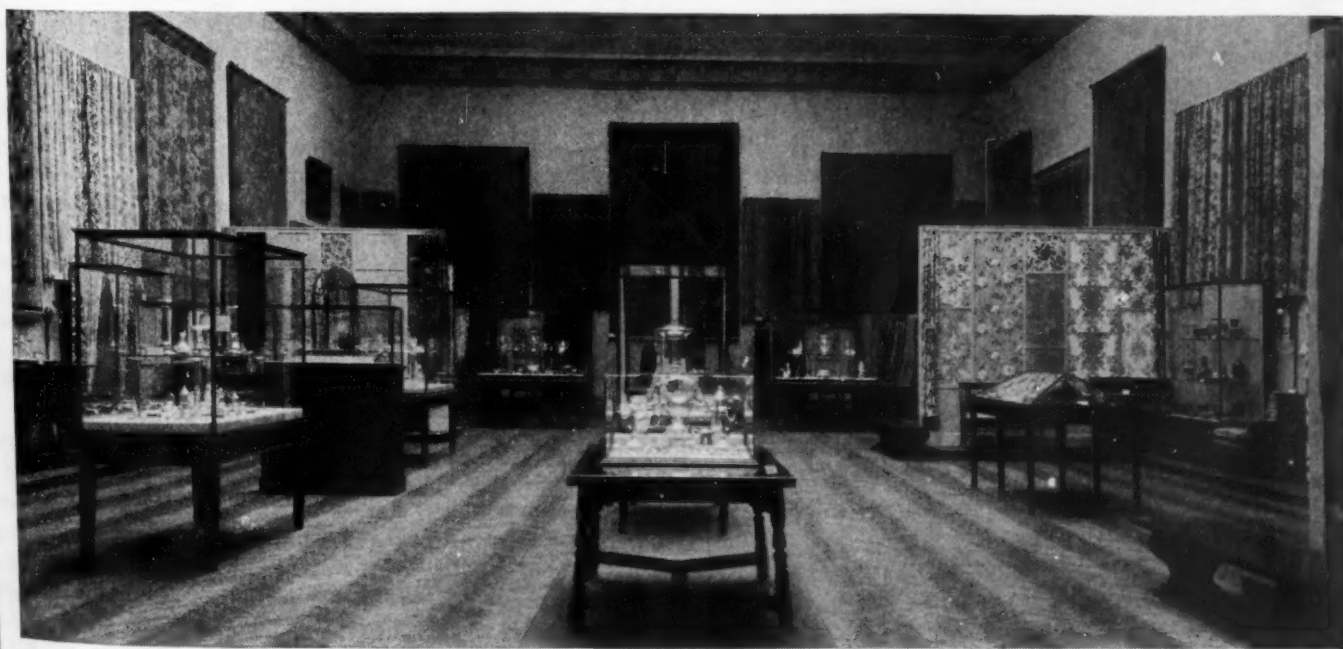
SCENE from the film of *Vasantasena*, made by the Metropolitan Museum of Art as a part of its educational service.

the teaching of art, in order that it may have the importance given to it which it deserves in the general scheme of public education.

Art has always existed in the world, and so have the love of it and the understanding of the part it may play in the life of the individual and the community; but only recently has it come to be accepted as a thing *essential* to the life of both. Certain people, the

powerful, the rich, and the cultivated, have always had beautiful things among their possessions; and certain countries, like China, Greece, and Italy, which, by a curious leavening of their clay, have understood the value of beauty, have always been preeminent in artistic matters; but never until now have all the people of any country without rank, power, or wealth demanded that *they* be possessed of beautiful things. This seeming miracle has happened not because of the insistent, if sometimes indefinite, teaching of enlightened educators, nor by the agency of any particular force, but as a result of the coincidental activities of a number of more or less unrelated factors, some with definite forethought, but others without it.

By a curious paradox, the most direct and immediate of these agencies have been the *machine* and the immutable laws of competition in industries and trade. This great country for many years has been building up enormous industries, and it has learned that if it is to succeed in rivaling the same kind of industries as carried on in other



THE GROWTH of American industrial art is shown by the tenth annual exhibit in the Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York City. The photographs on this page and the one on page 153 were furnished through the courtesy of that great museum.

lands, it must take into consideration the ingredient which gives many of them their greatest value—the quality of art. It has only now determined upon that rivalry. It has now come to the point of desiring to excel in this quality as well as in the others requiring technical, mechanical, or practical excellence, to which it has bent all of its endeavors heretofore. This decision has been, and is, the greatest influence in the change of the public attitude towards art. Touch the public pocket and you awaken the public mind. So soon as the public puts its money into art, so soon it reads the daily quotations of the market. Art in the marketplace is the sign of a living, vital interest, not alone of a few knowing ones—the professor, the collector, the museum-man, or the antiquity dealer—but of the whole part. Art, in its truest sense, has come to this country as something belonging to the day and hour, and to all the people.

The manufacturer is earnest in his effort to increase the value of his product in the matter of style, design, and color—the qualities which make for excellence in the arts of decoration. This is shown by a casual inspection of his goods, but more especially in the greater consideration which he now gives to the ability of his designers and the excellence of their work—to the recognition of them by name as an important part in his equipment in reputation. For this reason the schools where such designers are trained have recently come under a surveillance never experienced before. Their theories and methods of instruction are being subjected to examination and criticism, all of which means that they are recognized by the employer of their students as playing an important rôle in this development.

It is significant that the art school itself has undergone a complete change within the last twenty-five years. It now recognizes the need of instruction in the arts of design and their practical application, as well as those of imitation; and with this change has come gradually a recognition of the need of high standards and practical, as well as theoretical, training. Just now, also, these same schools are being called to an exact accounting, so to speak, in two important matters—the selection of their students and the value of their diplomas. The question of a scientific test of ability in art is today receiving attention—a significant sign of the earnestness of the present moment—and should the investiga-

tions going forward work to some practical end, a long step will have been taken towards the eradication of an evil in the present training in art—the prolongation of the encouragement of the unfit.

Another great factor in this development of interest in art, certainly one of the greatest educators in taste, is the shop. The wide variety of goods, including paintings, sculpture, and prints, found in the department store today, the knowledge displayed in the selection of its stock, the skill shown in the display of its wares, especially in its show-windows, have a more immediate and effective influence in the lives of the people than any other agency. With the spread of the example set by the foremost merchants, who aim at the highest quality of artistic excellence in their various departments, we shall soon find this principle accepted by all. This raising of the artistic standards in shops is evidenced not alone by its wares but also by the careful training which is given to its employees. In the best department stores, schools of training are maintained under able instructors, wherein the employees are taught all about cash, credit, stock, and other purely business system matters, and about styles, taste, and in some cases, even the history of art as well. This is the best kind of training, adopted to get immediate results with standards as exact as they are definite.

Museums, perhaps, have a greater opportunity for the advancement of art in the community than any other of the forces now at work, because it is so obviously their job to stand plainly and unequivocally for accomplishment and high standards. The avowed purpose of the museum is to collect within its walls good art for the enjoyment of the people, and for their education if they so desire. Most of the museums have collected good art and most of them have stressed this goodness, but all of them, until the last few years, have concerned themselves with the arts of the past, drawing a sharp line between the old and the new. They have played for safety in matters of taste and judgment, and have relied upon the decisions of Time, preferring not to involve themselves in the debates which precede the decisions of the day in matters of art, as in all others. They have collected along conservative and academic lines, and as a result, they have allied themselves with the historian,

archaeologist, and ethnologist, whose methods they have adopted, rather than with the prophet and the man of the street. They have allowed the people to do their own feeling and thinking.

Within recent years, however, there has been a change; the museums have included in their collections the arts of design, as well as the fine arts, and, seeing the writing on the wall, they have come to an understanding of their obligation to the arts of today and tomorrow; they have sensed the truth of Ruskin's remark that where manufacturing is found there will art be found also, and they have begun to be active as well as passive agents; they have begun to demonstrate their collections, leaving to the schools, art schools, and colleges, the function of teaching as properly belongs to them. Some museums show modern art annually in their galleries, thus establishing personal relations with artists, craftsmen, and the public. They aim not alone to create in the beholder emotions of joy in beauty but to give the more practical citizen the right to get what he desires out of his inspection, even helping him to turn his study into business channels if his reaction leads to such an end. In a word, the museum has taken its rightful place among the *active* agents for art in the community, not alone for the benefit of the collector, the scholar, and the cultivated person of taste, but for the good of the whole people.

Insensibly we have been subjected to a very vital sort of training in one of the essentials of art; we have been introduced to color; our sense of it has undergone a perceptible change; we have outgrown our grandmothers' limited schemes of blue, green, red, and yellow, and have applied to all of the materials of dress and the household, shades and harmonies. Herein we have been served by the chemists and associations of manufacturers who, especially since the war, have been quick to turn their attention and their resources into this wide channel for our artistic development.

In this connection, we should note what seems a simple thing, but one of influence in our artistic education—the extended use in books and magazines of the various photo-mechanical processes for the reproduction of paintings and other objects having color. The comparatively low cost of such pictures has opened up possibilities for stimulation and even enjoyment which processes for reproductions in black and

white have never had, and we may not forget the part played in this development by the *Ladies' Home Journal* and similar magazines. The large increase, also, in advertisements in color has had a not unimportant part in this growing sensitiveness.

Another, and more subtle, influence in this awakening of the public interest in our subject has been the present-day attitude of the theater towards color and design in scenery, costumes, and lighting. Insensibly these expressions of artistic principles have added to the momentum of the movement for art. The drabness of the stage of earlier days, like the black-and-whiteness of so many other things in our social and industrial life, has passed away.

And now what have the organized teaching agencies done to help promote this awakening to art in our communities? What are they doing to advance the present interest in it? Art has had but a brief place in the history of education, and little standing with educators. The middle of the nineteenth century saw its rise. Pestalozzi pleaded for it, and so did Ruskin. No teacher can afford not to read and reread Ruskin's well

known writing on the teaching of art.

England began the discussion of education in art in 1851, at the time of her industrial awakening. It was not until 1870 that drawing was required in the schools of Massachusetts, and from then to 1907, twelve states made this elementary form of education in art compulsory. For many years, drawing was all the "art" our embryo citizens had given them—varied in its form, as time went on, by "linear drawing," "geometrical drawing," "sketching," and finally, "drawing from the cast," and "design." Then "color" came into being, thanks again to Pestalozzi and to the kindergartners, and finally, today, the thing we call "appreciation of art." "Vocational training" and "household art," which I understand to embrace the teaching of certain subjects requiring a knowledge of color and design, were the next steps taken, and they have done more to lead to the inculcation of a rudimentary interest in and knowledge of "art" in children than any other form of teaching in the public schools. Once given a chance to study what others have done, a chance to discriminate between what is well done and what less well, by com-

parison, also, what is beautiful and what is ugly, and the youthful student mind develops quickly.

Behind all of these innovations, however effective they may have been, there was a real desire to give the children a training for their artistic understanding. With a desire to give the same sort of thing to young men and women, but without regard to what was being done in the school, the college began to teach the history of the fine arts—painting, sculpture, and architecture—and several generations have now been instilled with the information that Egypt begat an art-loving Greece, who begat an art for Rome, who begat an art for the early Christian, and so on, down to the year 1800, where, so far as this teaching is concerned, art would appear to have stopped begetting.

Few of the colleges of this broad land, even now, teach what *art* is, what it is for, or how it affects the individual and the nation, and practically none of them concerns itself at all with the art of today or tomorrow. With characteristic American shyness of facing facts in which criticism is involved, our teachers generally—pedagogs as well as critics—



THE TEXTILE STUDY ROOM of the Metropolitan Museum of Art is the source of interesting material for New York schools. Museums and schools are now seeking to apply in everyday life and in industry the elements of beauty found in fine art.

evade their duty in the study and valuation of what we are producing in sculpture and painting especially, and the arts of design—still leading their students and our people to look to the past for all their canons of taste and enjoyment.

The college appears never to have seen what the high schools have found out, that "art" does not belong to periods, does not lie enwrapped in history, although it *has* adopted the dictum of Ruskin that "it is surely also, a more important thing for young people and unprofessional students, to know how to appreciate the art of others, than to gain much power in art themselves." But this the *school* has not taken to heart. With no apparent relationship between them, and with different ideals, different methods, and different definitions, even, these two forces appear to go their own ways. What is most needed today in the academic teaching of art is the getting together of the higher and the lower hierarchies in education for the consideration of each other's methods and principles and for the making of plans for future cooperation.

"Great nations write their autobiographies in their manuscripts—the book of their deeds, the book of their words, and the book of their art. Not one of these books can be understood unless we read the two others; but of the three, the only quite trustworthy one is the last. The acts of a nation may be triumphant by its good fortune; and its words mighty by the genius of a few of its children; but its art, only by the general gifts and sympathies of the race." If we accept this dictum of Ruskin, we shall need to avail ourselves of all our forces in education to teach

this great truth to the people of America.

It is gratifying, however, to observe that investigation, cooperation, and coordination are words often used nowadays among some of those who have the interests of art education at heart. The activities of the Federated Council on Art Education are well known to you; its work of coordination is something in which you have a part. The museum, also, in its new-found spirit of expansion, seeks to cooperate with all of the other agencies. The carefully laid plans of the Carnegie Corporation for the study of the present tendencies in art, and the opportunities for its use and enjoyment, and the generous contributions of this powerful agency for the furtherance of all these things have done more than any other agency to give impetus to present educational activities.

We must not forget to mention the campaign carried on by the numerous societies and other organized bodies for the encouragement of the fine arts—the American Federation of Arts, the Federation of Women's Clubs, the National Society of Architects, and many others; nor the leagues of specialized interests in the arts, and especially the trade papers. The daily newspapers, all of which are giving increasing attention to this subject, of course, are factors of greatest potentiality.

It has not been a part of my purpose to speak of the professional practitioners of art, but I cannot refrain from referring to one whose work is among the great public influences, the architect, who has lately given us a new and truly great style in our buildings, stimulating to the imagination, beautiful, and grand in its sphere as the Pyramids of

Cheops in theirs. No one in our cities but must be affected by this development in the national art. The architect has added one more mark of distinction to his work always foremost in its influence for our enjoyment.

In considering these various factors in the movement that is going on among us today to develop our interest in beautiful things, we are impressed by the fact that art is not dependent upon a capacity to learn, but rather upon a sensitiveness to feel, which is inherent in the human mind, that expands with opportunity, and reacts to all kinds of influences. Therefore, those whose business it is to teach should have clearly in mind the subtle quality of this thing they are dealing with and should learn to approach their students differently from what they do when inculcating the rule of three or the rules of grammar, for which, so far as I have ever heard, the human mind has no such in-born sympathy.

I have tried to recite some of the conditions relating to our work, yours and mine, but what I want to leave with you is the thought that this thing, art, which Münsterberg called "ideal repose, the repose in the ideal," has really come rapping at our door, not the school door, nor the manufacturer's door, nor the museum door, but the nation's door; and we should hold up our heads and receive it as a sign that our country and our people have reached the point where they are ready for its ministration and its beneficence.

"Though we travel the world over to find the beautiful, we must carry it with us, or we find it not."



"The Child Shall Be First"

Courtesy U. S. Children's Bureau

The Ann Arbor Plan for Leave

THAT every teacher on active duty shall be fit for the exacting work of the schoolroom and that provision shall be made for the growth of all teachers are principles of school administration that are rapidly gaining in application. The following rules of the Ann Arbor board of education show how these principles are being worked out in a city well known for the excellence of its schools.

PLAN FOR SICK LEAVE—Ten days each year is granted to each full-time member of the teaching, administrative, supervisory, and library force of the Ann Arbor schools for the following purposes:

- (1) Personal illness of such nature as to render member unfit for service.
- (2) Quarantine of member.
- (3) Critical illness of one of the immediate family of member.
- (4) Death of one of the immediate family of member.

At the end of each year any unused portion of the ten days shall cumulate and may be used at some subsequent time if need be for the above purposes. There may be an accumulation of not to exceed 95 days built up in this manner.

PLAN FOR SABBATICAL LEAVE OF ABSENCE—Whereas, a sabbatical leave of absence granted to teachers for study and selfimprovement is no longer an experiment, being used in colleges, universities, normal schools, and many of the progressive public school systems of the country, and

Whereas, a sabbatical leave would stimulate the achievement of that high professional skill and intellectual attainment particularly demanded of the teaching and library force in Ann Arbor, and

Whereas, a plan for a sabbatical leave would attract to the Ann Arbor school system teachers, both men and women, of exemplary character, of unusual intellectual tastes, and of proved teaching ability, and

Whereas, a plan for a sabbatical leave would tend to stabilize the teaching force of the Ann Arbor schools by reducing the turnover, and

Whereas, a plan for a sabbatical leave would make it possible for teachers to better fit themselves for a higher type of educational service for the Ann Arbor schools.

Therefore, be it resolved that this board of education adopt a plan for a sabbatical leave with the following conditions:

SUPERINTENDENT OTTO W. HAISLEY of the Ann Arbor, Michigan, public schools courteously sends this set of resolutions recently adopted by the board of education of that city. They contain material for study by teachers clubs, one hundred percent schools, and other groups at work on the problems of the profession. Superintendent Haisley writes:

In making these provisions for Ann Arbor teachers, it has not been felt that any benevolences were being established. This is an out and out business proposition which the people of Ann Arbor are entering in the belief that they shall be able to obtain better teachers; that there will be greater growth on the part of the professional group; and finally, that longer teacher tenure will be insured.

1. A leave of absence may be granted to any member of the teaching, administrative, supervisory, or library staff for study or travel after seven or more consecutive years of successful service in the Ann Arbor public schools. For each subsequent seven-year period of service or more such leave of absence may be used for study, travel, or restoration of health.

2. A leave of absence shall normally extend over a one-year period but it may by mutual agreement between the applicant and the superintendent of schools extend over a half-year period. For a leave of one year, one half of the regular salary shall be paid. For a leave of one half year full salary shall be paid. Salary computations shall be based upon the regular salary for the year during which leave is taken.

3. Regular annual salary increments shall be given for time of leave, the same as for regular services in the school. Also, time shall count as regular services toward retirement and full contribution to retirement salary fund shall continue during the period of leave.

4. The applicant to whom is granted a leave of absence shall contract to teach in the Ann Arbor schools for a period of three consecutive years. If the teacher on his own volition shall fail to

serve the full three-year period, then he shall return to the board of education a portion of the salary paid to him during his leave.

The amount of salary returned shall bear the same ratio to the salary received during the leave as the unfulfilled term of the contract bears to the contracted three-year period.

5. If during the period of leave one engages in remunerative service, then he shall pay to the Ann Arbor board of education all monies so received but not exceeding the salary paid him during such leave.

6. Any person to whom has been granted a leave of absence shall have the right to be assigned to the same position upon return which he held before taking leave.

7. Application for leave of absence shall be made upon a regular form furnished by the superintendent of schools. Applicant shall agree to abide by all conditions determined upon by the board of education to govern leave of absence.

8. Not more than three percent of the group composing the teaching, administrative, supervisory, and library force shall be granted leave in any one year. If a larger number than this shall apply, preference shall be given to those longest in the employ of the Ann Arbor district uninterrupted by a leave of absence.

9. Request for leave of absence shall be made in writing to the superintendent of schools by April 1 and November 15 preceding the semester or semesters when the leave of absence is to begin.

10. When leave of absence is granted due consideration shall be given to the reasonable and equitable distribution of the applicants among the different schools and among the different departments.

SUPERINTENDENT RANDALL J. CONDON of Cincinnati had the following words inscribed on the tower of a school building recently constructed in that city:

All who will may enter and find within these walls equal and varied opportunity for a liberal education, based alike upon art and industry, with books and things, work and study combined; and where good health, and spirit of play, and joy in work well done shall abound.

What Is Evidence?

MAY L. CHENEY

Appointment Secretary, University of California, Berkeley, California

AFTER nearly forty years of intensive experience in the delicate task of judging my fellow human beings, I am moved to record some reflections on the nature of evidence. Most of my work has been done under the title of Appointment Secretary of the University of California, Berkeley, and for the last ten years has been confined to the recommendation of teachers. The title is misleading, having been imported from England by Harvard University and passed on to the rest of us. Whatever else this overworked officer does, she, and it generally is she, does not make appointments. She is, however, rather an important link in the chain that leads to the appointment of a teacher. In this day of mass production, even in education, hers is the grateful task of trying to humanize the machine. She stands between the training school and the employing public. She does not as a rule come in contact with the board of education which makes the appointment. Modern boards of education no longer see candidates and attempt to exercise the duties of an expert in weighing evidence and deciding which ones should be employed. The principal or superintendent, with the help of supervisors and heads of departments, weighs the evidence and makes the real decision.

Theoretically at least every principal or superintendent seeks the very best teacher for each position to be filled. How does he best find that one he seeks? The old method known in industry as "hiring at the gate" entails such a waste of time and effort it is being superseded in most cities. Every progressive superintendent knows that in teaching, as in every other calling there will be but a small number of really superior candidates. If he is to secure his proportion of these he must exert himself. He must hunt in place of being hunted.

This new policy of the superintendent gives tremendous importance to the service the appointment secretary renders. While in no way encroaching upon his prerogative of choosing his teachers, she does hasten the process of finding what he wants. It is a mistake to imagine that her duties may be safely entrusted to a clerk. It does take an enormous amount of clerical work to prepare the

material from which she selects what is needed in each case. For the decision she makes in selecting from thousands of candidates the right ones to recommend for consideration in a given case, the wisdom and judgment of an expert are demanded. The ability to weigh evidence is the first qualification of an appointment secretary. And it is not only the evidence in regard to the desirability of a certain teacher. She must weigh the evidence in regard to the relative desirability of the position to be filled, and decide whether Miss A is the type of teacher Superintendent X will employ. In the instant of time it takes the appointment secretary to decide on the best person as she runs over the names of the available candidates, what evidence has she reviewed? First she gives a sweeping glance at the whole past history of the school in question, the community that built it, the men and women who organized it, its traditions, the conditions that surround it today, its need of stimulation or subduing influences. Perhaps there are certain religious restrictions which Miss A would chafe under, or it may be that being straightlaced herself she might misunderstand the pleasure-loving but really harmless young people. Mistakes in adjustment of teachers have such tragic results. Children have only one life to live. They cannot retrace their steps. The difference for them between a teacher who will answer and one who can open the gates of Heaven for them goes with them through life. Therefore placement is a fine art. We need to realize its immense importance in modern education. With the best intentions in the world the superintendent cannot carry out his plans without the help of the classroom teacher. No matter how rich he may be in buildings and equipment, all the material things that make for success, it is what passes between teacher and pupil that counts. Who is to discover for him the teacher with the divine spark that kindles intellectual curiosity? How many teachers are there in the whole world who have risen above the passive conception of education as a process of filling little pitchers from large ones? The leaders know that only what is eagerly sought

by the learner becomes a part of him. The task of the appointment secretary is to find the teachers who stimulate children to educate themselves. From the thousands that pass through one of the great training schools, supervisors and teachers easily select the ten percent who are what old-fashioned people describe as "born teachers." Obviously there will never be enough of these to meet the demand. Then begins the long task of weighing evidence to discover which ones of the remaining ninety percent have qualities of heart and mind that enable them to carry on, making their contribution in steady guidance and sympathetic understanding of children. No superintendent would fill his whole school with inspirational teachers if he could. He will attempt to place these teachers in key positions. Once the process is started, children will get help and guidance from teachers less gifted. Teachers are always growing intellectually or they are dying.

After all, what one human being knows about another is little more than a guess which is often wide of the mark. The appointment secretary collects these guesses. By long experience she learns which people guess right most frequently. From long experience she also develops the power of sensing quality in teachers. She adds her guess to those of the instructors and supervisors, and presents the evidence to the inquiring superintendent. This sifting process is continuous, and it must be repeated over and over again, for it deals with living material. As has been said, no teacher stands still. To judge what contributes most to her spiritual and intellectual growth one must know her past history, the burdens she carries, the ambitions she cherishes, her emotional stability, her religious experiences. The greatest privilege the appointment secretary enjoys is the personal contact with this eager company pressing forward to the great task of leading the world forth from darkness. In all the years that are past there was never a time when a generation of young people needed more desperately to learn how to think straight. Let us search diligently, with all the aids at our command, for teachers who have learned that great lesson.

A Bridge of Understanding

DANIEL CHASE

*Secretary of the Sportsmanship Brotherhood
New York City*

ON THE FRONT page of the *New York Times* in December, 1923, there appeared a report of a soccer game in Alsace between a French and a German team. At the close of the game, the French captain remarked to the German captain, "If there had been more sporting contests like that between our people there might not have been a World War!"

With the outbreak of the World War in 1914, the complicated human mechanism which we call civilization was rudely flung into the melting pot. Education, religion, foreign diplomacy, physical strength, military force, commercial power all were put on trial. Much of the traditional dross with which each was encumbered was burned away. Out of the conflict, new ideas, new ideals, new forces, and new values have appeared.

The idea of sports serving as a "moral equivalent for war" is not new but the World War revived in vivid form the absolute necessity for finding some force which would unite in spiritual comradeship the nations of the world, while giving at the same time ample opportunity for the expression of natural, desirable instincts, and vigorous social activities.

During the eight years which have passed since the signing of the armistice, the possibilities of the spirit of sportsmanship have been frequently mentioned by leading thinkers in the fields of education, politics, and literature.

In the following paragraph, Glenn Frank, president of the University of Wisconsin, has set forth the intimate relationship between the spirit of sportsmanship and spirit of true Americanism:

The essence of sound Americanism is the sportsmanlike spirit. And the acid test of our sportsmanship is the attitude we take toward the thing we call majority rule. Majority rule is the cornerstone of democracy. . . . It is far from perfect, but there is nothing better in sight to take its place. . . . The hope of humanity lies in a democracy that knows how to administer majority in a sportsmanlike manner.

Speaking at Philadelphia on October 17, 1925, Senator George Wharton Pepper of Pennsylvania said:

I do not decry the attempt to establish a universal language, I do not belittle the

value of treaties, and courts, and leagues for the maintenance of peace. But I am of the opinion that there is a great peacemaking power in common standards of fair play and that the noble army of sportsmen throughout the world is destined to be a peace army of no mean strength.

In a recent article, John H. Finley has written:

Some educational experts hold that the wholesome results of a discipline in one subject or study are not transferable to problems in other subjects. But can anyone doubt that a fine sense of honor on the links or an inward compulsion to do the fair thing on the playing field will find its expression in the vocations, in dealing between employer and employee or in transactions in business? Were this not true the games and sports of a nation would make but little contribution to character. . . . "Play the game"—that means truthfulness, courage, Spartan endurance, selfcontrol, selfrespect, scorn of luxury, consideration one for another's opinions and rights, courtesy, and, above all, fairness. These are the fruits of the spirit of sportsmanship and in them lies the best hope of social well being. If all individuals carried on their business in this spirit; if great organizations of labor and of capital were controlled by it in their relations, and if nations were always "true sports" in their political intercourse, a better world we should be living in. We can move toward that goal by practicing fair play in all our games and by bringing the youth and men of different nations more widely into friendly contests on fields where the spirit of sportsmanship prevails.

John Galsworthy has expressed the same idea in the following paragraph:

Sport, which still keeps the flag of idealism flying, is perhaps the most saving grace in the world at the moment, with its spirit of rules kept and regard for the adversary, whether the fight is going for or against. When, if ever, the fair-play spirit of sport reigns over international affairs, the cat force which rules there now will slink away and human life emerge for the first time from the jungle.

To promote the spirit of sportsmanship nationally and internationally, the Sportsmanship Brotherhood has been organized. Although less than three years old, the Brotherhood is already a thriving institution. The possibilities of its program have won to its support outstanding national leaders who are eager to see the spirit of sportsmanship dominate not only the field of sport but the

field of industry, the field of politics, and the field of international goodwill.

Matthew Woll, vice president of the American Federation of Labor, is president of the Brotherhood, and among the members of its board of trustees are such men as Franklin D. Roosevelt, Owen D. Young, Murray Hulbert, John H. Finley, George J. Fisher, Marshall Field, Otto H. Kahn, Devereaux Milburn, Henry Morgenthau, and John J. Tigert.

The object of the Sportsmanship Brotherhood is to hold aloft for the youth of America a standard of true sportsmanship and to put the spirit of true sportsmanship first in all sport. In carrying out its program, it seeks to cooperate with existing agencies which have as their objective the promoting of sports and games.

Among high-school students in Massachusetts, New York, New Jersey, and Delaware, 150 local Sportsmanship Brotherhood chapters have been organized. These local chapters teach their members the code, disseminate the ideals of true sportsmanship by regular talks and discussions, and encourage sportsmanship by the use of awards and recognition buttons given to students who personify the true sportsmanship spirit.

In the upper grades of elementary schools, a slightly different procedure is followed. Members of the chapter, after having received careful instruction as to the meaning and application of the sportsmanship code, take the following pledge: "I will do my best to play fair in all the activities of life and to keep the Code of Sportsmanship."

In colleges, summer camps, playground organizations, boys clubs, American Legion, Y. M. C. A., and Y. W. C. A., special methods are being developed, adapted to the particular conditions.

The Sportsmanship Brotherhood stands ready to cooperate with all organizations and agencies conducting athletic activities, national and international. It is not concerned with the technical rules governing games or contests, but it is committed to the task of developing and conserving the spiritual value of these activities.

Junior High School at St. Louis and Dallas

BOTH AT St. Louis and at Dallas, the junior high school received a large share of consideration upon the program and in the attendance and interest of principals and superintendents.

At St. Louis, February 24-26 inclusive, the time not devoted to general sessions was equally divided between senior and junior high school sections. The topics discussed hinged about objectives and curriculum as may be seen from the following: Criteria for Judging the Efficiency of the Junior High School; Present Status; Problems of the Six-year Junior-senior School; Character Education; Evaluation of the *Fifth Yearbook*, Department of Superintendence; Organizing and Reconstructing the Curriculum; Examples of Progressive Curriculum Practice; Extracurricular Activities.

For those who have kept abreast of recent literature in the field such as the *Fifth Yearbook* of the Department of Superintendence, and the *Twenty-sixth Yearbook* of the National Society for the Study of Education, the speakers were on familiar ground; but all presented the best thought as expressed in these publications.

Francis L. Bacon, vice president of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, who was subsequently elected president of this association for the year 1927-28, speaking on The Problems of the Six-year Junior-senior High School pointed out that the six-year high school is intermediate in advantage between the high school organized under the 8-4 plan and under the 6-3-3 plan; and as the enrolment of a combined senior-junior school nears 1000 the satisfactory and efficient use of the special facilities as assembly hall, gymnasium, library, and laboratories becomes increasingly difficult.

At Dallas the junior high school topics centered about articulation, objectives, and curriculum as may be seen from the following: Place and Function of the Junior High School in the Public School System; Articulation of the Junior and Senior High Schools; Reconstruction of the Curriculum; The Social Studies as the Core of the Junior High-school Curriculum; Objectives and their Relation to Curriculum; Attainment of

Objectives through the Curriculum and Extracurricular Activities.

On Tuesday evening, March 1, a forum on Fundamental Problems of the Junior High School Curriculum taxed



HAROLD ELLSWORTH WARNER, *president of the Department of Junior High School Principals and principal of the Hine Junior High School, Washington, D. C.*

the entire capacity of the large Fair Park Auditorium. Here Dean Withers of the School of Education of New York University in an address read by Professor Philip W. L. Cox of that university, presented the thesis that the rapid development of scientific method and the tendency toward specialization of function throughout American life, has necessitated more specialization of function in the secondary schools—hence the junior high school.

Charles H. Judd, director of the School of Education of the University of Chicago, sees the junior high school as a device for meeting the twelve year old pupils with a curriculum adapted to their special needs. Dr. Judd said in part:

I am advocating as vigorously as I can that the conventional program of studies of the upper grades of the elementary school be deliberately set aside. I am advocating with equal vigor that the conventional program of the ninth grade be put on the aca-

demic scrap heap. I have no hesitation in saying that at the present time the full psychological rearrangement of the junior high-school curriculum is jeopardized more by the attitude of the high schools than by any other factor. The high schools are so completely committed to ancient history, algebra, and freshman English that they will recognize nothing else as appropriate for fifteen year old pupils. The high schools will have to be awakened to a realization that the curriculum of the modern school must fit the psychological traits of pupils. . . . There is one and only one legitimate type of curriculum for the junior high school. It is that type of curriculum which subordinates every other consideration to the social training of pupils.

On Wednesday afternoon, March 2, fully a thousand educators were in attendance upon the junior high school conference in the auditorium of the First Baptist Church. Here the theme of discussion was Objectives and Ways of Realizing Them through the Several Curricular and Extracurricular Divisions. Professor Frank C. Touton of the University of Southern California proposed certain objectives which reiterated the famous seven cardinal principles of education, with emphasis upon the exploratory, guidance, and social training features of the junior high-school.

Probably the greatest accomplishment of both conventions was the move on the part of the National Association of Secondary School Principals toward affiliation with the National Education Association. A general agreement among the leaders of the various groups interested was reached endorsing the plan for amalgamating as one department of the National Education Association the existing National Association of Secondary School Principals and the present Departments of Secondary School and Junior High School Principals, and to include in the membership of this new organization the principals of junior colleges, thus making one large administrative organization of the three divisions of secondary education. The completion of arrangements for the establishment of this new organization rests now in ratification by the National Education Association in June and by the National Association of Secondary School Principals in February, 1928.

Rural Education at Dallas

THE PLACE of the secondary school in rural education received prominent mention in the program of the Department of Rural Education which met at the City Temple in Dallas, March 1 and 2.

G. Ivan Barnes, director of vocational education, State Department of Education, Frankfort, Kentucky, speaking on Outstanding Needs as Shown by a Survey of Small High Schools of the State said:

The rapid growth and distribution of small high schools throughout the rural districts of this country make it necessary to employ more scientific methods of establishing high schools. The rural high schools should be established only after the cooperative county and state survey has been made showing the need of instruction for a given community.

Mr. Barnes recommended that elementary and secondary schools in rural communities be organized on the 6-6 plan. Such an organization, he said, would provide for larger classes, departmental instruction, promotion by subjects, supervised study, pupil guidance, and a more adequate program for extra-class activities.

In conclusion Mr. Barnes said:

The curriculum and its content should be adjusted to the needs and abilities of high-school pupils. The small high school is a vital part in the secondary educational scheme of this country. To make it the most effective it is necessary that the entire professional staff view it sympathetically and understandingly. The excessive number of periods a teacher is forced to teach per day leads to the conclusion that a more adequate scheme for the preparation of high-school teachers is necessary. Such a scheme should contemplate training teachers for specific groups or combinations of groups of subjects.

The Function of the Secondary School in Rural Education was discussed by Emery M. Ferriss, Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y. Mr. Ferriss said:

A secondary school for rural communities meeting its responsibilities effectively must be based upon the results of scientific research. The most urgent need of the small high school at the present time is the accumulation of data gathered as carefully and scientifically as possible as the basis for the solution of its many problems. In no other way can these problems be adequately solved and a secondary school be developed that will accomplish the most for rural children.

The function of the secondary school in rural education is to offer every normal child of secondary school age in the community an opportunity through activities directed by the school to discover himself, to develop his individuality, and to fit himself, within the limits of the secondary school period and his capacities for growth, to engage understandingly, sympathetically, and efficiently in everyday activities of individual and group life. The rural community needs individuals who have social sympathies, understandings, and ideals but who have in addition special abilities and interests which can be capitalized by the community in promoting its general welfare.

C. C. McCracken, professor of school administration at Ohio State University, Columbus, advocated the reorganization of the local school unit in terms of social and economic relationships. Mr. McCracken said:

School districts in most states have grown up without any attention to the social or economic factors involved in the life of the community of today. Non-urban areas are not so compact as urban areas, but are often more homogeneous than city areas with like numbers of people. Local hamlets and villages have grown up with prejudices against other like settlements. The usual comment is that these local units will never consent to becoming part of a larger unit. They would lose their identity. This is true unless reorganizations that are effected are brought about as the result of a careful study of the social and economic factors that determine the proper school community.

The state supervisors of rural schools met in a separate section to discuss problems of state administration. Mrs. Katherine M. Cook, chief of the Division of Rural Education in the United States Bureau of Education, addressed this meeting on Essentials of a State's Supervisory Program for the Improvement of Instruction. Mrs. Cook said:

Every supervisory program should have at least two large aspects, one for immediate guidance based on immediate ends, the other

a long-term, forward-looking program probably extending over a period of years, though the period over which either program extends is, of course, governed by the situation itself. Both must be accompanied by very definite provisions for checking and evaluating their accomplishments. Besides definite, tangible procedure which they establish, both programs cast their weight for or against informal or rigid methods of teaching, for or against modern or traditional practice, and for or against definite or aimless organization of the local supervisor's work.

M. L. Jacobson, inspector of rural schools in Minnesota, referred to the county institutes as the strongest means of improving instruction in the rural schools. Mr. Jacobson said:

The institutes are planned and directed by a member of the regular staff in the rural school division of the state department of education. Three full-time institute instructors are employed and salaries and traveling expenses are paid by the state. These instructors are assigned, one to a county, for a week. Three days are spent in visiting schools in company with the county superintendent, visiting ordinarily four in a day. An assembly of all teachers in the county for two days at the end of the week follows.

At the business session of the Department of Rural Education, the report of the committee on changes in the constitution was presented by A. F. Harman. The principal changes suggested were: reducing the executive committee from fifteen to five members, giving it power to formulate plans and policies of the department; providing two classes of members, acting at two dollars, sustaining at five dollars. These changes were adopted. The question of preparing a county superintendent's section for next year was referred to the executive committee and the incoming president.

New officers of the department for the next year are: *President*, N. S. Light, state director of rural education for Connecticut; *vice president*, May Trumper, State Department of Education, Helena, Montana; members of the Executive Committee: Fred C. Fischer, assistant superintendent, Wayne County, Michigan; Fannie W. Dunn, Teachers College, Columbia University; A. F. Harman, county superintendent, Montgomery, Alabama; Agnes Samuelson, state superintendent, Des Moines, Iowa; J. C. Muerman, Southeastern State Teachers College, Durant, Oklahoma.



Rousing the Rural Schools

WILMA T. HAMMOND

WHEN a telegram arrived at Hicks Valley School, Pepin County, Wisconsin, announcing that they had won first prize in the state wide Better Rural Schools Contest, the 36 pupils shouted with delight. And when the folks of the community, who had also worked hard that their school might win, heard the good news they all acquired smiles which lasted many days.

This unusual contest, which ended recently, was originated by a public-spirited farm magazine publisher and was sponsored by the state department of public instruction. On the committee which handled the details and judging were men connected with the department of public instruction, the University of Wisconsin, and the farm magazine.

It was desired to bring the people of rural communities into a closer spirit of cooperation in improving their school buildings. To this end, four prizes in the form of playground equipment were offered.

Parents, teachers, and children readily fell in line when the plan was announced, and 211 schools enrolled, of which 148 sent in final reports at the end of the nine months' contest.

Social and material progress was stressed and scored on a cumulative basis, a specified number of points being allowed for improvements made and for visits of parents to school during sessions, for social programs held by members of the district, for increase in attendance of children, for hot lunch served, and the like.

Hicks Valley School, Pepin County won first prize. Six teams and twenty men worked two days bettering the condition of the grounds. All low spots were filled in and ornamental shrubs, rose bushes, a hedge, and a row of 26 linden trees were planted. Upon this occasion the women were busy in the kitchen preparing a delicious dinner, which they served not only to the men but to the school as well. The money for the nursery stock was raised by social functions. The children also did their share by giving entertainments and candy sales and by taking orders for baby chicks for a nearby farm, the commission amounting to \$19.

An interesting point in regard to this first prize school is the fact that school

children from all over the state wrote to the Hicks Valley School asking them just how they won the prize. The answers to these letters were written by the pupils of the winning school.

The teacher stated that, while she had always enjoyed teaching, the period of the contest was the most enjoyable of her experience and that teaching proved doubly interesting when one had the co-operation of every man, woman, and child in the community.

Socially, the Hicks Valley School made splendid progress. A community club with 74 members was organized, 39 community affairs held, 185 visits by parents made at school during sessions, and attendance increased four percent.

Lakeland School, in Barron County was the second prize winner. They organized a parent-teacher association, held 41 community meetings, received 244 visits by parents during school sessions, and increased their attendance seven percent. They painted their building, cleaned up the toilets, added playground equipment, pictures, and clock. The teacher stated that the interest at home induced the children to do better work at school, which resulted in the bulletin boards being covered with excellent papers for parents to view.

Indian Ford School, in Rock County, winner of the third prize, made a tremendous gain in attendance. The school board had the walls and ceiling painted, woodwork and desks refinished, and new shades purchased, as well as reference books and dictionaries. The mothers' club raised \$20 at an ice cream social and bought cretonne half curtains for the

school, linoleum for the kitchenette, an oil stove, and four kindergarten chairs and table.

El Dorado School, Fond du Lac County won fourth prize. The teacher said, "This is an ideal example of community spirit, where all pull together for a common purpose."

All of the winning schools took credit for a nine months' term and for hot lunch served at least three times a week for sixty days.

Many schools which won no prizes exhibited a fine spirit. They were satisfied that they had won improvements in their buildings and acquired a social co-operation which made up for the disappointment in not winning a high place in the contest.

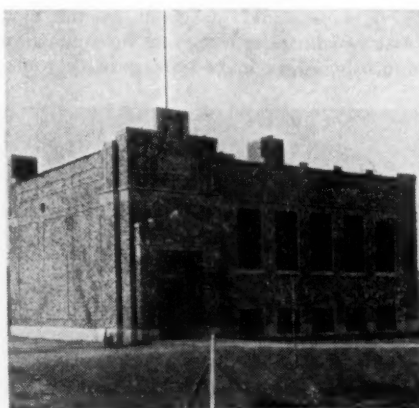
Parents in many cases made their first visits to school during this competition. Visiting parents in one school, noting conditions, voted to change from a one-room to a two-room school.

County Corners School, in Sauk County had a disadvantage to contend with in the location of its school. A parent-teacher association was organized, and everyone at once grasped the idea back of the contest. While this school did not win a prize, it made many fine improvements. Here is what the clerk of the district wrote in submitting his final report:

If we win, we will be very grateful; if we lose, we will be cheerful losers. We have won in a larger sense—a victory within ourselves. Our struggle together for the prize has welded us until distance and disadvantage of location have been overcome and we are one strong central community clustering around our County Corners School.

C. J. Anderson of the University of Wisconsin chairman of the judging committee, expressed his estimate of the value of this undertaking as follows:

No one who has examined the mass of data relating to the contest and has seen the material evidence of progress made in the rural schools entering it can help but be enthusiastic about its real success. . . . Even more valuable than these material results is the community spirit which has been brought about. Thousands of mothers and fathers have visited the schools, hundreds of community gatherings have centered in the rural school building, and the genius of accomplishing things inherent in our people has found a profitable outlet.



Hicks Valley School

Debating the New Education Bill

DEBATING has long been recognized as a means of uniting the school and the community. It is also important as a means of developing in students, confidence, the power to speak clearly, skill in searching for facts and in organizing a case, and appreciation of the problems which citizens must face. It also gives the public an opportunity to see the actual work of the school. Like athletics it contains the appeal associated with competitive activities.

In the foreground of the subjects now being debated in high schools and colleges of the United States is the question:

Resolved, that Congress should pass the New Education Bill, sponsored by the National Education Association, authorizing the establishment of a Department of Education with a Secretary in the President's Cabinet.

Among the states which are holding or planning state wide debates on this topic are: Arizona, Arkansas, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Minnesota, Nebraska, Texas, North Carolina, and West Virginia. Local debates have been held in practically every state in the union, as shown by requests for material addressed to senators and representatives in Washington and to the National Education Association and its allied groups.

This subject has the advantage of dealing with a fundamental question that comes close to the lives of all the people. In a city of 250,000 people, the public school enrolment is about 40,000 and there are 1500 teachers and school officers living as citizens of the community. Parents and taxpayers have a direct interest in what is going on educationally. The selection of this subject therefore insures a good public interest from the start.

There is also the fact that the proposal to create a Department of Education is a great national issue. It is supported not only by the National Education Association, but by more than a score of other great organizations like the General Federation of Women's Clubs and the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, comprising a total membership of approximately 12,000,000. The leaders of these groups have studied the matter carefully before offering their endorsement. Many of these organizations have local chapters or affiliated bodies whose members lend their interest to the debates.

The New Education Bill will be introduced again in both houses of Congress in December of this year by Senator Charles Curtis of Kansas, majority

Five Good References on the New Education Bill

REPORT of Hearings on Proposed Department of Education (S. 291, H. R. 5000) before Joint Congressional Committee, February, 1926. Write your Senator or Congressman, Washington, D. C., for a free copy.

2. The Case for the New Education Bill, published by the National Education Association, Washington, D. C. 25c. a copy. Ten copies \$1.60.

3. Catechism on the New Education Bill. National Education Association, Washington, D. C. 8 copies for ten cents.

4. The Reference Shelf, Volume 4, Number 5, Federal Department of Education. H. W. Wilson Company, 968 University Avenue, New York City. 90c. a copy.

5. Back files of THE JOURNAL OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION at any public library. The full text of the Bill appeared in THE JOURNAL for February, 1926.

floor leader of the Senate, and Representative Daniel A. Reed of New York. Discussions in political circles indicate that the movement is approaching the time when Congress will take action on the bill. That is an added reason for acquainting every citizen with its proposals. It will be discussed in the public press during the long session of the seventieth Congress next winter and spring.

The most complete document on the New Education Bill is the printed report of the three-day hearings held in February, 1926, before the Committee on Education and Labor of the United States Senate and the Committee on Education of the House of Representatives, meeting in joint session in Washington. These hearings were held during the convention of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association and bring together the testimony of recognized leaders in American education.

In several states special literature has been prepared by some central agency for the use of debaters. The Debaters Research Agency, Baylor University, Waco, Texas, has a 101-page bulletin, *A*

United States Department of Education Pro and Con. The Extension Division of the University of Kentucky at Lexington has issued a 204-page bulletin giving affirmative and negative briefs and material to support the briefs. The affirmative brief in that bulletin follows:

- I. A reorganization of our national educational practice is needed.
 - A. Many inequalities of educational opportunity exist as shown by
 - (1) Prevalence of illiteracy and near illiteracy
 - (2) Disparity of per capita support among the various states
 - (3) Short school terms
 - (4) Inadequate buildings and equipment
 - B. The present Bureau of Education is inadequate to meet the present conditions
 - (1) It is only a subordinate bureau of a department
 - (2) It is handicapped by lack of funds
 - (3) It is handicapped by lack of authority
 - (4) It lacks dignity and influence
 - C. Our national educational practice not in keeping with its importance
 - (1) Education is a national problem
 - a. All matters of national concern involve education
 - (2) More public money is spent for education than on any other public enterprise
 - (3) More people are affected by education than by any other governmental activity
 - (4) It suffers in comparison with other governmental activities, such as war and agriculture
- II. A National Department of Education as proposed by the Curtis-Reed Bill is the best solution of our problem.
 - A. The problem will be attacked from a national viewpoint
 - (1) A composite view of our problem may be obtained
 - a. Through surveys
 - b. Through research
 - (2) The services of those who study education from a national viewpoint may be commanded
 - (3) The cooperation of the states can be enlisted in a national program
 - B. The problem can never be solved by the states
 - (1) Present conditions bear evidence of failure
 - (2) The per capita wealth of the various states is unequal
 - C. It will secure proper recognition
 - (1) From the public
 - (2) From the states
 - (3) From the educational world
 - (4) From Congress
 - D. It is free from objectionable features
 - (1) Carries no appropriation except for maintenance of the department
 - (2) Does not federalize education
 - (3) It does not anticipate federal subsidy or control
 - E. It will promote economy
 - (1) By determining the better types of buildings and equipment
 - (2) By promoting better methods of teaching and administration
 - F. It will coordinate federal educational agencies
 - (1) Bureau of Education
 - (2) Federal Board for Vocational Education
 - (3) Other federal educational agencies
- III. A National Department as proposed by the Curtis-Reed Bill is the best means for future development
 - A. It provides a suitable organization for meeting our educational problems as they arise
 - (1) For it is flexible yet
 - (2) It furnishes the necessary framework for future growth
 - B. It will promote the maximum development of education
 - (1) By cooperating with the states
 - (2) By allowing the states complete freedom in educational advancement.
 - (3) By giving assistance when and where needed

What America Spends for Luxuries

Estimated Expenditures for Certain Luxuries by States in 1924
Prepared by the Research Division of the National Education Association

States	Tobacco ¹	Soft drinks and ice cream	Theaters, movies, and similar amusements	Candy	Chewing gum	Jewelry	Sporting goods, toys, etc.	Perfumes and cosmetics	Estimated total expenditures for luxuries, columns 2 to 9
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
United States...	\$1,847,000,000	\$820,000,000	\$934,000,000	\$689,000,000	\$87,000,000	\$453,000,000	\$431,000,000	\$261,000,000	\$5,522,000,000
Alabama.....	15,514,800	6,888,000	7,845,600	5,787,600	730,800	3,805,200	3,620,400	2,192,400	46,384,800
Arizona.....	5,356,300	2,378,000	2,708,600	1,998,100	252,300	1,313,700	1,249,900	756,900	16,013,800
Arkansas.....	12,005,500	5,330,000	6,071,000	4,478,500	565,500	2,944,500	2,801,500	1,696,500	35,893,000
California.....	112,297,600	49,856,000	56,787,200	41,891,200	5,289,600	27,542,400	26,204,800	15,868,800	335,737,600
Colorado.....	16,623,000	7,380,000	8,406,000	6,201,000	783,900	4,077,000	3,879,000	2,349,000	49,698,000
Connecticut.....	29,182,600	12,956,000	14,757,200	10,886,200	1,374,600	7,157,400	6,809,800	4,123,800	87,247,600
Delaware.....	3,324,600	1,476,000	1,681,200	1,240,200	156,600	815,400	775,800	469,800	9,939,600
Dist. of Col.....	14,406,600	6,396,000	7,285,200	5,374,200	678,600	3,533,400	3,361,800	2,035,800	43,071,600
Florida.....	13,113,700	5,822,000	6,631,400	4,891,900	617,700	3,216,300	3,060,100	1,853,100	39,206,200
Georgia.....	21,609,900	9,594,000	10,927,800	8,061,300	1,017,900	5,300,100	5,042,700	3,053,700	64,607,400
Idaho.....	5,910,400	2,624,000	2,988,800	2,204,800	278,400	1,449,600	1,379,200	835,200	17,670,400
Illinois.....	156,071,500	69,290,000	78,923,000	58,220,500	7,351,500	38,278,500	36,419,500	22,054,500	466,609,000
Indiana.....	44,697,400	19,844,000	22,602,800	16,673,800	2,105,400	10,962,600	10,430,200	6,316,200	133,632,400
Iowa.....	40,634,000	18,040,000	20,548,000	15,158,000	1,914,000	9,966,000	9,482,000	5,742,000	121,484,000
Kansas.....	24,011,000	10,660,000	12,142,000	8,957,000	1,131,000	5,889,000	5,603,000	3,393,000	71,786,000
Kentucky.....	20,501,700	9,102,000	10,367,400	7,647,900	965,700	5,028,300	4,784,100	2,897,100	61,294,200
Louisiana.....	19,024,100	8,446,000	9,620,200	7,096,700	896,100	4,665,900	4,439,300	2,688,300	56,876,600
Maine.....	10,527,900	4,674,000	5,323,800	3,927,300	495,900	2,582,100	2,456,700	1,487,700	31,475,600
Maryland.....	25,488,600	11,316,000	12,889,200	9,508,200	1,200,600	6,251,400	5,947,800	3,601,800	76,203,600
Massachusetts.....	90,318,300	40,098,000	45,672,600	33,692,100	4,254,300	22,151,700	21,075,900	12,762,900	270,325,800
Michigan.....	72,587,100	32,226,000	36,706,200	27,077,700	3,419,100	17,802,900	16,938,300	10,257,300	217,014,600
Minnesota.....	37,678,800	16,728,000	19,053,600	14,055,600	1,774,800	9,241,200	8,792,400	5,324,400	112,648,800
Mississippi.....	9,789,100	4,346,000	4,950,200	3,651,700	461,100	2,400,900	2,284,300	1,383,300	29,266,600
Missouri.....	54,301,800	24,108,000	27,459,600	20,256,600	2,557,800	13,318,200	12,671,400	7,673,400	162,346,800
Montana.....	8,126,800	3,608,000	4,109,600	3,031,600	382,800	1,993,200	1,896,400	1,148,400	24,296,800
Nebraska.....	21,425,200	9,512,000	10,834,400	7,992,400	1,009,200	5,254,800	4,999,600	3,027,600	64,055,200
Nevada.....	1,847,000	820,000	934,000	689,000	87,000	453,000	431,000	261,000	5,522,000
New Hampshire.....	6,649,200	2,952,000	3,362,400	2,480,400	313,200	1,630,800	1,551,600	939,600	19,879,200
New Jersey.....	60,766,300	26,978,000	30,728,600	22,668,100	2,862,300	14,903,700	14,179,900	8,586,900	181,673,800
New Mexico.....	3,139,900	1,394,000	1,587,800	1,171,300	147,900	770,100	732,700	443,700	9,387,400
New York.....	313,805,300	139,318,000	158,686,600	117,061,100	14,781,300	76,964,700	73,226,900	44,343,900	938,187,800
North Carolina.....	19,024,100	8,446,000	9,620,200	7,096,700	896,100	4,665,900	4,439,300	2,688,300	56,876,600
North Dakota.....	7,572,700	3,362,000	3,829,400	2,824,900	356,700	1,857,300	1,767,100	1,070,100	22,640,200
Ohio.....	110,820,000	49,200,000	56,040,000	41,340,000	5,220,000	27,180,000	25,860,000	15,660,000	331,320,000
Oklahoma.....	19,578,200	8,692,000	9,900,400	7,303,400	922,200	4,801,800	4,568,600	2,766,600	58,533,200
Oregon.....	17,177,100	7,626,000	8,686,200	6,407,700	809,100	4,212,900	4,008,300	2,427,300	51,354,600
Pennsylvania.....	165,675,900	73,554,000	83,779,800	61,803,300	7,803,900	40,634,100	38,660,700	23,411,700	495,323,400
Rhode Island.....	12,005,500	5,330,000	6,071,000	4,478,500	565,500	2,944,500	2,801,500	1,696,500	35,893,000
South Carolina.....	11,266,700	5,002,000	5,697,400	4,202,900	530,700	2,763,300	2,629,100	1,592,100	33,684,200
South Dakota.....	9,419,700	4,182,000	4,763,400	3,513,900	443,700	2,310,300	2,198,100	1,331,100	28,162,200
Tennessee.....	20,686,400	9,184,000	10,460,800	7,716,800	974,400	5,073,600	4,827,200	2,923,200	61,846,400
Texas.....	56,333,500	25,010,000	28,487,000	21,014,500	2,653,500	13,816,500	13,145,500	7,960,500	168,421,000
Utah.....	6,833,900	3,034,000	3,455,800	2,549,300	321,900	1,676,100	1,594,700	965,700	20,431,400
Vermont.....	4,248,100	1,886,000	2,148,200	1,584,700	200,100	1,041,900	991,300	600,300	12,700,600
Virginia.....	22,164,000	9,840,000	11,208,000	8,268,000	1,044,000	5,436,000	5,172,000	3,132,000	66,264,000
Washington.....	28,628,500	12,710,000	14,477,000	10,679,500	1,348,500	7,021,500	6,680,500	4,045,500	85,591,000
West Virginia.....	18,839,400	8,364,000	9,526,800	7,027,800	887,400	4,620,600	4,396,200	2,662,200	56,324,400
Wisconsin.....	42,111,600	18,696,000	21,295,200	15,709,200	1,983,600	10,328,400	9,826,800	5,950,800	125,901,600
Wyoming.....	3,878,700	1,722,000	1,961,400	1,446,900	182,700	951,300	905,100	548,100	11,596,200

YOU CAN obtain the figures for your state by reading the table as follows—In 1924, Alabama expended \$15,514,800 for tobacco (Column 2); \$6,888,000 for soft drinks and ice cream (Column 3); \$7,845,600 for theaters, movies, and similar amusements (Column 4); \$5,787,600 for candy (Column 5); and so on for the other columns. Alabama expended a total of \$46,384,800 (Column 10) for the luxuries in columns 2 to 9. Similarly read figures for other states and the nation. The expenditures during 1926 were probably larger in most cases than those given in this table, since 1926 was a record year of prosperity.

The figures given for the United States are estimates of the United States Treas-

ury Department as to the amount expended in the nation for the luxuries indicated. The figures for the states were independently estimated by distributing the national expenditures for these luxuries among the states according to the average of the percentages of the national totals of the following items found in each state: Value of tangible wealth, average annual current income, taxes paid in connection with admissions to theaters, and taxes paid in connection with purchase of jewelry. The amounts given for each state should be looked upon as approximations rather than exact estimates. The fact that the taxes collected on luxuries are in many cases paid at the place of manufacture rather than at the place of

purchase, makes it impossible to estimate exactly the amount expended in each state for each item.

Teachers may make arithmetic problems from this page for solution in school. Such problems have a civic value. For example, what percent of the national expenditure for tobacco is expended by your state? How much would the expenditure for candy in your state have to be increased to equal the amount spent by the state expending the largest sum for candy? What percent would this be?

¹ In calculating the figures of Column 2 no attempt was made to give consideration to the fact that some states have laws in effect limiting the sale of tobacco in some forms to adults.

Books on School Buildings

AYRES, MAY; WILLIAMS, JESSE F., and WOOD, THOMAS D. *Healthful schools: How to build, equip, and maintain them.* Houghton Mifflin Co. 1918. 282p. This volume is a condensed but thorough review of the subject of school hygiene. The field comprises two main headings—provision of healthful, physical environment and the conduct of healthful school activities. This volume contains a wealth of suggestive material for the architect, school board, or superintendent contemplating school construction and should meet with wide use as a text in school hygiene in teacher training institutions.

BRUCE, WILLIAM G. *School architecture: A handy manual for the use of architects and school authorities.* Johnson Service Co. Milwaukee, Wis. 1910. 197p. The architect's professional practice.

CHALLMAN, S. A. *The rural school plant.* Bruce Publishing Co. Milwaukee, Wis. 1917. Legal requirements concerning building standards and bond issues about which a board needs to be informed.

DONOVAN, JOHN J., and others. *School architecture: Principles and practices.* Macmillan Co. New York City. 1921. 724p. Illus. Mr. Donovan and his collaborators in a comprehensive treatise have clearly indicated desirable architectural practices in modern school erection. Building planning; construction costs; departmental equipment; heating and ventilation; and electrical installations are a few of the topics that provide a wide fund of information. This volume is profusely illustrated with pictures of all types of buildings, various types of rooms, laboratories and offices, and with suggestive floor plans. This is the best treatise on school buildings and school architecture that has been produced.

DRESSLAR, FLETCHER B. *American school-houses.* U. S. Bureau of Education, Bulletin, 1924. 133p. Illus. A discussion of the requirements of school buildings from the educator's point of view. A major part of the excellence of this volume is due to the collection of pictures of school buildings erected in different parts of the country.

FORD, WILLARD S. *Some administrative problems of the high-school cafeteria.* Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City. 1926. 191p. This study suggests layouts for school cafeterias and sets up standards for determining room sizes and space relations.

FOWLKES, JOHN G. *School bonds.* Bruce Publishing Co. Milwaukee, Wis. 1924. 177p. A comprehensive discussion of the subject. An evaluation of various plans of retiring school bonds, favoring the serial plan. Some functions of the state department in issuing school bonds.

HART, FRANK W. *A standard state school house code.* C. F. Williams and Son. Albany, N. Y. 1924. Proposed statutory provisions concerning school housing advocated for adoption by state legislatures.

HENZLIK, FRANK E. *Rights and liabilities of*

public school boards under capital outlay contracts. Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City. 1924. 118p. Education law and legislation, contracts, building contracts, specifications for school houses.

THE LIFE of the American community of today is expressed more completely in its school buildings and grounds than in any other way. Each new building is an event in a generation for the neighborhood it serves. It is the workshop of a large fraction of the population. Not to make it healthful, convenient, and inspiring is a public crime. In January, 1922, *THE JOURNAL* published a list of books on school buildings and school architecture which was in large demand. This new list which we have through the courtesy of George D. Strayer, director of the Institute of Educational Research of Teachers College, Columbia University, includes standard books from the former list and more recent publication. It should form a part of the working library of every school administrator or committee in charge of a building program.

LOOMIS, ARTHUR K. *School equipment costs: A method of estimating.* Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City. 1926. 259p. The author in this study has given an exact method of estimating equipment costs. It is based upon the actual cost of particular pieces of equipment. His index makes it possible to figure the cost of the furniture and equipment that are considered necessary upon the basis of prices now available. By using his technic and by knowing the prices of a limited number of items in the schedule for any particular year, it is possible to make an accurate estimate of the cost involved in furnishing and equipping any school.

MCCLURE, JOHN R. *The ventilation of school buildings: A study of present practices and costs in the light of experimental research.* Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City. 1924. 130p. Changing conceptions in ventilation. State laws concerning ventilation of school buildings. Present standards and practices; present status of mechanical ventilation, cost of installation. Recommends serious consideration of the

advantages of window-gravity ventilation. Bibliography.

MELCHIOR, WILLIAM T. *Insuring public school property.* Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City. 1925. The author evaluates the construction and occupation hazards which may result from fire and suggests means and methods of protection.

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION. Frank I. Cooper, chairman. *Standardization of school houses: Planning and construction.* Proceedings of the National Education Association, Department of Superintendence. 1918. Illus. An investigation into school house construction showing the need for more satisfactory and uniform standards.

NEW YORK (STATE) COMMISSION ON VENTILATION. Report. E. P. Dutton Co. New York City. 1923. A comprehensive analysis and discussion of the problems involved in schoolroom ventilation with conclusions as to the ideal method of window ventilation with ample direct radiation, window deflections, and adequate gravity exhausts.

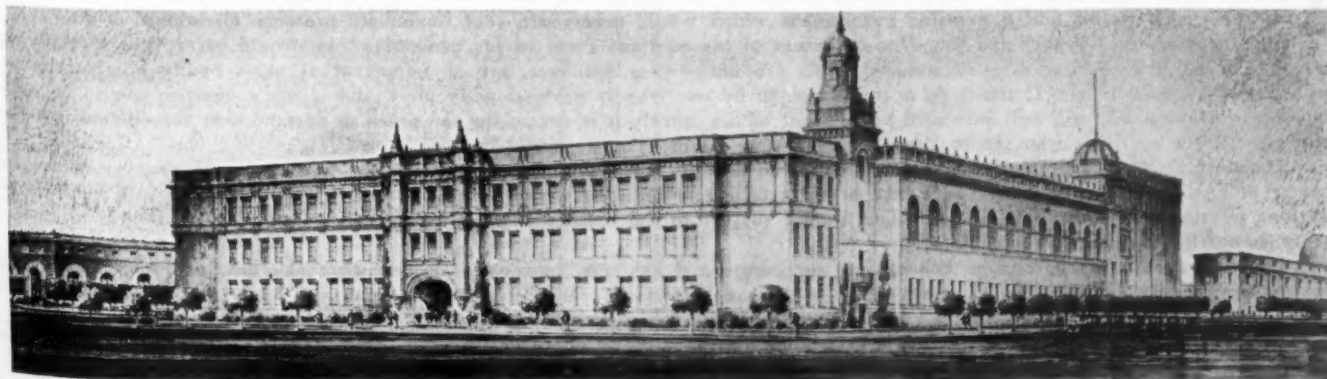
PERKINS, FELLOWS and HAMILTON. *Educational buildings.* Berkeley Printing Co. Chicago, Ill. 1925. This volume by architects provides many illustrations of superior types of school houses.

SCHWARTS, HARWOOD M. *Improvement in the maintenance of public school buildings.* Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City. 1927. 74p. A careful study of the elements in school buildings requiring repairs, together with the frequency of such repairs. This study suggests the maintenance program desirable in school systems.

STRAYER, GEORGE D., and ENGELHARDT, N. L. *School building problems.* Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City. 1927. 500p. This book brings together a collection of the school building problems which superintendents of schools are required to solve. The topics covered include population studies, the location of school buildings, the selection of architects, adequate plans and specifications, school building contracts, the planning of new high and elementary schools, equipment planning, and financing new buildings and equipment.

STRAYER, GEORGE D., and ENGELHARDT, N. L. *Standards for high school buildings.* Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City. 1924. 95p. Gives score card for buildings, standards of construction, methods of evaluating, and an explanation of use of score card.

STRAYER, GEORGE D., and ENGELHARDT, N. L. *Standards and score card for elementary school buildings.* Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City. 1920. 45p. The authors have set up here standards which should be considered in the planning and construction of elementary school buildings.



The High School of Commerce, San Francisco, California

Builders of Our Profession

New Life Enlistments

THE FOLLOWING life members have been reported since the list appeared in the April JOURNAL:

ALABAMA—J. M. Burnett, Helen H. Schultz.
 CALIFORNIA—Ernest P. Branson, Elisabeth E. Hauselt, Grace G. Rice.
 HAWAII—FRANK E. Midkiff.
 ILLINOIS—W. C. Ott.
 INDIANA—Oliver Howard Greist, H. Z. Wooden, Charles Zimmerman.
 LOUISIANA—B. Tubre.
 MAINE—Bessie C. H. Cooper.
 MASSACHUSETTS—Katharine L. Carbee.
 MINNESOTA—Thomas E. Lewis, S. G. Reinertsen.
 MONTANA—Alexander Seaton.
 NEBRASKA—Baird V. Keister, Charles W. Taylor.
 NEW YORK—Robert E. Simon.
 NORTH CAROLINA—H. L. Joslyn, Hermon B. Smith.
 OHIO—Charles T. Prose, G. E. Roudebush.
 OKLAHOMA—Herbert Patterson.
 RHODE ISLAND—C. Emanuel Ekstrom.
 SOUTH DAKOTA—M. M. Guhin, O. K. Thollegaugh.
 TEXAS—H. C. Baker, Mrs. Clara Stacy Carlton, J. E. Gibson, H. N. Shofstall.
 UTAH—Libbie Edward, B. A. Fowler.
 WEST VIRGINIA—E. E. Church.

THE FOLLOWING schools have completed their reports for one hundred percent membership in the National Education Association for 1926-27 since the list was published in the April JOURNAL. Many of the schools also have a complete enrolment in state and local associations. For the convenience of the readers the list is arranged by states. Under the name of each state cities are arranged alphabetically, set in italics. Under the name of each city, schools are arranged alphabetically, the word "school" being omitted to save space.

Six or more years

MAINE—Lewiston, Dingley Normal Training.
 TEXAS—Beaumont, Junker.

Five years

HAWAII—Hakalau, Kalaniana'ole.
 LOUISIANA—New Orleans, McDonogh Number Ten.
 MINNESOTA—Duluth, Nettleton.
 VIRGINIA—Winchester, Handley High.
 VIRGIN ISLANDS—Saint Croix, Diamond Rural, Fredensfeld Rural; Saint Thomas, Jefferson.

Three years

COLORADO—Colorado Springs, Roswell, Steele.
 HAWAII—Hilo Union, Olaa.
 ILLINOIS—Alvin, Township High.
 INDIANA—Alexandria, Clarke; Evansville, Delaware, Henry Reis; Fort Wayne, Forest Park; Terre Haute, W. S. Rea.
 MICHIGAN—Ironwood, Newport; Ishpeming, Ridge Street.
 MINNESOTA—Duluth, Liberty.

Two years

ALABAMA—Birmingham, Wylam.
 ALASKA—Valdez, Public.
 CALIFORNIA—Chico, Bidwell, Chapman, Nord Avenue, Oakdale, Rosedale, Sacramento Avenue, Salem Street; Los Angeles, Eighty Seventh Street, Elysian Heights, Euclid Avenue, Virginia Road; Venice, Florence Nightingale.
 HAWAII—Kapulena, McKinley High.
 MASSACHUSETTS—Gilbertville, Grammar.
 MICHIGAN—Grand Rapids, Sigsbee; Ishpeming, High Street; Jackson, Ganson.
 MINNESOTA—Minneapolis, Grover Cleveland.
 NEW JERSEY—Atlantic City, Junior High.
 OHIO—Cincinnati, Garfield.
 OREGON—North Bend, North Bend Public Schools, Central, High, Roosevelt, West Side; Washington County, District Number U 3, District Number 15, District Number 32, Grace, District Number 48, District Number 50, District Number 107.
 WASHINGTON—Spokane, Field.
 WISCONSIN—Oregon, Oregon Public Schools.
 WYOMING—Salt Creek, Public.

Current year

CALIFORNIA—Chico, Chico Vecino, Paradise; Long Beach, Avalon, Harding Park; Los Angeles, Fairburn Avenue, Toland Way; National City, Sweetwater Union High; Pasadena, William McKinley Junior High.
 COLORADO—Boulder, Northside Intermediate High; Denver, South High.
 FLORIDA—Miami, White Belt.
 HAWAII—Haaleo, Kaunakakai.
 IDAHO—Saint Anthony, Elgin.
 ILLINOIS—Allerton, Community High; Belleville, Franklin; Bloomington, Edwards; Chicago, John D. Shoop; District One Forty Eight, Chicago Street, Highlawn, Junior High, Lincoln Avenue; East Saint Louis, Alta Sita, Douglas, Emerson, Franklin, Froebel, Irving, Monroe, Park, Roosevelt, Slade, Washington, Webster; Harrisburg, Dorrisville; Hudson, Hudson Public Schools; La Grange, Lyons Township High; Perry County, Community High, Cutler Grade and High, Pinckneyville Grade, Tamaroa; Rockford, Turner; Villa Park, Villa Park Public Schools.
 INDIANA—Bloomington, Elm Heights; Evansville, Fulton; Fort Wayne, Rudisill; Indianapolis, Number 78.
 MASSACHUSETTS—Springfield, Frederick Harris.
 MICHIGAN—Ishpeming, Salisbury.
 MINNESOTA—Minneapolis, Horace Mann.
 MISSOURI—Kansas City, Hyde Park.
 NEW JERSEY—Morristown, Powerville.
 OHIO—Zanesfield, Jefferson Township Public Schools.
 PENNSYLVANIA—Pittsburgh, O'Hara; Redstone Township, Orient, Republic; Scranton, Cooper.
 TEXAS—Dallas, Bryan Street High.
 UTAH—Mount Pleasant, Junior High.
 WASHINGTON—Adna, Consolidated Schools; Kent, O'Brien; Seattle, Seattle Public Schools, Fauntleroy, Highland Park, Magnolia, Ravenna, University Heights; Spokane, Adams.
 WEST VIRGINIA—Charleston, Fernbank.
 WISCONSIN—South Milwaukee, Fourth Ward.

Large Cities with Large Enrolments

THESE cities of more than 30,000 population merit special mention for the high percent of their teachers who are members of the National Education Association. Those marked with an asterisk have reported 100 percent enrolment; the others, more than 90 percent. Cities are listed according to population figures of the 1920 census.

City	Population	Superintendent
*Seattle, Wash.,	315,312,	Thomas R. Cole
Denver, Colo.,	256,491,	Jesse H. Newlon
Oakland, Calif.,	216,261,	Fred M. Hunter
*Akron, O.,	208,435,	Geo. E. McCord
Dallas, Tex.,	158,976,	N. R. Crozier
*Kansas City, Kans.,	108,851,	M. E. Pearson
*St. Joseph, Mo.,	77,939,	C. A. Greene
*South Bend, Ind.,	70,983,	W. W. Borden
*Binghamton, N. Y.,	66,800,	D. J. Kelly
*Springfield, O.,	60,840,	F. M. Shelton
*Altoona, Pa.,	60,331,	R. E. Laramy
Berkeley, Calif.,	56,036,	H. B. Wilson
Long Beach, Calif.,	55,593,	W. L. Stephens
*Lincoln, Nebr.,	54,948,	M. C. Leffer
*Hamtramck, Mich.,	48,615,	M. R. Keyworth
*York, Pa.,	47,512,	R. O. Stoops
*Pueblo, Colo.,	43,050,	James R. Risley and J. F. Keating
Mt. Vernon, N. Y.,	42,726,	W. H. Holmes
*Lima, O.,	41,326,	R. E. Offenbaver
Oak Park, Ill.,	39,858,	W. J. Hamilton
Charleston, W. Va.,	39,108,	S. E. Weber
*Lorain, O.,	37,295,	D. J. Boone
*Waterloo, Iowa,	36,230,	Chas. W. Klein and S. M. Wallace
Sheboygan, Wis.,	30,955,	H. W. Kircher
*Moline, Ill.,	30,734,	L. A. Mahoney
*Muskogee, Okla.,	30,277,	C. K. Reiff
*Colorado Springs, Colo.,	30,105,	F. H. Bair
*Lynchburg, Va.,	30,070,	E. C. Glass

MISSOURI—Kansas City, Searrirt.
 NEW JERSEY—Summit, Junior High.
 PENNSYLVANIA—Steelton, Steelton Public Schools, East End, Felton, Fothergill, High, Hygienic, Major Bent, West Side.
 TEXAS—Waco, Fourth Street.
 WEST VIRGINIA—Charleston, Kanawha.

The Teacher's Professional Improvement

I THINK if you were to go into the office of a physician, and did not see new medical books on his shelves and new magazines on his table, you would find a pressing engagement which would necessitate your immediate presence elsewhere; if you were to visit the office of a lawyer and found no evidences of his constant study of his profession, you would carry your troubles elsewhere. Surely the children whose immortal souls are under your guidance, are as important as one's bodily ailments or temperamental disagreements. If the body is to be treated by one who is professionally alert, and if one's quarrels are to be settled by one who keeps himself well informed as to legal affairs, surely it is not asking too much to demand that the citizens of tomorrow be trained by those who try to keep abreast of the times in professional matters.

The doctor finds his professional standing improved and his earning capacity increased by an occasional year spent in some center of medical learning; his patients take pride in telling of his long period of study, and willingly pay the full price charged by him, because they believe he knows. This should suggest to the teacher summer terms and an occasional full year of study in some other than the home environment.

The teacher should not confine her reading to professional subjects, however. In her work she has an opportunity to contribute toward the development of every phase of human betterment; and since this is true, she cannot afford to be less than well informed generally, and to have no interest in any activity in which her pupils may become interested.

The really good teacher is always a "Forty-niner," prospecting in every location, and experiencing great joy when a "vein" or a "pocket" of precious knowledge is found.—Mattie Dalton, in *Talks to Young Teachers*.



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Average Summer Daily Temperature in Seattle 62°
Average Winter Daily Temperature in Seattle 41°

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Write room 113, Chamber of Commerce, Seattle, Washington, for (free) illustrated booklet describing Seattle and "The Charmed Land."

Seattle

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Some time ago we received the following cable from Hamburg, Germany, from an American teacher, who is a member of the T. C. U.:

"My policy twenty thousand three hundred thirty-nine. Totally disabled while traveling. Please wire fifty dollars American Express."

Shortly thereafter we received the following letter from the teacher:

"I wish to convey my thanks to you for answering my cable from Hamburg promptly. I had an accident with my left eye that made me almost blind for several weeks and bringing unexpected expenses, handicapped me severely. I am engaged to teach at the Shady Side Academy, Pittsburgh, Penn., for the coming year, and will communicate with you from there as soon as I arrive. I will certainly 'tell the world' how fairly I have been treated by your Company."

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Notes and Announcements

THE INDIANA teacher tenure law was signed by Governor Ed Jackson, March 8. This law includes every teacher, supervisor, principal, and superintendent in the state. The Indiana State Teachers Association actively supported the bill.

THAT CONVENTIONS are much better when speakers talk directly rather than read papers is emphasized in a constructive letter from Crawford Greene, principal of the MacQueen High School, El Dorado, Arkansas, who writes:

"When a speaker reads his paper you lose much of the force of his personality," was a sentiment often expressed at the Dallas meeting of the Department of Superintendence. It is a sentiment that is often heard at other educational meetings. Why should our speakers resort so much to their manuscripts? To you who are our speakers, may we of the audience hear you in person, feel a bit more of your personality, and know that we have met a vibrant being surcharged with the enthusiasm of his subject?

THE THOUSANDS who expect to travel to the National Education Association convention at Seattle may attend the Greater Pacific Saengerfest at Tacoma, Washington, July 28 to 31, on the summer rates. Over 1000 voices will assemble in the mass chorus numbers to be given in the huge stadium of Stadium High School. It will be the centenary in honor of Beethoven, and will bring together forty societies of German and Swiss singers from Washington, Oregon, and California.

NORTH CAROLINA makes big advance—"Probably the most progressive step the state has taken," wrote Jule B. Warren, secretary of the North Carolina Education Association, "was when the legislature recently adopted the principle of joint state and local support of schools, and as a result increased the state fund for support of schools from a million and a half to three and a quarter million. It means that we can reduce property taxes for schools in all counties, and that a large number of counties during the next two years will go to a uniform eight months' term."

THE SECOND biennial conference of the World Federation of Education Associations will be held in Toronto, Canada, August 7-13. Address all communications to the Canadian Committee of As-

(Continued on page A-146)

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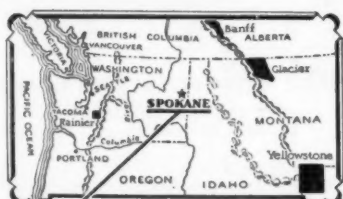
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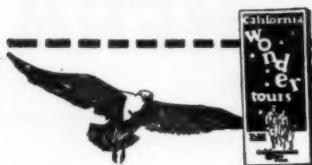
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(Continued from page A-144)

rangements, World Federation Conference, 220 Simcoe Hall, University of Toronto, Toronto, Canada.

SABBATICAL LEAVE SYSTEMS for public school teachers are being studied by the Research Division of the National Education Association. An inquiry is being made to learn the number of cities that have adopted systems of sabbatical leave, and the administrative details of the plans in use. This study was requested by vote of the Representative Assembly at the Philadelphia meeting of the Association, and will be reported at the Seattle meeting in July.

THE TENTATIVE program of the Seattle convention July 3-8 will appear in the June issue of THE JOURNAL.

HARRIET H. SHOEN of the Maxson School, Plainfield, N. J., tells why she became a life member:

I am a teacher and because I enjoy and am proud of my profession, I became a life member of The National Education Association. I thought that by so doing I would be taking a definite stand toward supporting the profession and establishing higher professional standards for teaching.

THE ANNUAL MEETING of the American Library Association will be held in Toronto, Canada, June 20-27. The president, George H. Locke, is chief librarian of the public library of Toronto.

(Continued on page A-150)

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(Continued from page A-146)

FACTS on city school administration are being collected by the United States Bureau of Education. The questionnaire sent out includes over a hundred detailed questions on fifteen topics of such general interest as the following: board of education, its size, selection of members, organization, standing committees, function of officers; responsibility for school budget; duties of the superintendent of schools and his assistants; selection and employment of teachers; responsibility for business affairs and school funds; supervisors and principals, their relation to each other; organization of junior and senior high schools; length of school day. The results of this study should be of considerable value to city school officials and other students of educational administration.

A CITIZENS' COMMITTEE appointed by Mayor Walker of New York City has recommended salary increases for New York teachers totaling more than \$14,000,000 annually. The report recommends that the salary of the superintendent of schools be advanced from \$20,000 to \$25,000.

SCHOOL LIBRARIANS and teachers who

are doing part-time library work will be interested in the special course in the elementary school library following the Seattle convention of the National Education Association. The course will run from July 11-22 under the joint auspices of the American Library Association, the Department of Elementary School Principals, and the University of Washington and will give two and a half hours' credit. Further information may be had from Principal William A. King of the Bryant School, Seattle, Washington.

MILLS COLLEGE, California, less than an hour's journey from San Francisco, is planning a summer session in 1927 which will offer courses in camp leadership to meet the growth in organized summer camps. There will be advanced work in teaching physical education for experienced teachers and a restful, inexpensive vacation to teachers not working for summer credit who want a month of camp life among congenial surroundings.

IN THE TWO WEEKS immediately following the convention of the National Education Association, the National League of Teachers Associations will offer at the University of Washington, Seattle,

a course on problems of classroom teachers, particularly those related to teacher organizations. It is a study-your-own-problems class on a national basis. The university chosen each year to give these courses will always be one near the convention of the National Education Association. Further information may be had from the National League of Teachers Associations, 3017 Park Avenue, Minneapolis, Minnesota.

TEACHERS who are planning for World Goodwill Day may get helpful suggestions from THE JOURNAL for April, 1927, and May, 1926.

WINTER MEETING in Boston—Under highly favorable conditions the Department of Superintendence will meet in Boston next February. No city can offer better hotel accommodations than will be found in this city, and the welcome will be genuinely hearty. Henry Ford has invested five million dollars in attractive industries and Mr. Statler has demonstrated his faith in Boston by investing nineteen million dollars in the best hotel in the world. This is characteristic of the vision and virility of the

(Continued on page A-152)

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(Continued from page A-150)

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