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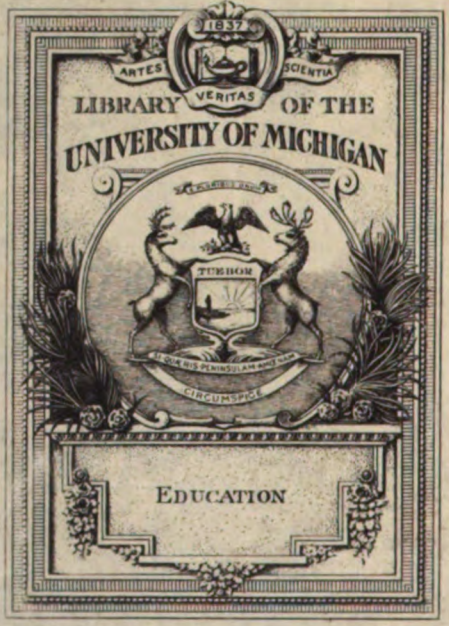
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NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION
OF THE UNITED STATES

Addresses and Proceedings

OF THE

SIXTY-FIRST ANNUAL MEETING

HELD AT

OAKLAND–SAN FRANCISCO
CALIFORNIA

JULY 1-6, 1923

VOLUME LXI

1923
Published by the National Education Association
1201 Sixteenth Street N. W.
Washington, D. C.

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MEMBERSHIP FEES AND PUBLICATIONS

OF THE

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

The National Education Association has three classes of membership:

1. The $2 membership entitles one to all the privileges of membership and to receive *The Journal of the National Education Association* for one year. (10 issues.)

2. The $5 membership entitles one to all the privileges of membership and to receive for one year: (a) *The Journal of the National Education Association;* (b) The annual volume of addresses and Proceedings; (c) The Research Bulletin; (d) Occasional bulletins and reports.

3. The $100 life membership, which entitles one to the publications and privileges of the $5 membership for life.

MEMBERSHIP FEES AND PUBLICATIONS

OF

DEPARTMENTS OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

Several departments of the National Education Association have separate membership fees and issue departmental publications. ***One must be a member of the National Education Association before he can become a member of any department of the Association. The payment of one of the membership fees of the National Education Association does not include membership in any department having membership fee.*** The membership of the departments which issue publications follow:

1. The Department of Superintendence—$5 membership entitles one to receive for one year: (a) The Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence; (b) The Official Report of the Winter Meeting and occasional bulletins.

2. The Department of Elementary School Principals—$2 membership entitles one to receive for one year: (a) The Yearbook of the Department of Elementary School Principals; (b) The Quarterly Bulletin of the Department of Elementary School Principals.

This volume of Addresses and Proceedings is sent to all members of the National Education Association paying an annual fee of $5, or it may be purchased by non-members for $3. With the creation of new publications, such as *The Research Bulletin,* which are sent to all $5 members, the size of the Proceedings has been reduced. A space schedule for the departments was adopted by the Executive Committee in Cleveland, February, 1923. In accordance with this plan of space allotment the officers of the departments have coöperated in deciding the selection of material for their respective departments.

Membership fees of the National Education Association and its departments and inquiries concerning all publications should be sent to 1201 Sixteenth Street Northwest, Washington, D. C.

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FOREWORD

For over sixty-five years the Proceedings of the National Education Association have recorded the thought of the Nation's leaders on important educational problems. The collection of educational literature thus produced is without rival anywhere in the world. Nowhere else can there be found so great a wealth of material on such a variety of subjects by men and women of the most widely recognized influence and scholarship.

In the early years of the Association's history the volumes were small and were published under difficulties. Until recent years the Volume of Proceedings was practically the only publication of the Association.

Beginning in 1918 with the sharp upward movement in membership the publications of the Association showed a corresponding increase in volume. In January, 1921, the present *Journal* was established. From then until now growth in the Association and its publications, has been so rapid that the Volume of Proceedings represents scarcely a tenth of the Association's total printed output of over 111,000,000 pages for 1922-23. *The Journal,* which is sent to each of the Association's 130,000 members, is the largest single item in the Association's printing. Several departments, as indicated on the opposite page, now publish more material than did the Association itself a few years ago.

The influence of this great mass of educational literature is wide and powerful. The National Education Association has kept its work on a high plane and its leadership is recognized everywhere. Its publications are often referred to in foreign countries with the comment that nowhere else has anything so valuable and arresting and so definite and scientific been produced. This recognition of the Association's place in the world carries with it a corresponding obligation.

America's vast material achievements have given it such a powerful influence that it can to a remarkable degree shape the educational and spiritual affairs of the world. Sound and adequate education in America, properly sympathetic and coöperative with similar efforts in other countries, is the goal of the National Education Association. The Association is more and more helping to make this goal the common objective of all thinking citizens.

JOY ELMER MORGAN,
Director of the Division of Publications.

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Contents

INTRODUCTORY MATTER

	PAGE
Act of Incorporation	1
By-Laws	5
Calendar of Meetings	15
Officers for 1922-23	17
List of Committees, 1922-23	22
Officers for 1923-24	27
Program of General Sessions	30
Minutes of Third Representative Assembly	36
Report of Committee on Resolutions	54
Report of the Trustees	58
Treasurer's Report, June 1, 1922–May 31, 1923	72
Report of Executive Committee	77
Minutes of Executive Committee	80
Minutes of Board of Directors	82
Secretary's Report:	
Business Division	108
Division of Publications	113
Research Division	119
Division of Elementary School Service	122
Field Division	125
Legislative Division	128
Department of Superintendence	132
Active Membership for Life	135

GENERAL SESSIONS

Oakland Addresses

The Ideals of the American Public School—*Robinson*	137
The Pan-Pacific Union and Education—*Bunker*	139
Address of Welcome for the City of Oakland—*Davie*	140
Address of Welcome for the State of California—*Wood*	141
Response to Address of Welcome—*Winship*	145
Thrift Education—*Patterson*	147
Education for Parenthood—*Binzel*	148
The Conservation of Talent—*Terman*	152
The Financing of the American Schools—*Strayer*	158
The Teacher as a Student—*Hosic*	164
Educational Research and the American School Program—*Judd*	168
Parent Power, A School Auxiliary—*Reeve*	176
The American School Program from the Standpoint of the Nation—*Cubberley*	180
The American School Program from the Standpoint of the State—*Finegan*	188
The American School Program from the Standpoint of the City—*Ettinger*	195
The American School Program from the Standpoint of the Rural School—*Hale*	202
Address of Welcome—*Campbell*	205
Citizenship Through Education—*Wood*	208
The Place of the Junior College in Public Education—*Dorsey*	214
The Classical Investigation—*West*	219

Digitized by Google

PAG

Health Aspect of the World's Children—*Wilbur* 21
The Hope of the Nations—*Sawayanagi* 22
The Meaning of the World Conference—*Sainsbury* 22
Women in Education—*Borghese* 22
India and the World—*Rakhit* 23
Education and World Progress—*Thomas* 23

REPORTS OF COMMITTEES

Report of the Committee on Salaries—*Evenden* 241
Report of the Committee to Coöperate with Motion Picture Producers—*Judd* .. 243
Report of the Committee on Character Education—*Bennion* 250
Report of the Committee on the Reorganization of Elementary Education—*Jones* 255
Report of the Editorial Council—*Bagley* 257
Report of the Committee on Health Problems in Education—*Wood* 259
Report of the Illiteracy Commission—*Stewart* 266
Report of the Rural School Committee—*Sims:*
Committee on Rural Education 270
Publicity for Rural Education—*Alexander* 271
Arousal of Interest on the Part of the People in their Own Schools—*Dick* 280
The Most Effective Administrative and Taxing Unit—*Hines* 281
Consolidation of Rural Schools—*Baylor* and *Muerman* 285
The Rural School Curriculum—*Foght* 303
Rural Teacher Training and Demonstration Schools—*Sims* 308
Rural School Administration and Supervision—*Macdonald* 318
The County Superintendent—*Steiner* 320
Certification—*Baker* 321
Tests and Measurements in Rural Schools—*Cram* 322
Suggestions for County Surveys—*Cook* 342
Standardization of Rural Schools—*Lathrop* 345
Rural Health and Sanitation—*Preston* 352
Rural Recreation and Social Life—*Campbell* 358
Social Needs in Rural Life—*Neale* 363
Summary and Recommendations—*Sims* 364
References on Rural Education 369
Report of the Committee on Tenure—*Updegraff* 370
Report of the Committee on Pensions—*Carlson* 376
Report of the Committee on Coördination of Research Agencies—*Newlon* 390
Report of the Committee on Thrift—*Chamberlain* 393
Report of the Committee to Coöperate with the American School Citizenship League—*Andrews* 396
Report of the Legislative Commission—*Strayer* 397
Report of the Committee to Coöperate with the American Legion—*Gwinn* 399
Report of the Committee on Foreign Relations—*Thomas* 402

NATIONAL COUNCIL OF EDUCATION

CLEVELAND MEETING

Secretary's Minutes 425
President's Address—Concerning the Council—*Gwinn* 427
The Need of Professional Leadership in Education—*Beveridge* 429
Report of Committee on the Reorganization of the Seventh, Eighth, and Ninth Grades—*Glass* 433
Ways and Means for a Closer Union Between the School and the Non-School Activities—*Wirt* 444
Report of Committee on the Teaching of Democracy—*Yocum* 447

Digitized by Google

PAGE
Report of Committee on American Teachers' Colleges—*Maxwell*..... 483
Report of Committee on the Status of the American Woman Teacher—*Force*.. 484
Conclusions Based on Questionnaire Concerning Certain Aspects of the Professional and Social Status of American Women Teachers—*Threlkeld*..... 486
The Status of the Classroom Teacher—*Adair*..... 487
The Status of the Woman Teacher in Rural Districts—*Bradford*..... 490
Report of the Committee on Character Education—*Bennion*..... 491
The Possibilities of Part-Time Education—*Small*..... 494
Open Forum on Part-Time Education..... 501
Report of Committee on Health Problems in Education—*Wood*..... 503

SAN FRANCISCO MEETING

Secretary's Minutes 506
Officers for 1923-24..... 508
The Continuity of Education in its Relation to Education for Citizenship—*Gwinn* 511
Educational Progress in 1922—*Finegan*..... 515
Suspended Animation in English Education—*Adams*..... 523
Objectives of Part-Time Education for Boys—*Brillhart*..... 527
Report on Visual Education—*Hines*..... 531
Visual Education in Community Center Work—*Dorsey*..... 534
The Child and the Commercial Moving Picture—*Jones*..... 538
Visual Aids and How to Handle Them—*Crandall*..... 540
The Status of the American Woman Teacher—*Force*..... 543
Woman's Personality in Teaching—*Winship*..... 544
Supervision by the Principals—*Hamilton*..... 545
Attitude of the Teacher Toward Supervision—*Newlon*..... 548

DEPARTMENT OF BUSINESS EDUCATION

Secretary's Minutes 553
Fundamental Objectives in Commercial Education as Viewed by the Personnel Manager—*Kelly* 554
The Fundamentals of Commercial Education as a Sales Manager Sees Them—*Mouser* 556
The Psychology of Habit Formation—*Breitwieser*..... 558
A Method of Teaching Typewriting Based Upon a Psychological Analysis of Expert Typing—*Coover* 561

DEPARTMENT OF CHILD HYGIENE

Secretary's Minutes 568

DEPARTMENT OF CLASSROOM TEACHERS

Secretary's Minutes 569
The Contribution of the Classroom Teacher Toward Progress in Education:
From the Viewpoint of the American Legion—*Fisk*..... 578
From the Viewpoint of Labor—
Davis 579
Marsh 580
From the Viewpoint of Agriculture—*Kern*..... 584
From the Viewpoint of Business—*Reuterdahl*..... 588
From the Viewpoint of the Business and Professional Woman—*Hatcher*. 593
Classroom Teachers' Organizations—*Lang*..... 594

Digitized by Google

PAGE

Contribution of the Classroom Teacher Toward Progress in Education:
In Securing Equal Salary for Equal Service—*Sullivan* 606
In the Interest of the Towner-Sterling Bill—*Montgomery* 610
As Seen by the Classroom Teacher of Hawaii—*Ewaliko* 616
As Seen by the President of the Department of Classroom Teachers—*MacGregor* 618

DEPARTMENT OF DEANS OF WOMEN

Secretary's Minutes 621
The Women's Foundation for Health—*Nordfeldt* 627
The Extra-Mural Activities of a Dean of Women—What Shall They Be?—*Yost* 631
Social Conditions Arising from the Inter-Racial Contacts on the Campus—*Blitz* 632
Talks to Freshmen—Their Content and Value—*Brown* 634
The Teaching Load of a Dean of Women in a State Teachers' College—*Richards* 635

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL PUBLICATIONS

Secretary's Minutes 637
Report of the Committee on Standards for Educational Journals—*Morgan* ... 637

DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

Secretary's Minutes 643
The New Rural School and Its Interdependence with the City School System—*Stanley* 643
The New Elementary School Curriculum—*Wilson* 644
The Elementary School Library Defined in Dollars and Cents—*Certain* 646

DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

CLEVELAND MEETING

Secretary's Minutes 653
Possibilities of the Elementary School Principalship from the Superintendent's Point of View—*Weet* 654
The Project Method from the Principal's Point of View—*Agnew* 660

OAKLAND MEETING

Secretary's Minutes 665

DEPARTMENT OF HIGHER EDUCATION

Secretary's Minutes 667
What the Colleges and Universities do to Elevate the Moral Tone of the Students—*Jordan* 667

DEPARTMENT OF IMMIGRANT EDUCATION

CLEVELAND MEETING

Secretary's Minutes 669

SAN FRANCISCO MEETING

Secretary's Minutes 671
What is a Citizen?—*Dean* 676
Practical Suggestions for the Organization of Citizenship Classes to Bring About Citizen's Participation—*Woellner* 676

Digitized by Google

PAGE
The Plea of an Immigrant—*Horvath* 680
Why State Leadership is Needed for Immigrant Education—*Vermillion* 682
Types of State Organization—*Clark* 686
Relation Between Schools and Other Social Agencies—*Davis* 690
The Work of City Supervision—*Smith* 694
Administration of City Supervision in Work with the Foreign-born—*Beglinger* 695
The Work of a City Supervisor—*Hennessey* 698
Citizenship Ceremonies—*Godfrey* 699
The American Public Schools and Old-World Culture—*Wilson* 700
The Americanization Program of Fresno County, California—*Merrill* 701

DEPARTMENT OF KINDERGARTEN EDUCATION

Secretary's Minutes 705
The Nature and Importance of Behavior in Early Childhood—*Holmes* 707
What Dominates Individual and Group Behavior—*Podstata* 708
Internal Factors Underlying Congenital Responses of Children—*Stone* 710
The Use of the Subconscious as an Ally in Education—*Jackson* 712
The Needs of the Nursery Period—*Morse* 714
How the Needs of the Kindergarten Period are Being Met—*Alder* 716
How are the Needs of the Primary School Period Being Met?—*Harrison* 717

LIBRARY DEPARTMENT

Secretary's Minutes 719
"Seventeen" and the Reference Librarian—*Fargo* 721
Recreational Reading as Part of the Present-day Curriculum—*Hosic* 724
Instruction in the Use of Books and Libraries—*Harris* 725
Library Resources and Objectives—*Morgan* 727
United States School Libraries in the Pacific Ocean—*Lawrence* 727
Library Problems in Training Teachers—*Wilson* 730
Conference on Reading Circles—*Kerr* 731

DEPARTMENT OF MUSIC EDUCATION

Secretary's Minutes 733
President's Address—*Woods* 734

DEPARTMENT OF NORMAL SCHOOLS

Program 737
A Measuring Stick for Libraries of Teacher-Training Institutions—*Kerr* 737

DEPARTMENT OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION

Secretary's Minutes 744

DEPARTMENT OF RURAL EDUCATION

CLEVELAND MEETING

Secretary's Minutes 745
The Economic Background of Rural Education—*Sapiro* 750
What is Instructional Supervision—*Dunn* 758
What are the Activities of the State Supervisor that Directly Influence the Results of Instruction—*Holloway* 764

Digitized by Google

PAGE

A State Program for Improving Instruction in Reading—*Davidson* 766
The Part of the County Superintendent in Rural School Supervision—*Yawberg*. 772
The Advantages of Geographic Districting in the Supervision of Rural Schools—*Rucker* 779
Practical Standards for the Development of Rural Education Departments in Normal Schools and Teachers' Colleges—*Root* 784
Necessity of the County Unit for the Efficient Administration of Rural Schools—*Burris* 789
The County Unit—*Harris* 796
The Beginnings of a County School System—*Coon* 801
The County Unit in Montana—*Trumper* 805
The Standardization of Consolidated Schools—*Campbell* 809
A Comparative Study of Instruction in Consolidated and One-Teacher Schools—*Foote* 812

OAKLAND MEETING

Secretary's Minutes 826
Selling Rural Education to the Public in Kansas—*Rarick* 827
The Elements of Rural Civilization in the Course of Study for Country Schools—*Kern* 834

DEPARTMENT OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

Secretary's Minutes 842

DEPARTMENT OF SCIENCE INSTRUCTION

Secretary's Minutes 843
Greeting from the President of the Department 844
Science and Human Affairs—*Millikan* 845
The Rôle of Science in Education—*Rowell* 848
Considerations Which Led to the Proposal of a Six-Year Science Sequence—*Caldwell* 851
Why Teach Science at All?—*Ritter* 854
Relation Between College and Secondary School Science—*Hildebrand* 856

DEPARTMENT OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

Secretary's Minutes 861
School Counseling and the Problem of Individual Differences—*Dickson* 864
Secondary School Counseling Based on Scientific Tests—*Biedenbach* 868
The Social Life of the High School and Some of Its Problems—*Hayes* 873
Educational Implications of the Social Program of the High School—*Sturtevant* 878

DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE

Secretary's Minutes 881
Resolutions of the Department of Superintendence 887
Supreme Values in Education—*Bryan* 889
Opening Addresses 892
Progress in Education in 1922—*Winship* 893
The Reorganization of Education in the United States Government—*Tigert* .. 894
What Constitutes American Citizenship?—*Owsley* 900
Report of Committee on Status of Superintendent—*Chadsey* 903

Digitized by Google

PAGE

Suggestions on the Report of Committee on Status of Superintendent—*Engelhardt* 905
A Program for the Coming Year—*Jones* 907
Boy Scouts—*Cody* 910
Outdoor Gymnasium—*Saam* 911
Janitor Service—*Condon* 913
Stimulating the Growth of Teachers—*Bair* 915
Chicago's Public School Classes for Crippled Children—*Mortenson* 916
What I Most Desire of My Assistant Superintendent—*Cole* 920
What May Be Done to Improve the Quality of Teaching—*Hartwell* 922
A Program for the National Education Association—*Owen* 924
Leisure Time—*Bailey* 925
Education for Democracy—*Baker* 929
The Cost and the Fiscal Administration of Schools: Some Facts from the Educational Finance Inquiry—*Strayer* 929
The Tax Problem in Relation to the Financing of Public Education—*Haig* ... 933
Two Phases of What the Schools Do in Relation to What They Cost—*Bruner*. 938
What the Schools Do in Relation to What They Cost—*Weet* 944
The City School Budget—*Moehlman* 949
Budget Making and Spending by the County—*Harman* 955
Budget Making and Spending by the State—*Graves* 960
Principles and Types of Curricular Development—*Caldwell* 962
Keeping the Curriculum Alive—*Bengtson* 968
Who Shall Make the Course of Study and How?—*Horn* 971
How Modern Business May Aid in Reconstructing the Curriculum—*Judd* 975
The Human Element in Curriculum Making—*McAndrew* 980
Responsibility of the Board of Education in Modern School Organization—*Bentley* 986
Organizing a State School System for Effective Service—*Harris* 990
Immigrant Education—*Steiner* 994
The Junior High School as an Aid in the Solution of Individual Pupil Adjustment—*Bate* 994
The Superintendent and His Teachers—*Stark* 995
Pupil Progress by the Individual Method—*Stoddard* 996
School Provisions for the Exceptional Child—*Buswell* 997
Economic and Administrative Value of the Platoon Plan in Junior High Schools—*Tidwell* 998
Adjusting the Junior High School Building to the Educational Program—*Lewis* 999
The Status of the Junior High School—*Briggs* 999
The Place and Significance of Extra-Curricular Activities in the Junior High School—*French* 1001
Square Pegs and Round Holes—*Bruner* 1001
A Unified, Universally Educated, Efficient Nation Demands a National System of Public Schools—*Capen* 1003
A Nationalized System of Education: The Spirit of Democracy, as Well as the American Constitution, Requires that Education be Left to the States—*Clark*. 1004
The Pre-Service Training of Teachers—*Suhrie* 1006
The Training and Development of Teachers After Entering the Profession—*Kelly* 1007
The Year-Round School—*Weber* 1008
Business Principles Applied to Educational Organization and Administration—*Borden* 1009
Making the School Curriculum—*Wilson* 1010
Responsibility of the Superintendent to the Public—*Ward* 1012
The Superintendent's Relation to His Supervisors—*Kimball* 1013

Digitized by Google

PAGE
The Superintendent's Relationship to His Principals—*Clark*..... 1014
Some Problems in Reorganizing Secondary Education—*Pickell*..... 1015
A Comprehensive School Survey and its Consequences—*Strayer*..... 1016
The Principal's Multiple Functioning—*Jones*..... 1018
The Elementary School Principal's Contribution to Public Education—*Sargeant* 1019
The Place and Value of Extra-Curricular Activities in the High School—*Winner* 1021
The Stabilizing Factor in Education—*Lake*..... 1023

DEPARTMENT OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION AND PRACTICAL ARTS

CLEVELAND MEETING

Program for Cleveland Meeting..... 1025
Extending School Service in Part-Time and Evening School Classes—*Edgerton*. 1025
What the Vocational Schools are Doing for Our Girls—*McCauley*..... 1029
Is Vocational Education an Essential Part of the Public School Program?—*Lewis* 1032
Responsibility of the State for a Program of Vocational Education—*Wilson*.. 1034
Program for San Francisco Meeting..... 1035
To What Extent Does Vocational Education in Agriculture Contribute in Producing a Trained Rural Citizenry—*Skidmore*..... 1036
Vocational Education in California—*Lee*..... 1039
The Need for Vocational Education of Women and Girls—*Weeks*..... 1043

Index 1051

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National Education Association of the United States

1857—1870

THE NATIONAL TEACHERS ASSOCIATION

Organized August 26, 1857, at Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.

PURPOSE—*To elevate the character and advance the interests of the profession of teaching and to promote the cause of popular education in the United States.*

The name of the association was changed at Cleveland, Ohio, on August 15, 1870, to the "National Educational Association."

1870—1907

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

Incorporated under the laws of the District of Columbia, February 24, 1886, under the name, "National Education Association," which was changed to "National Educational Association," by certificate filed November 6, 1886.

1907—

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION OF THE UNITED STATES

Incorporated under a special act of Congress, approved June 30, 1906, to succeed the "National Educational Association." The charter was accepted and by-laws were adopted at the Fiftieth Anniversary Convention held July 10, 1907, at Los Angeles, California.

ACT OF INCORPORATION

AN ACT TO INCORPORATE THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION OF THE UNITED STATES

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled:

SECTION 1. That the following-named persons, who are now officers and directors and trustees of the National Educational Association, a corporation organized in the year eighteen hundred and eighty-six, under the Act of General Incorporation of the Revised Statutes of the District of Columbia, viz.: *Nathan C. Schaeffer, *Hiphalet Oram Lyte, *John W. Lansinger, of Pennsylvania; Isaac W. Hill, of Alabama; Arthur J. Matthews, of Arizona; John H. Hinemon, *George B. Cook, of Arkansas; Joseph O'Connor, *Josiah L. Pickard, Arthur H. Chamberlain, of California; *Aaron Gove, *Ezekiel H. Cook, Lewis C. Greenlee, of Colorado;

* Deceased.

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Charles H. Keyes, of Connecticut; *George W. Twitmyer, of Delaware; *J Ormond Wilson, *William T. Harris, Alexander T. Stuart, of the District of Columbia; Clem Hampton, of Florida; *William M. Slaton, of Georgia; *Frances Mann, of Idaho; J. Stanley Brown, *Albert G. Lane, *Charles I. Parker, *John W. Cook, *Joshua Pike, Albert R. Taylor, *Joseph A. Mercer, of Illinois; *Nebraska Cropsey, Thomas A. Mott, of Indiana; John D. Benedict, of Indian Territory; John F. Riggs, Ashley V. Storm, of Iowa; John W. Spindler, Jasper N. Wilkinson, *A. V. Jewett, *Luther D. Whittemore, of Kansas; William Henry Bartholomew, of Kentucky; *Warren Easton, of Louisiana; *John S. Locke, of Maine; M. Bates Stephens, of Maryland; Charles W. Eliot, *Mary H. Hunt, Henry T. Bailey, of Massachusetts; Hugh A. Graham, Charles G. White, William H. Elson, of Michigan; *William F. Phelps, *Irwin Shepard, John A. Cranston, of Minnesota; Robert B. Fulton, of Mississippi; *F. Louis Soldan, *James M. Greenwood, William J. Hawkins, of Missouri; *Oscar J. Craig, of Montana; George L. Towne, of Nebraska; *Joseph E. Stubbs, of Nevada; James E. Klock, of New Hampshire; *James M. Green, John Enright, of New Jersey; *Charles M. Light, of New Mexico; *James H. Canfield, Nicholas Murray Butler, *William H. Maxwell, Charles R. Skinner, *Albert P. Marble, James C Byrnes of New York; James Y. Joyner, Julius Isaac Foust, of North Carolina; *Pitt Gordon Knowlton, of North Dakota; Oscar T. Corson, Jacob A. Shawan, Wells L. Griswold, of Ohio; Edgar S. Vaught, Andrew R. Hickham, of Oklahoma; *Charles Carroll Stratton, Edwin D. Ressler, of Oregon; Thomas W. Bicknell, Walter Ballou Jacobs, of Rhode Island; David B. Johnson, Robert P. Pell, of South Carolina; Moritz Adelbert Lange, of South Dakota; *Eugene F. Turner, of Tennessee; Lloyd E. Wolf, of Texas; David H. Christensen, of Utah; *Henry O. Wheeler, Isaac Thomas, of Vermont; Joseph L. Jarman, of Virginia; Edward T. Mathes, of Washington; T. Marcellus Marshall, Lucy Robinson, of West Virginia; *Lorenzo D. Harvey, of Wisconsin; *Thomas T. Tynan, of Wyoming; Cassia Patton, of Alaska; Frank H. Ball, of Porto Rico; Arthur F. Griffiths, of Hawaii; C. H. Maxson, of the Philippine Islands; and such other persons as now are or may hereafter be associated with them as officers or members of said Association, are hereby incorporated and declared to be a body corporate of the District of Columbia by the name of the "National Education Association of the United States," and by that name shall be known and have perpetual succession with the powers, limitations, and restrictions herein contained.

SEC. 2. That the purpose and object of the said corporation shall be to elevate the character and advance the interests of the profession of teaching and to promote the cause of education in the United States. This corporation shall include the National Council of Education and the following departments, and such others as may hereafter be created by organization or consolidation, to-wit: The Departments, first, of Superintendence; second, of Normal Schools; third, of Elementary Education; fourth, of Higher Education; fifth, of Manual Training; sixth, of Art Education; seventh, of Kindergarten Education; eighth, of Music Education; ninth, of Secondary Education; tenth, of Business Education; eleventh, of Child Study; twelfth, of Physical Education; thirteenth of Natural Science Instruction; fourteenth, of School Administration; fifteenth, the Library Department; sixteenth, of Special Education; seventeenth, of Indian Education; the powers and duties and the number and names of these departments and of the National Council of Education may be changed or abolished at the pleasure of the corporation, as provided in its by-laws.

SEC. 3. That the said corporation shall further have power to have and to use a common seal, and to alter and change the same at its pleasure; to sue or to be sued in any court of the United States, or other court of competent jurisdiction; to make by-laws not inconsistent with the provisions of this act or of the Constitution of the United States; to take or receive, whether by gift, grant, devise, bequest, or purchase, any real or personal estate, and to hold, grant, convey, hire, or lease the same for the purpose of its incorporation; and to accept and administer any trust of real or personal estate for any educational purpose within the objects of the corporation.

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SEC. 4. That all real property of the corporation within the District of Columbia which shall be used by the corporation for the educational or other purposes of the corporation as aforesaid, other than the purposes of producing income, and all personal property and funds of the corporation held, used, or invested for educational purposes aforesaid, or to produce income to be used for such purposes, shall be exempt from taxation; *provided*, however, That this exemption shall not apply to any property of the corporation which shall not be used for, or the income of which shall not be applied to, the educational purposes of the corporation; and, *provided further*, That the corporation shall annually file, with the Commissioner of Education of the United States, a report in writing, stating in detail the property, real and personal, held by the corporation, and the expenditure or other use or disposition of the same, or the income thereof, during the preceding year.

SEC. 5. That the membership of the said corporation shall consist of three classes of members—viz., active, associate, and corresponding—whose qualifications, terms of membership, rights, and obligations shall be prescribed by the by-laws of the corporation.

SEC. 6. That the officers of the said corporation shall be a President, twelve Vice-Presidents, a Secretary, a Treasurer, a Board of Directors, an Executive Committee, and a Board of Trustees.

The Board of Directors shall consist of the President, the First Vice-President, the Secretary, the Treasurer, the Chairman of the Board of Trustees, and one additional member from each State, territory, or district, to be elected by the active members for the term of one year, or until their successors are chosen, and of all life directors of the National Educational Association. The United States Commissioner of Education, and all former presidents of the said Association now living, and all future Presidents of the Association hereby incorporated, at the close of their respective terms of office, shall be members of the Board of Directors for life. The Board of Directors shall have power to fill all vacancies in their own body; shall have in charge the general interests of the corporation, excepting those herein intrusted to the Board of Trustees; and shall possess such other powers as shall be conferred upon them by the by-laws of the corporation.

The Executive Committee shall consist of five members, as follows: the President of the Association, the First Vice-President, the Treasurer, the Chairman of the Board of Trustees, and a member of the Association, to be chosen annually by the Board of Directors, to serve one year. The said commitee shall have authority to represent, and to act for the Board of Directors in the intervals between the meetings of that body, to the extent of carrying out the legislation adoped by the Board of Directors under general directions as may be given by said board.

The Board of Trustees shall consist of four members elected by the Board of Directors for the term of four years, and the President of the Association, who shall be a member *ex officio* during his term of office. At the first meeting of the Board of Directors, held during the annual meeting of the Association, at which they were elected, they shall elect one trustee for the term of four years. All vacancies occurring in said Board of Trustees, whether by resignation or otherwise, shall be filled by the Board of Directors for the unexpired term; and the absence of a trustee from two successive annual meetings of the board shall forfeit his membership.

SEC. 7. That the invested fund now known as the "Permanent Fund of the National Educational Association," when transferred to the corporation hereby created, shall be held by such corporation as a Permanent Fund and shall be in charge of the Board of Trustees, who shall provide for the safekeeping and investment of such fund, and of all other funds which the corporation may receive by donation, bequest, or devise. No part of the principal of such Permanent Fund or its accretions shall be expended, except by a two thirds vote of the active members of the Association present at any annual meeting, upon the recommendation of the Board of Trustees, after such recommendation has been approved by vote of the Board of Directors, and after printed notice of the proposed expendi-

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ture has been mailed to all active members of the Association. The income of the Permanent Fund shall be used only to meet the cost of maintaining the organization of the Association and of publishing its annual volume of *Proceedings*, unless the terms of the donation, bequest, or devise shall otherwise specify, or the Board of Directors shall otherwise order. It shall also be the duty of the Board of Trustees to issue orders on the Treasurer for the payment of all bills approved by the Board of Directors, or by the President and Secretary of the Association acting under the authority of the Board of Directors. When practicable, the Board of Trustees shall invest, as part of the Permanent Fund, all surplus funds exceeding $500 that shall remain in the hands of the Treasurer after paying the expenses of the Association for the previous year, and providing for the fixed expenses and for all appropriations made by the Board of Directors for the ensuing year.

The Board of Trustees shall elect the Secretary of the Association, who shall also be Secretary of the Executive Committee, and shall fix the compensation and the term of his office for a period not to exceed four years.

SEC. 8. That the principal office of the said corporation shall be in the city of Washington, D. C.; *provided*, That the meetings of the corporation, its officers, committees, and departments, may be held, and that its business may be transacted, and an office or offices may be maintained, elsewhere, within the United States, as may be determined by the Board of Directors, or otherwise in accordance with the by-laws.

SEC. 9. That the charter, constitution, and by-laws of the National Educational Association shall continue in full force and effect until the charter granted by this act shall be accepted by such Association at the next annual meeting of the Association, and until new by-laws shall be adopted; and that the present officers, directors, and trustees of said Association shall continue to hold office and perform their respective duties as such until the expiration of terms for which they were severally elected or appointed, and until their successors are elected. That at such annual meeting the active members of the National Educational Association, then present, may organize and proceed to accept the charter granted by this act and adopt by-laws, to elect officers to succeed those whose terms have expired or are about to expire, and generally to organize the "National Education Association of the United States"; and that the Board of Trustees of the corporation hereby in corporated shall thereupon, if the charter granted by this act be accepted, receive, take over, and enter into possession, custody, and management of all property, real and personal, of the corporation heretofore known as the National Educational Association incorporated as aforesaid, under the Revised Statutes of the District of Columbia and all its rights, contracts, claims, and property of every kind and nature whatsoever, and the several officers, directors, and trustees of such last-named Association, or any other person having charge of any of the securities, funds, books or property thereof, real or personal, shall on demand deliver the same to the proper officers, directors, or trustees of the corporation hereby created. *Provided*, That a verified certificate executed by the presiding officer and secretary of such annual meeting, showing the acceptance of the charter granted by this act by the National Educational Association, shall be legal evidence of the fact, when filed with the Recorder of Deeds of the District of Columbia; and, *provided further*, That in the event of the failure of the Association to accept the charter granted by this act at said annual meeting then the charter of the National Educational Association and its incorporate existence shall be and are hereby extended until the thirty-first day of July, nineteen hundred and eight, and at any time before said date its charter may be extended in the manner and form provided by the general corporation of the District of Columbia.

SEC. 10. That the rights of creditors of the said existing corporation, known as the National Educational Association, shall not in any manner be impaired by the passage of this act, or the transfer of the property hertofore mentioned, nor shall any liability or obligation, or the payment of any sum due or to become due, or any claim or demand, in any manner, or for any cause existing against the

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said existing corporation, be released or impaired; and the corporation hereby incorporated is declared to succeed to the obligations and liabilities, and to be held liable to pay and discharge all of its debts, liabilities, and contracts of the said corporation so existing, to the same effect as if such new corporation had itself incurred the obligation or liability to pay such debt or damages, and no action or proceeding before any court or tribunal shall be deemed to have abated or been discontinued by reason of this act.

SEC. 11. The Congress may from time to time alter, repeal, or modify this act of incorporation, but no contract or individual right made or acquired shall thereby be divested or impaired.

SEC. 12. That said corporation may provide, by amendment to its by-laws, that the powers of the active members exercised at the annual meeting in the election of officers and the transaction of business shall be vested in and exercised by a representative assembly composed of delegates apportioned, elected, and governed in accordance with the provisions of the by-laws adopted by said corporation.

Sections 1-11 were passed by Congress and approved by the President, June 30, 1906. They were accepted and adopted as the constitution of the National Education Association of the United States by the active members of the National Educational Association in annual session at Los Angeles, California, July 10, 1907.

Section 12 was passed by Congress and approved by the President of the United States, May 13, 1920, as an amendment to the original act of incorporation. It was accepted and adopted as an amendment to the constitution of the National Education Association of the United States by the active members thereof in annual session at Salt Lake City, Utah, July 9, 1920.

BY-LAWS

Complete as amended at the Annual Business Meeting of the Representative Assembly, Oakland, California, July 6, 1923. Amendments made at the Oakland meeting are in italics.)

ARTICLE I—MEMBERSHIP

SECTION 1. The membership of the National Education Association of the United States shall consist of three classes, Active, Associate, and Corresponding, whose qualifications, rights, and obligations shall be as hereinafter prescribed.

SEC. 2. Active members of the Association shall be those actively engaged in the profession of teaching or other educational work at the time of their becoming members.

SEC. 3. The annual dues of an active member shall be $2.00, which shall entitle him to attend all meetings of the Association and its several departments, to receive *The Journal* free, and, on application, to secure all publications of the Association at a price fixed by the Publication Committee, which shall be the approximate cost. By the payment of annual dues of $5.00 an active member shall receive, in addition to *The Journal*, without application or other condition, the volume of Proceedings and all other regular publications of the Association, including reports of committees and all special bulletins and announcements when issued.

SEC. 4. All life members and life directors shall have all the rights and privileges of active members without the payment of annual dues, and shall receive free without application or condition the publications of the Association.

SEC. 5. Associate members of the Association shall be persons who are not actively engaged in the profession of teaching, but interested in the promotion of education. The annual dues of an associate member shall be the same as the dues of an active member, and he shall have the same rights and privileges excepting the right to vote and hold office.

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SEC. 6. Eminent educators not residing in America may be elected by the Board of Directors as corresponding members. The number of corresponding members shall not at any time exceed fifty. They shall pay no dues and may receive free the publications of the Association.

Section 7. The membership year shall be from September 1 to August 31. All membership dues paid during the membership year shall be credited to that year unless otherwise requested.

Section 8. The annual dues of members shall be sent to the Secretary on or before November 1. An active member failing to pay his dues as herein provided shall forfeit the privileges of membership and after being in arrears one half year be dropped from the list of members.

SEC. 9. The Secretary of the Association shall furnish each member of the Association a Membership Card, declaring him to be a member of the National Education Association for the year for which his dues are paid, and as such entitled to all the rights and privileges granted by the charter and by-laws of the Association.

SEC. 10. The right to vote shall be limited to active members of the Association whose dues are paid. The right to hold office in the Association or in any department shall be limited to active members whose dues are paid. The right to vote and hold office in the Council shall be limited to members of the Council whose dues are paid. Each active member shall have one vote.

ARTICLE II—ELECTION OF OFFICERS, REPRESENTATIVE ASSEMBLY, AND AFFILIATED ASSOCIATIONS

SECTION 1. The election of officers and transaction of business at the annual business meeting shall be by a Representative Assembly composed of delegates apportioned, elected, and governed as hereinafter provided.

SEC. 2. The President, Vice-Presidents, Treasurer, and Directors of the Association shall be chosen by the Representative Assembly by ballot, at the annual business meeting, a majority of the votes cast being necessary for a choice. They shall continue in office until the close of the annual meeting subsequent to their election, and until their successors are chosen, except as herein provided. The Secretary and the Treasurer shall enter upon their duties at a date which shall be determined by the Board of Trustees and which shall not be later than the first of October and shall continue in office during the terms for which they are separately chosen and until their successors are duly elected.

SEC. 3. The State Teachers Association or Educational Association of a State, territory, or district, may become affiliated with the National Education Association and shall be designated an Affiliated State Association. Each Affiliated State Association shall be a State unit in the organization of the National Education Association and as such shall be entitled to representation in the Representative Assembly as hereinafter provided. The annual dues of an Affiliated State Association shall be $10 for each delegate to which said State shall be entitled, with a maximum of $100. Said Association shall receive without application, or other condition, all regular publications of the National Education Association, including the volume of Proceedings, reports of committees, and all special bulletins and announcements when issued.

SEC. 4. A local educational association or teachers' organization within a State, territory, or district, may affiliate with the National Education Association and shall be designated an Affiliated Local Association. Each Affiliated Local Association shall be a local unit in the organization of the National Education Association and as such shall be entitled to representation in the Representative Assembly as hereinafter provided. The annual dues of an Affiliated Local Association shall be $5, which shall entitle said Association to receive without application, or other condition, all regular publications of the National Education Association, including the volume of Proceedings, reports of committees, and all bulletins and announcements when issued.

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SEC. 5. Each Affiliated Association, both State and local, shall be furnished a certificate of membership and shall be entitled to the active assistance and support of the National Education Association in promoting the interest of such Affiliated Association and its members in so far as such interest come within the purpose and object of the National Education Association as set forth in its charter. The Secretary of the National Education Association shall, with the advice and approval of the Executive Committee, make such arrangements for mutual cooperation between the National Education Association and the State and Local Affiliated Associations as will promote the welfare of all and advance the interests of the teaching profession.

SEC. 6. Each Affiliated State Association shall be entitled to elect one delegate and one alternate to the Representative Assembly for each one hundred of its members, or major fraction thereof, who are active members of the National Education Association, up to five hundred such active members, and thereafter one delegate and one alternate for each five hundred of its members, or major fraction thereof, who are active members of the National Education Association. Such delegates shall be designated State Delegates.

SEC. 7. Each Affiliated Local Association shall be entitled to elect one delegate and one alternate to the Representative Assembly for each one hundred of its members, or major fraction thereof, who are active members of the National Education Association. Such delegates shall be designated Local Delegates.

SEC. 8. Only active members of the National Education Association shall be eligible to be delegates to the Representative Assembly, and to vote in the election of delegates in a State or Local Affiliated Association. An active member shall be permitted to vote for the election of delegates in but one Affiliated Local Association. *For determining the apportionment of delegates, an active member may be counted in two affiliated associations, and no more; and that one of these shall be the State Association.*

SEC. 9. The officers of the National Education Association as named in the charter and the State Superintendent or Commissioner of Education of each State, territory, and district, shall be *ex-officio* delegates to the Representative Assembly. The President of the Association shall preside at the annual meeting of the Representative Assembly, and the Secretary of the Association shall keep the records thereof. In case of a tie the President shall cast the deciding vote.

SEC. 10. Delegates shall file their credentials with the Secretary of the Association on blanks furnished by him for that purpose not later than ten days before the beginning of the annual meeting. The Secretary shall turn over such credentials to the Credential Committee, when appointed, with such information thereon as may be obtained from the records of the Association. The Representative Assembly shall be the final judge of the qualifications of delegates. The delegates shall have equal rights and each shall have one vote. Meetings of the Representative Assembly shall be open to the active members of the Association who shall be privileged to address the Assembly on subjects pertaining to the Association. The Representative Assembly shall adopt rules of procedure which shall not conflict with the charter and by-laws of the Association. It shall recommend an equitable plan for paying the expenses of delegates to the annual business meeting of the Association.

SEC. 11. The officers shall be permitted to hold meetings other than for business purposes and expenses therefor shall be provided.

ARTICLE III—DUTIES OF OFFICERS

SECTION 1. The President shall preside at all meetings of the Association, and shall perform the duties usually devolving upon the chief executive of such an association. In his absence, the ranking Vice-President who is present shall preside, and in the absence of all Vice-Presidents a chairman *pro tempore* shall be elected. The President shall prepare the program for the general sessions of

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the annual meeting of the Association, and, with the approval of the Executive Committee, shall determine the time and place of the general meeting of the Association and of the various departments not definitely fixed by these by-laws, and shall have the power to require such changes to be made in the programs of the Council and the departments as will promote the interest of the annual meeting. The President shall be a member *ex officio* of the Board of Trustees and Chairman of the Board of Directors and of the Executive Committee. He shall sign all bills approved for payment by the Board of Directors, and all bills approved or authorized by the Executive Committee between the meetings of the Board of Directors. On the expiration of his term of office as President, he shall become First Vice-President for the ensuing year, and shall be chairman *ex officio* of the Committee on Publication.

SEC. 2. The Secretary shall keep a full and accurate record of the proceedings of the general meetings of the Association and all meetings of the Board of Directors and of the Executive Committee, shall conduct the business of the Association as provided in the articles of incorporation and the by-laws, and, in all matters not definitely prescribed therein, shall be under the direction of the Executive Committee, and, in the absence of direction by the Executive Committee, shall be under the direction of the President, and shall receive or collect all moneys due the Association and pay the same each month to the Treasurer, shall countersign all bills approved for payment by the Board of Directors, or by the Executive Committee in the interval between the meetings of the Board of Directors, or on the approval of the President acting under authority of the Board of Directors, or Executive Committee. The Secretary shall have his records present at all meetings of the Association, of the Board of Directors, and of the Executive Committee. He shall keep a list of members and shall revise said list annually. He shall be Secretary of the Board of Directors, and a member of the Committee on Publication. He shall be the custodian of all the property of the Association not in charge of the Treasurer and the Board of Trustees. He shall give such bond for the faithful performance of his duties as may be required by the Board of Trustees. He shall submit his annual report to the Executive Committee not later than July 1 prior to the annual meeting of the Association, which report shall be transmitted to the Board of Directors at its annual meeting. At the expiration of his term of office, he shall transfer to his successor all money, books, and other property in his possession belonging to the Association. The Secretary shall not print, publish, nor distribute any official report or other document without the approval of the Publication Committee.

SEC. 3. The Treasurer shall receive from the Secretary and under the direction of the Board of Trustees shall hold in safekeeping all moneys paid to the Association; shall pay the same only upon the order of the Board of Trustees; shall notify the President of the Association and the Chairman of the Board of Trustees whenever the surplus funds in his possession exceed five hundred dollars; shall keep an exact account of his receipts and expenditures, with vouchers for the latter; and said accounts, ending on the thirty-first day of May of each year, he shall render to the Executive Committee not later than July 1, and when approved by said committee they shall be transmitted by the committee to the Board of Directors at the first regular meeting of the board held during the week of the annual meeting and to the Representative Assembly at the annual business meeting. The Treasurer shall give such bond for the faithful performance of his duties as may be required by the Board of Trustees. At the expiration of his term of office, he shall transfer to his successor all moneys, books, and other property in his possession belonging to the Association.

SEC. 4. The Board of Directors shall elect corresponding members as prescribed by Section 6 of Article I of these by-laws, shall elect members of the National Council of Education as provided in Section 3 of Article IV of these by-laws, shall have power to fill all vacancies in its own body and in the Board of Trustees; shall recommend to the Executive Committee the place for holding the annual meet-

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ing of the Association, the Council of Education, and the departments. The Board of Directors shall approve all bills incurred under authority of the Board of Directors, the Executive Committee, or the President and Secretary acting under the authority of the Board of Directors or Executive Committee, shall appropriate from the current funds of the year the amounts of money ordered by the Representative Assembly at the annual business meeting for the work of all special committees of research and investigation authorized and provided for at the annual business meetings, shall make a full report of the financial condition of the Association (including the reports of the Secretary, the Treasurer, and the Board of Trustees) to the Representative Assembly at the annual business meeting, and shall do all in its power to make the Association a useful and honorable institution.

SEC. 5. The Executive Committee shall assist the presiding officer in arranging for the time and place of the annual meeting of the Association, of the National Council of Education, and of the various departments.

The Executive Committee shall recommend to the Representative Assembly at the annual business meeting the appointment of special committees for investigation or research, the subjects for which may have been suggested by the National Council or by the active membership of the National Education Association or by any of its departments; it shall recommend the amount of money to be appropriated for such investigations. When such special committees are provided for and duly authorized by the Representative Assembly at the annual business meeting, the Executive Committee shall have general supervision of them, shall receive and consider all reports made by them, and shall print such reports, and present the same, together with the reports received from the Secretary, the Treasurer, and the Board of Trustees and the recommendations of the Executive Committee thereon, to the Representative Assembly at the annual business meeting. All such special committees shall be appointed by the President of the National Education Association.

The Executive Committee shall fill all vacancies occurring in the body of officers of the Association except vacancies in the Board of Directors, Board of Trustees, and the office of Secretary.

SEC. 6. The Board of Trustees shall require of the Secretary and Treasurer bonds of such amount as may be determined by said board for the faithful performance of their duties, shall make a full report of the finances of the Association to the Executive Committee not later than July 1 prior to the annual meeting of the Association, which report shall be transmitted by the Executive Committee to the Board of Directors at the first regular meeting of the board held during the week of the annual meeting of the Association. It shall choose annually its own Chairman and Secretary.

ARTICLE IV—THE NATIONAL COUNCIL OF EDUCATION

SECTION 1. The National Council of Education shall discuss educational questions of public and professional interest; propose to the Executive Committee, from time to time, suitable subjects for investigation and research; have a report made at its annual meeting on "Educational Progress During the Past Year"; and in other ways use its best efforts to further the objects of the Association and to promote the cause of education in general.

SEC. 2. The National Council of Education shall consist of one hundred and twenty regular members, selected from the active membership of the National Education Association. Any active member of the Association is eligible to membership in the Council and each member shall be elected for six years and until his successor is elected.

SEC. 3. The annual election of members of the Council shall be held at the time of the annual meeting of the Association. The Board of Directors of the Association shall annually elect ten members and the Council ten members, and each body shall fill all vacancies in its quota of members. No State, territory, nor district in the United States shall have at one time more than seven regular members in the Council.

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SEC. 4. The annual meeting of the Council shall be held during the week of the annual meeting of the Association.

SEC. 5. The absence of a regular member from two successive annual meetings of the Council shall be considered equivalent to his resignation of membership. Persons whose regular membership in the Council has expired shall be denominated honorary members of the Council during the time of their active membership in the Association with the privilege of attending the regular sessions of the Council and participating in its discussions. A member who discontinues or forfeits his active membership in the Association forfeits his membership in the Council.

SEC. 6. The officers of the Council shall consist of a President, a Vice-President, a Secretary, and such standing committees as may be prescribed by its by-laws, all of whom shall be regular members of the Council. The Secretary of the Council shall, in addition to performing the duties pertaining to his office, furnish the Secretary of the Association a copy of the proceedings of the Council for publication.

SEC. 7. The National Council of Education is hereby authorized to adopt by-laws for its government not inconsistent with the act of incorporation or the by-laws of the Association; *provided*, That such by-laws be submitted to, and approved by, the Board of Directors of the Association before they shall become operative.

SEC. 8. The powers and duties of the Council may be changed or the Council abolished upon a two thirds vote of the Representative Assembly taken at the annual meeting of the Association; *provided*, That notice of the proposed action has been given at the preceding annual business meeting of the Association.

ARTICLE V—DEPARTMENTS

SECTION 1. The following departments are now (1923) in existence, to wit: The departments, first, of Superintendence; second, of Normal Schools and Teachers' Colleges; third, of Elementary Education; fourth, of Higher Education; fifth, of Vocational Education; sixth, of Kindergarten Education; seventh, of Music Education; eighth, of Secondary Education, ninth, of Business Education; tenth, of Child Hygiene; eleventh, of Physical and Health Education; twelfth, of Science Instruction; thirteenth, of School Administration; fourteenth, the Library Department; fifteenth, of Rural Education, sixteenth, of Classroom Teachers; seventeenth, of the Wider Use of Schoolhouses; eighteenth, of Educational Publications; nineteenth, of Deans of Women; twentieth, of Elementary School Principals; twenty-first, of Immigrant Education; twenty-second, of Visual Instruction.

SEC. 2. Each department shall have the right to fix the qualifications of its members for the purpose of electing officers and transacting the other business of the department; *provided*, Active members of the Association, and no others, shall be eligible to such department membership, and provided also that all active members of the Association shall be permitted to attend the professional programs and discussions of any department.

SEC. 3. Each department shall hold its annual meeting at the time and place of the annual meeting of the Association, except the Department of Superintendence, which may hold its annual meeting in February of each year, or at such other time as may be determined by said department, subject to the approval of the Board of Directors of the Association.

SEC. 4. The object of the meetings of the departments shall be the discussion of questions pertaining to their respective fields of educational work. The programs of these meetings shall be prepared by the respective Presidents in conference with, and under the general direction of, the President of the Association. Each department shall be limited to two sessions, with formal programs, unless otherwise ordered by the President of the Association, except that a third session of business or informal round-table conference may be held at the discretion of the department officers.

SEC. 5. The officers of each department shall consist of a President, a Vice-President, and a Secretary, who shall be elected at the last formal session of the

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department to serve one year and until their successors are duly elected, and who shall, at the time of their election, be active members of the association. In case there is a vacancy in the office of President of any of the departments, it shall be filled by an appointment made by the President of the Association. Any other departmental vacancy shall be filled by appointment made by the President of the department. Any department may provide for the creation of an executive committee and assign to it any duties consistent with the purposes of the department, and the charter and by-laws of the Association.

SEC. 6. The Secretary of each department shall, in addition to performing the duties usually pertaining to his office, furnish the Secretary of the Association a copy of the proceedings of the meetings of the department for publication. *Provided*, No department shall establish an office outside of the general headquarters of the Association without the consent of the Executive Committee of the Association.

SEC. 7. All departments shall have equal rights and privileges, with the exception stated in Section 3 of this article. They shall be named in Section 1 of this article in the order of their establishment and shall be dropped from the list when discontinued. Each department may be governed by its own regulations in so far as they are not inconsistent with the act of incorporation or these by-laws.

SEC. 8. A new department may be established by a two thirds vote of the Board of Directors taken at a regular meeting of the Board, or by a two thirds vote of the Representative Assembly at any annual business meeting; *provided* That a written application for said department, with title and purpose of the same, shall have been made at the regular meeting of the board next preceding the one at which action is taken, or at the preceding annual business meeting, by at least twenty-five members engaged or interested in the field of labor in the interest of which the department is purposed to be established. A department already established may be discontinued by the Board of Directors upon a two thirds vote taken at a regular meeting, or by a two thirds vote of the Representative Assembly at any business meeting of the Association; *provided*, That announcement has been made of the proposed action at a regular meeting of the board the preceding year, or at the preceding annual business meeting. A department shall be discontinued when it fails to hold a regular meeting for two successive years.

SEC. 9. Any department, by a two thirds vote of those voting at any regular business meeting, may levy a membership fee to supplement its allowance from the Association. Such membership fees shall be paid to the Secretary of the department who shall transmit them monthly to the Secretary of the Association. Such funds shall be added to the department's allowance from the Association and shall be used for the work of said department only, and shall be disbursed upon the recommendation of the executive officers of the department in the same manner as other funds of the Association are disbursed.

ARTICLE VI—COMMITTEES

SECTION 1. At the regular meeting of the Board of Directors on the first day of the annual meeting, the president shall appoint an Auditing Committee consisting of three active members of the Association, no one of whom shall be either a trustee or a director; to this committee shall be referred the report of the expert accountant, together with the communication of the President transmitting the same, as provided in Section 6 of this article; and the committee shall report its findings at the meeting of the Representative Assembly.

SEC. 2. On the first day of the annual meeting of the Association, at such time and places as shall be designated on the annual program by the President of the Association, the State and local delegates from each State shall select one member for each of the following committees: Credentials, Nominations, Resolutions, and Necrology. The Committee on Credentials shall receive the official list of the delegates from the Secretary and report thereon to the Representative Assembly.

SEC. 3. The Committee on Nominations shall meet on the third day of the annual meeting at 9.00 A. M., at a place designated by the president of the Associa-

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tion, and shall nominate persons for the following offices in the Association, to wit: one person for President, eleven persons for Vice-Presidents, one person for Treasurer, and one person from each State, territory, and district, in the United States as a member of the Board of Directors. It shall report to the Representative Assembly at the annual business meeting.

SEC. 4. The Committee on Resolutions shall report at the annual business meeting of Representative Assembly, and except by unanimous consent, all resolutions shall be referred to said committee without discussion. This committee shall receive and consider all resolutions proposed by active members, or referred to it by the President; some time during the second day of the annual meeting of the Association the committee shall hold a meeting, at a place and time to be announced in the printed program, for the purpose of receiving proposed resolutions and hearing those who may wish to advocate them.

SEC. 5. The Committee on Necrology shall prepare for the published *Proceedings* a list of the active and corresponding members that have died during the year accompanied by memorial sketches whenever practicable.

SEC. 6. Within thirty days prior to the time of the annual meeting of the Association, the President shall appoint a competent person, firm, or corporation licensed to do business as expert accountants; the accountants so appointed shall examine the accounts, paper, and vouchers of the Secretary, the Treasurer, and the Board of Trustees, and compare the same, and shall also examine the securities of the Permanent Fund held by the Board of Trustees. The report of said accountants shall be filed with the President before the opening day of the annual meeting of the Association, and shall be by him submitted with such comments as he may think proper, to the Board of Directors, at their meeting held on the first day of the annual meeting of the Association.

ARTICLE VII—MEETINGS

SECTION 1. A stated meeting of the Association, of the Council of Education, and of each department shall be held annually at such time and place as shall be determined by the Board of Directors or the Executive Committee acting for the board in accordance with these by-laws. An annual meeting of the Association and its subordinate bodies may be omitted for an extraordinary cause, upon the written consent of two thirds of the directors of the Association, obtained by the Executive Committee.

SEC. 2. The annual business meeting of the Representative Assembly shall begin on the second day of the annual meeting at 9.00 A. M. A regular meeting of the Board of Directors shall be held on the first day of the annual meeting at 10.30 A. M. The first regular meeting of the new Board of Directors shall be held as soon as practicable and within twenty-four hours after the close of the last session of the annual meeting, the place and time of the meeting to be announced in the printed program. The Board of Trustees shall hold its annual meeting at some convenient time and immediately following the meeting of the new Board of Directors referred to above in this section. Special meetings of the trustees may be called by the chairman, and shall be called on request of the majority of the Board of Trustees. Due notice of all meetings of the Board of Trustees shall be given to every member of the board by the Secretary thereof.

ARTICLE VIII—PROCEEDINGS

SECTION 1. The proceedings of the Association, the Council, the departments, the commissions and committees, shall be published at the discretion of and under the direction of a committee appointed by the Executive Committee, *provided*, That in the opinion of the Executive Committee the funds of the Association warrant the publication. Each member of the Association shall be entitled to a copy of the *Proceedings*.

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SEC. 2. No paper, lecture, nor address shall be read before the Association or any of the departments in the absence of the author, without the approval of the President of the Association, or of the departments interested, nor shall any such paper, lecture, or address be published in the *Proceedings* without the approval of the Publication Committee.

ARTICLE IX—QUORUM

SECTION 1. Representatives from twenty-five States and territories shall constitute a quorum in all meetings of the Representative Assembly and of the Board of Directors.

ARTICLE X—APPROPRIATIONS

SECTION 1. Unless otherwise ordered by the Representative Assembly at the annual business meetings, not less than 10 per cent of the gross income of the Association each year shall be set aside for such educational investigations and studies as may be ordered in accordance with Section 5 of Article III.

ARTICLE XI—AMENDMENTS

SECTION 1. These by-laws may be altered or amended at the annual meeting of the Representative Assembly by unanimous *vote,* or by a two thirds vote of the Representative Assembly if the alteration or amendment shall have been proposed in writing at the annual business meeting next preceding the one at which action is taken, and due announcement of the proposed action shall have been made in the official publication of the Association.

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tion, and shall nominate persons for the following offices in the Association, to wit: one person for President, eleven persons for Vice-Presidents, one person for Treasurer, and one person from each State, territory, and district, in the United States as a member of the Board of Directors. It shall report to the Representative Assembly at the annual business meeting.

SEC. 4. The Committee on Resolutions shall report at the annual business meeting of Representative Assembly, and except by unanimous consent, all resolutions shall be referred to said committee without discussion. This committee shall receive and consider all resolutions proposed by active members, or referred to it by the President; some time during the second day of the annual meeting of the Association the committee shall hold a meeting, at a place and time to be announced in the printed program, for the purpose of receiving proposed resolutions and hearing those who may wish to advocate them.

SEC. 5. The Committee on Necrology shall prepare for the published *Proceedings* a list of the active and corresponding members that have died during the year accompanied by memorial sketches whenever practicable.

SEC. 6. Within thirty days prior to the time of the annual meeting of the Association, the President shall appoint a competent person, firm, or corporation licensed to do business as expert accountants; the accountants so appointed shall examine the accounts, paper, and vouchers of the Secretary, the Treasurer, and the Board of Trustees, and compare the same, and shall also examine the securities of the Permanent Fund held by the Board of Trustees. The report of said accountants shall be filed with the President before the opening day of the annual meeting of the Association, and shall be by him submitted with such comments as he may think proper, to the Board of Directors, at their meeting held on the first day of the annual meeting of the Association.

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NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

NOW KNOWN AS THE

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION OF THE UNITED STATES

CERTIFICATE

of Acceptance of Charter and Adoption of By-Laws under the Act of Congress approved June 30, 1906.

We, the undersigned, Nathan C. Schaeffer, the presiding officer, and Irwin Shepard, the Secretary of the meeting of the National Educational Association held at Los Angeles, California, on the 10th day of July, 1907, said meeting being the annual meeting of the Association held next after the passage of an act of Congress entitled "An Act to Incorporate the National Education Association of the United States,"

Do hereby certify, that at said meeting held pursuant to due notice, a quorum being present, the said Association adopted resolutions of which true copies are hereto attached, and accepted the charter of the National Education Association of the United States, granted by said act of Congress, and adopted by-laws as provided in said act and elected officers; and the undersigned pursuant to said resolutions,

Do hereby certify that the National Education Association of the United States has duly accepted said charter granted by said act of Congress, and adopted by-laws, and is the lawful successor to the National Educational Association.

In witness whereof, we have hereunto signed our names this 20th day of August, 1907.

NATHAN C. SCHAEFFER, *Presiding Officer*
IRWIN SHEPARD, *Secretary*

VERIFICATION

RESOLUTIONS ADOPTED BY THE ACTIVE MEMBERS, JULY 10, 1907

1. *Resolved,* That the National Educational Association hereby accepts the charter granted by an act of Congress entitled "An Act to Incorporate the National Education Association of the United States," passed June 30, 1906, and that the President and Secretary of this meeting be authorized and directed to execute and file with the Recorder of Deeds of the District of Columbia a verified certificate showing the acceptance by the Association of the charter granted by said act.

2. *Resolved,* That the proposed by-laws of which notice was given at the annual meeting of the Association held on July 6, 1905, which are printed in full in the Journal of said meeting, be and the same are hereby adopted to take effect immediately.

3. *Resolved,* That the Association adopt as its corporate seal a circle containing the title "National Education Association of the United States," and the dates "1857-1907."

4. *Resolved,* That the Association do now proceed to elect officers, and to organize under the charter granted by the act of Congress.

Filed in the office of the Recorder of Deeds of the District of Columbia, September 4, 1907.

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CALENDAR OF MEETINGS

NATIONAL TEACHERS ASSOCIATION, 1857-1870

1857—PHILADELPHIA, PA. (Organized)
James L. Enos, Chairman.
W. E. Sheldon, Secretary.

1858—CINCINNATI, OHIO
Z. Richards, President.
J. W. Bulkley, Secretary.
A. J. Rickoff, Treasurer.

1859—WASHINGTON, D. C.
A. J. Rickoff, President.
J. W. Bulkley, Secretary.
C. S. Pennell, Treasurer.

1860—BUFFALO, N. Y.
J. W. Bulkley, President.
Z. Richards, Secretary.
O. C. Wight, Treasurer.

1861, 1862—No session.

1863—CHICAGO, ILL.
John D. Philbrick, President.
James Cruikshank, Secretary.
O. C. Wight, Treasurer.

1864—OGDENBURG, N. Y.
W. H. Wells, President.
David N. Camp, Secretary.
Z. Richards, Treasurer.

1865—HARRISBURG, PA.
S. S. Greene, President.
W. E. Sheldon, Secretary.
Z. Richards, Treasurer.

1866—INDIANAPOLIS, IND.
J. P. Wickersham, President.
S. H. White, Secretary.
S. P. Bates, Treasurer

1867—No session.

1868—NASHVILLE, TENN.
J. M. Gregory, President.
L. Van Bokkelen, Secretary.
James Cruikshank, Treasurer.

1869—TRENTON, N. J.
L. Van Bokkelen, President.
W. E. Crosby, Secretary.
A. L. Barber, Treasurer.

1870—CLEVELAND, OHIO
Daniel B. Hagar, President.
A. P. Marble, Secretary.
W. E. Crosby, Treasurer.

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION, 1871-1907

1871—ST. LOUIS, MO.
J. L. Pickard, President.
W. E. Crosby, Secretary.
John Hancock, Treasurer.

1872—BOSTON, MASS.
E. E. White, President.
S. H. White, Secretary.
John Hancock, Treasurer

1873—ELMIRA, N. Y.
B. G. Northrop, President.
S. H. White, Secretary.
John Hancock, Treasurer.

1874—DETROIT, MICH.
S. H. White, President.
A. P. Marble, Secretary.
John Hancock, Treasurer.

1875—MINNEAPOLIS, MINN.
W. T. Harris, President.
M. R. Abbott, Secretary.
A. P. Marble, Treasurer.

1876—BALTIMORE, MD.
W. F. Phelps, President.
W. D. Henkle, Secretary.
A. P. Marble, Treasurer.

1877—LOUISVILLE, KY.
M. A. Newell, President.
W. D. Henkle, Secretary.
J. Ormond Wilson, Treasurer.

1878—No session.

1879—PHILADELHIA, PA.
John Hancock, President.
W. D. Henkle, Secretary.
J. Ormond Wilson, Treasurer.

1880—CHAUTAUQUA, N. Y.
J. Ormond Wilson, President.
W. D. Henkle, Secretary.
E. T. Tappan, Treasurer.

1881—ATLANTA, GA.
James H. Smart, President.
W. D. Henkle, Secretary.
E. T. Tappan, Treasurer.

1882—SARATOGA SPRINGS, N. Y.
G. J. Orr, President.
W. E. Sheldon, Secretary.
H. S. Tarbell, Treasurer.

1883—SARATOGA SPRINGS, N. Y.
E. T. Tappan, President.
W. E. Sheldon, Secretary.
N. A. Calkins, Treasurer.

1884—MADISON, WIS.
Thomas W. Bicknell, President.
H. S. Tarbell, Secretary.
N. A. Calkins, Treasurer.

1885—SARATOGA SPRINGS, N. Y.
F. Louis Soldan, President.
W. E. Sheldon, Secretary.
N. A. Calkins, Treasurer.

1886—TOPEKA, KAN.
N. A. Calkins, President.
W. E. Sheldon, Secretary.
E. C. Hewett, Treasurer.

1887—CHICAGO, ILL.
W. E. Sheldon, President.
J. H. Canfield, Secretary.
E. C. Hewett, Treasurer.

1888—SAN FRANCISCO, CALIF.
Aaron Gove, President.
J. H. Canfield, Secretary.
E. C. Hewett, Treasurer.

1889—NASHVILLE, TENN.
Albert P. Marble, President.
J. H. Canfield, Secretary.
E. C. Hewett, Treasurer.

1890—ST. PAUL, MINN.
J. H. Canfield, President.
W. R. Garrett, Secretary.
E. C. Hewett, Treasurer.

1891—TORONTO, ONT.
W. R. Garrett, President.
E. H. Cook, Secretary.
J. M. Greenwood, Treasurer.

1892—SARATOGA SPRINGS, N. Y.
E. H. Cook, President.
R. W. Stevenson, Secretary.
J. M. Greenwood, Treasurer.

1893—CHICAGO, ILL.
(International Congress of Education)
Albert G. Lane, President.
Irwin Shepard, Secretary.
J. M. Greenwood, Treasurer.

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1894—ASBURY PARK, N. J.
ALBERT G. LANE, President.
IRWIN SHEPARD, Secretary.
J. M. GREENWOOD, Treasurer.

1895—DENVER, COLO.
NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER, Pres.
IRWIN SHEPARD, Secretary.
I. C. MCNEILL, Treasurer.

1896—BUFFALO, N. Y.
NEWTON C. DOUGHERTY, President.
IRWIN SHEPARD, Secretary.
I. C. MCNEILL, Treasurer.

1897—MILWAUKEE, WIS.
CHARLES R. SKINNER, President.
IRWIN SHEPARD, Secretary.
I. C. MCNEILL, Treasurer.

1898—WASHINGTON, D. C.
J. M. GREENWOOD, President.
IRWIN SHEPARD, Secretary.
I. C. MCNEILL, Treasurer.

1899—LOS ANGELES, CALIF.
E. ORAM LYTE, President.
IRWIN SHEPARD, Secretary.
I. C. MCNEILL, Treasurer.

1900—CHARLESTON, S. C.
OSCAR T. CORSON, President.
IRWIN SHEPARD, Secretary.
CARROLL G. PEARSE, Treasurer.

1901—DETROIT, MICH.
JAMES M. GREEN, President.
IRWIN SHEPARD, Secretary.
L. C. GREENLEE, Treasurer.

1902—MINNEAPOLIS, MINN.
WILLIAM M. BEARDSHEAR, Pres.
IRWIN SHEPARD, Secretary.
CHARLES H. KEYES, Treasurer.

1903—BOSTON, MASS.
CHARLES W. ELIOT, President.
IRWIN SHEPARD, Secretary.
W. M. DAVIDSON, Treasurer.

1904—ST. LOUIS, MO.
JOHN W. COOK, President.
IRWIN SHEPARD, Secretary.
MCHENRY RHOADS, Treasurer.

1905—ASBURY PARK AND OCEAN GROVE, N. J.
WILLIAM H. MAXWELL, President.
IRWIN SHEPARD, Secretary.
JAMES W. CRABTREE, Treasurer.

1906—No session.

1907—LOS ANGELES, CALIF.
NATHAN C. SCHAEFFER, President.
IRWIN SHEPARD, Secretary.
J. N. WILKINSON, Treasurer.

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION OF THE UNITED STATES, 1908——

1908—CLEVELAND, OHIO.
EDWIN G. COOLEY, President.
IRWIN SHEPARD, Secretary.
ARTHUR H. CHAMBERLAIN, Treas.

1909—DENVER, COLO.
LORENZO D. HARVEY, President.
IRWIN SHEPARD, Secretary.
ARTHUR H. CHAMBERLAIN, Treas.

1910—BOSTON, MASS.
JAMES Y. JOYNER, President.
IRWIN SHEPARD, Secretary.
ARTHUR H. CHAMBERLAIN, Treas.

1911—SAN FRANCISCO, CALIF.
ELLA FLAGG YOUNG, President.
IRWIN SHEPARD, Secretary.
DURAND W. SPRINGER, Treasurer.

1912—CHICAGO, ILL.
CARROLL G. PEARSE, President.
IRWIN SHEPARD, Secretary.
KATHERINE D. BLAKE, Treasurer.

1913—SALT LAKE CITY, UTAH
EDWARD T. FAIRCHILD, President.
DURAND W. SPRINGER, Secretary.
GRACE M. SHEPHERD, Treasurer.

1914—ST. PAUL, MINN.
JOSEPH SWAIN, President.
DURAND W. SPRINGER, Secretary.
GRACE M. SHEPHERD, Treasurer.

1915—OAKLAND, CALIF.
(International Congress of Education)
DAVID STARR JORDAN, President.
DURAND W. SPRINGER, Secretary.
GRACE M. SHEPHERD, Treasurer.

1916—NEW YORK, N. Y.
DAVID B. JOHNSON, President
DURAND W. SPRINGER, Secretary.
GRACE M. SHEPHERD, Treasurer.

1917—PORTLAND, ORE.
ROBERT J. ALEY, President.
DURAND W. SPRINGER, Secretary.
THOMAS E. FINEGAN, Treasurer.

1918—PITTSBURGH, PA.
MARY C. C. BRADFORD, President.
J. W. CRABTREE, Secretary.
A. J. MATTHEWS, Treasurer.

1919—MILWAUKEE, WIS.
GEORGE D. STRAYER, President.
J. W. CRABTREE, Secretary.
A. J. MATTHEWS, Treasurer.

1920—SALT LAKE CITY, UTAH
JOSEPHINE CORLISS PRESTON, Pres.
J. W. CRABTREE, Secretary.
A. J. MATTHEWS, Treasurer.

1921—DES MOINES, IOWA
FRED M. HUNTER, President.
J. W. CRABTREE, Secretary.
CORNELIA S. ADAIR, Treasurer.

1922—BOSTON, MASS.
CHARL ORMOND WILLIAMS, Pres
J. W. CRABTREE, Secretary.
CORNELIA S. ADAIR, Treasurer.

1923—OAKLAND-SAN FRANCISCO
WILLIAM B. OWEN, President.
J. W. CRABTREE, Secretary.
CORNELIA S. ADAIR, Treasurer.

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National Education Association of the United States

OFFICERS FOR 1922-1923

GENERAL ASSOCIATION

William B. Owen, *President*.....Chicago, Ill.
J. W. Crabtree, *Secretary*.....Washington, D. C.
Cornelia S. Adair, *Treasurer*.....Richmond, Va.

VICE-PRESIDENTS

Charl Ormond Williams, Legislative Secretary.....Washington, D. C.
Minnie J. Nielson, State Superintendent of Public Instruction.....Bismarck, N. D.
John W. Abercrombie, State Superintendent of Education.....Montgomery, Ala.
Clarence H. Dempsey, State Commissioner of Education.....Montpelier, Vt.
H. W. Dodd, Superintendent of Schools.....Allentown, Pa.
W. F. Geiger, Superintendent of Schools.....Tacoma, Wash.
C. N. Jensen, State Superintendent of Public Instruction.....Salt Lake City, Utah
Uel W. Lamkin, President Northwest State Teachers' College.....Marysville, Mo.
Mary McSkimmon, Principal, Pierce School.....Brookline, Mass.
Mary E. Lawler, Teacher, School No. 12.....Paterson, N. J.
H. Lester Smith, Dean, School of Education, Indiana University.....Bloomington, Ind.
Robert H. Wright, President, East Carolina Teachers' College.....Greenville, N. C.

BOARD OF TRUSTEES

Walter R. Siders, Superintendent of Schools.....Pocatello, Idaho
William B. Owen, President, Chicago Normal College.....Chicago, Ill.
Agnes E. Doherty, Teacher, Central High School.....St. Paul, Minn.
Olive M. Jones, Principal, Public School.....New York, N. Y.
Carl L. G. Pearse, F. E. Compton & Co.....Milwaukee, Wis.

EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE

William B. Owen, *President*.....Chicago, Ill.
Charl Ormond Williams, *Vice-President*.....Washington, D. C.
Walter R. Siders, *Chairman Board of Trustees*.....Pocatello, Idaho
Cornelia S. Adair, *Treasurer*.....Richmond, Va.
Fred M. Hunter, *Member by Election*.....Oakland, Calif.

BOARD OF DIRECTORS

Directors Ex Officio

William B. Owen, *President*.....Chicago, Ill.
Charl Ormond Williams, *First Vice-President*.....Washington, D. C.
Cornelia S. Adair, *Treasurer*.....Richmond, Va.
Walter R. Siders, *Chairman of the Board of Trustees*.....Pocatello, Idaho
J. W. Crabtree, *Secretary*.....Washington, D. C.

Life Directors

Hill, Robert J., President of Butler College.....Indianapolis, Ind.
Bunting, Thomas W., 207 Boyle Avenue.....Providence, R. I.
Board of Education.....Nashville, Tenn.
Bradford, Mary C. C., 1735 Bellaire Street.....Denver, Colo.
Brown, Elmer Ellsworth, Chancellor of New York University.....New York, N. Y.
Butler, Nicholas Murray, President of Columbia University.....New York, N. Y.

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CLAXTON, P. P., Provost of the University of Alabama.....University, Ala.
COOLEY, EDWIN G., Union League Club.....Chicago, Ill.
CORSON, OSCAR T., R. F. D. No. 2.....Oxford, Ohio
ELIOT, CHARLES W., President Emeritus of Harvard University.....Cambridge, Mass.
GRAHAM, H. A.....Mt. Pleasant, Mich.
HUNTER, FRED M., Superintendent of Schools.....Oakland, Calif.
JOHNSON, DAVID B., President, Winthrop Normal and Industrial College.....Rock Hill, S. C.
JORDAN, DAVID STARR, President Emeritus Stanford University.....Palo Alto, Calif.
JOYNER, JAMES Y.....La Grange, N. C.
MARSHALL, T. MARCELLUS.....Stouts Mills, W. Va.
PEARSE, CARROLL G., 455 Kenwood Blvd.....Milwaukee, Wis.
PRESTON, MRS. JOSEPHINE CORLISS, State Supt. of Public Instruction.....Olympia, Wash.
SKINNER, CHARLES R., Librarian, Legislative Library, Capitol Bldg.....Albany, N. Y.
STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION OF ILLINOIS, Robert C. Moore, Secretary.....Carlinville, Ill.
STRAYER, GEORGE D., Teachers College, Columbia University.....New York, N. Y.
SWAIN, JOSEPH, Swarthmore College.....Swarthmore, Pa.
TAYLOR, A. R.....Decatur, Ill.
TEACHERS' INSTITUTE.....Philadelphia, Pa.
TIGERT, JOHN J., U. S. Commissioner of Education, Bureau of Education..Washington, D. C.
WHITE, CHARLES G.....Menomonie, Wis.
WILLIAMS, CHARL ORMOND, National Education Association.....Washington, D. C.

State Directors

Alabama .....C. B. GLENN, Superintendent of Schools.....Birmingham
Alaska .....LESTER D. HENDERSON, Commissioner of Education.....Juneau
Arizona .....H. E. HENDRIX, Superintendent of Schools.....Mesa
Arkansas .....ANNIE GRIFFEY, Primary Supervisor.....Little Rock
California .....MARY F. MOONEY, Vice-Principal, Washington School..San Francisco
Colorado .....H. B. SMITH, Secretary, Colorado Education Association....Denver
Connecticut .....LEVI T. GARRISON, Regional Supervisor, Willimantic Normal School .....Willimantic
Delaware .....H. V. HOLLOWAY, State Superintendent of Public Instruction..Dover
Florida .....F. A. HATHAWAY, County Superintendent of Schools....Jacksonville
Georgia .....K. T. ALFRIEND, Department of Education and Psychology, Bessie Tift College.....Forsyth
Idaho .....T. B. SHANK, Superintendent of Schools.....Coeur d'Alene
Illinois .....MRS. SARAH L. THOMAS, Public School Teacher.....Rockford
Indiana .....H. LESTER SMITH, Dean of School of Education.....Bloomington
Iowa .....L. H. MINKEL, Superintendent of Schools.....Fort Dodge
Kansas .....M. E. PEARSON, Superintendent of Schools.....Kansas City
Kentucky .....R. E. WILLIAMS, Secretary and Treasurer of Kentucky Education Association .....Louisville
Louisiana .....W. S. LAFARGUE, Superintendent of Education of Lafourche Parish .....Thibodaux
Maine .....J. W. TAYLOR, Agent for Secondary Education.....Augusta
Maryland .....WILLIAM BURDICK, General Director Public Athletic League, Children's Playground Association, Inc.....Baltimore
Massachusetts .....MARY MCSKIMMON, Principal of Pierce School.....Brookline
Michigan .....THOMAS E. JOHNSON, State Superintendent of Schools.....Lansing
Minnesota .....J. C. BROWN, President of State Teachers' College.....St. Cloud
Mississippi .....E. E. BASS, Superintendent of Schools.....Greenville
Missouri .....THOMAS J. WALKER, Editor, School and Community.....Columbia
Montana .....J. M. HAMILTON, Dean, State College of Agriculture.....Bozeman
Nebraska .....C. RAY GATES, Superintendent of Schools.....Grand Island
Nevada .....MRS. LIBBY C. BOOTH, Principal, Public Schools.....Reno
New Hampshire .....CLIFTON TOWLE, Superintendent of Schools.....Exeter
New Jersey .....THOMAS AGNEW, Principal, Horace Mann School.....Bayonne
New Mexico.....JOHN MILNE, Superintendent of Schools.....Albuquerque
New York .....AMBROSE CORT, Principal of Public School 73.....Brooklyn
North Carolina .....ROBERT H. WRIGHT, President, East Carolina Teachers' College .....Greenville
North Dakota .....A. C. BERG, State Rural School Inspector.....Towner
Ohio .....F. E. REYNOLDS, 416 Chamber of Commerce Bldg.....Columbus

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Oklahoma .....E. E. OBERHOLTZER, Superintendent of Schools.....Tulsa
Oregon .....E. H. WHITNEY, Assistant Superintendent of City Schools..Portland
Pennsylvania .....J. H. KELLEY, Secretary, Pennsylvania State Education Association .....Harrisburg
Rhode Island .....WILLIAM O. HOLDEN, Head of Commercial Department Pawtucket High School.....Pawtucket
South Carolina .....GEORGE HARRIS WEBBER, Superintendent of City Schools....Beaufort
South Dakota .....HAROLD W. FOGHT, Northern Normal and Industrial School..Aberdeen
Tennessee .....S. L. SMITH, General Field Agent for Rural Schools, Commercial Club Building.....Nashville
Texas .....CATHERINE GORBUTT .....El Paso
Utah .....L. JOHN NUTTALL, JR., Director, Training School, Brigham Young University.....Provo
Vermont .....M. D. CHITTENDEN, State Board of Education.....Montpelier
Virginia .....NANNIE W. THOMPSON.....Richmond
Washington .....MRS. JENNIE M. FRENCH, Principal, Pt. Defiance School.....Tacoma
West Virginia .....W. W. TRENT, Superintendent of Schools.....Elkins
Wisconsin .....J. F. SIMS, President, State Normal School.....Stevens Point
Wyoming .....A. A. SLADE, Superintendent of Schools.....Casper
District of Columbia....HARRY ENGLISH, Head, Department Mathematics, High Schools .....Washington
Hawaii .....H. M. WELLS, Superintendent of Public Instruction.....Honolulu
Philippine Islands .....LUTHER B. BEWLEY, Commissioner of Education.....Manila
Porto Rico .....JUAN B. HUYKE, Commissioner of Education.....San Juan

HEADQUARTERS STAFF

1201 Sixteenth Street Northwest, Washington, D. C.

J. W. CRABTREE, Secretary.
HELEN T. HIXSON, Director of the Division of Records and Accounts.
JOY ELMER MORGAN, Director of the Division of Publications.
AGNES S. WINN, Director of the Division of Elementary School Service.
JOHN K. NORTON, Director of the Research Division.
CHARL ORMOND WILLIAMS, Field Division, Legislative Secretary.
J. O. ENGLEMAN, Field Division, Field Secretary.
HAROLD A. ALLAN, Director of the Business Division.
S. D. SHANKLAND, Secretary of the Department of Superintendence.

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It was recommended at the Boston meeting that this committee be discontinued and in its place four separate committees be constituted, the president to indicate the scope of the work of each at time of appointment. Arrangements are being made for the appointment of these committees, but the names of the members are not yet ready for publication.

Miss Olive M. Jones, of New York City, will give a report as Chairman of the former committee.

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Washington .....Jennie M. French, Principal, Point Defiance School.....Tacoma
West Virginia .....J. H. Hickman, State Department of Schools.....Charleston
Wisconsin .....John F. Sims, President, State Normal School.....Stevens Point
Wyoming .....A. A. Slade, Superintendent of Schools.....Cheyenne

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PROGRAM OF THE SIXTY-FIRST ANNUAL MEETING

OF THE

National Education Association

OAKLAND-SAN FRANCISCO, CALIFORNIA, JULY 1–6, 1923

GENERAL PROGRAM

Sunday Afternoon, July 1, 4:00 o'clock

First Congregational Church, Twelfth and Clay Streets, Oakland

Vesper Service

Music for this program was furnished by Mrs. H. C. Broderick, soprano; Edna Fisher Hall, alto; A. E. Gross, tenor; John E. Deegan, bass; Alexander McCurdy, organist; Eugene Blanchard, director.

PRELUDE
DOXOLOGY
INVOCATION
LORD'S PRAYER
ANTHEM—Jesus, Lover of My Soul.....*Jones*
SCRIPTURE READING
HYMN—Onward, Christian Soldiers
PRAYER
RESPONSE—Father, Fill Me With Thy Love.....*Burdette*
OFFERTORY—Light .....*Frederick Stevenson*
Edna Fisher Hall
ADDRESS—THE IDEALS OF THE AMERICAN PUBLIC SCHOOLS
Harrison S. Robinson, President of the Oakland Chamber of Commerce.
HYMN—All Hail the Power of Jesus' Name
BENEDICTION
POSTLUDE

Sunday Evening, July 1, 7:30 o'clock

Convention Hall, Exposition Auditorium, San Francisco

SACRED HAWAIIAN MUSIC: Auspices Pan-Pacific Union
THE WORK OF THE PAN-PACIFIC UNION
Frank F. Bunker, Executive Secretary, Pan-Pacific Union, Honolulu, T. H.
THE WORLD'S SOCIAL LABORATORY AND THE RED CROSS MOVEMENT
Henry Noble MacCracken, President of Vassar College, Poughkeepsie, New York
EDUCATION IN HAWAII
Vaughan MacCaughey, formerly Superintendent of Public Instruction for Hawaii
MOTION PICTURES: Pan-Pacific Union

NOTE.—The proceedings here given are arranged as in the official program, with proper additions and corrections. Business Sessions of the Representative Assembly are so headed.

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First Day's Proceedings

Monday Morning, July 2, 8.30 o'clock

The music for this program was furnished by the Fremont High School Orchestra of sixty-five players, under the leadership of A. C. Olker.

March—"Gladiator," by *Blankenburg;* selection, Mikado, by *Sullivan;* "Morning," from *Peer Gynt Suite,* by *Grieg,*" "Serenata," by *Alois Reiser.*

ADDRESS OF WELCOME FOR THE CITY OF OAKLAND
John L. Davie, Mayor of Oakland.

ADDRESS OF WELCOME FOR THE STATE OF CALIFORNIA
Will C. Wood, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Sacramento, California.

ADDRESS IN RESPONSE
Albert E. Winship, Editor, *The Journal of Education,* Boston, Massachusetts.

THRIFT EDUCATION
Edith McClure Patterson, Committee on Thrift, Ohio State Federation of Women's Clubs, Dayton, Ohio.

EDUCATION FOR PARENTHOOD
Alma L. Binzel, Assistant Professor of Child Training, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minnesota.

THE CONSERVATION OF TALENT
Lewis M. Terman, Head of Department of Psychology, Stanford University, California.

Monday Afternoon, July 2, 2.00 o'clock

This afternoon was given over to programs of the departments of the Association and of allied organizations.

Monday Evening, July 2, 7.30 o'clock

The following musical program was arranged by the San Francisco Music Committee:

Organ solo, Finlandia, by Sibelius, played by Wallace A. Sabin, official organist of the Panama-Pacific Exposition, and director of the San Francisco Loring Club. Chorus, "Hear My Prayer," by Mendelssohn, sung by the mixed chorus, under the direction of Mr. Sabin at the organ. Soloist, Helen Heath. Zilpha Ruggles Jenkins, Helen Heath, Edna Leopold, Edith Hibbard, sopranos; Ruth Waterman Anderson, Eva Atkinson, altos; Robert Battison, Carl Anderson, tenors; Percy Ward, George Lane, Harry Fossey, basses. "My Soul Thirsteth" by Wallace A. Sabin, sung by a chorus of mixed voices, and played by the composer at the great organ. Soloists, Mrs. Jenkins, Mrs. Anderson and Mr. Battison. "Praise Ye the Lord," by Randegger, sung by the chorus, soloist, Mrs. Jenkins.

ADDRESS—THE CHANGING AMERICAN SCHOOL PROGRAM
William Bishop Owen, President, National Education Association, Chicago, Ill.

THE FINANCING OF THE AMERICAN SCHOOLS
George Drayton Strayer, Professor of School Administration, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.

THE TEACHER AS A STUDENT
James F. Hosic, Associate Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.

EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH AND THE AMERICAN SCHOOL PROGRAM
Charles Hubbard Judd, Director of School of Education, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.

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Second Day's Proceedings

Tuesday Morning, July 3, 9.00 o'clock

First Business Session of the Representative Assembly

ADDRESS

Mrs. A. H. Reeve, President, National Congress of Mothers and Parent-Teacher Associations, Philadelphia, Pa.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON CREDENTIALS

ADOPTION OF RULES

ADOPTION OF MINUTES

ADOPTION OF ORDER OF BUSINESS

REPORT OF PRESIDENT OF THE ASSOCIATION

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON SALARIES

E. S. Evenden, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City, Chairman.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE TO COOPERATE WITH MOTION PICTURE PRODUCERS

Charles Hubbard Judd, Director, School of Education, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill., Chairman.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON CHARACTER EDUCATION

Milton Bennion, Dean, School of Education, University of Utah, Salt Lake City, Chairman.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON THE REORGANIZATION OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

Olive M. Jones, Principal, Public School No. 120, New York City.

REPORT OF EDITORIAL COUNCIL

W. Carson Ryan, Professor of Education, Swarthmore College, Swarthmore, Pa.

REPORT OF JOINT COMMITTEE ON HEALTH PROBLEMS IN EDUCATION

Thomas D. Wood, Columbia University, New York City, Chairman.

REPORT OF ILLITERACY COMMISSION

Cora Wilson Stewart, Frankfort, Kentucky, Chairman.

At this meeting resolutions may be handed to the Secretary for consideration by Committee on Resolutions.

NEW BUSINESS

Tuesday Afternoon, July 3, 2.00 o'clock

This afternoon was given over to programs of the departments of the Association and of allied organizations.

Tuesday Evening, July 3, 7.30 o'clock

The following musical program was arranged by the San Francisco Music Committee:

The following selections were played by Paul Steindorf and his orchestra: "Entrance of the Gladiators," by *Fucik;* "Albumleaf," by *Wagner;* "The Wedding of the Rose," by *Fessel;* "Treasure Waltz," by *Strauss;* "When Johnny Comes Marching Home," by *Edwards.*

The American School Program

FROM THE STANDPOINT OF THE NATION

Ellwood P. Cubberley, Dean, School of Education, Stanford University, California.

FROM THE STANDPOINT OF THE STATE

Thomas E. Finegan, Former State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Harrisburg, Pennsylvania.

FROM THE STANDPOINT OF THE CITY

William L. Ettinger, Superintendent of Schools, New York City.

FROM THE STANDPOINT OF THE RURAL SCHOOL

Florence M. Hale, State Agent for Rural Education, Augusta, Maine.

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Third Day's Proceedings

Wednesday Morning, July 4, 10.00 o'clock

An Educational and Patriotic Program Under the Joint Auspices of the National Education Association and the American Council on Education

ADDRESS OF WELCOME
William W. Campbell, President-elect, University of California, Berkeley, California.

EDUCATION FOR CITIZENSHIP
Will C. Wood, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Sacramento, California.

THE EFFECTIVE AMERICAN UNIVERSITY
Henry Suzzallo, President, University of Washington, Seattle, Washington.

THE JUNIOR COLLEGE IN THE AMERICAN SCHOOL PROGRAM
Susan M. Dorsey, Superintendent of Schools, Los Angeles, California.

Wednesday Afternoon, July 4, 2.00 o'clock

The Pageant of Nations was presented under the direction of Margaret Miriam Krsak, by the Mayor's Citizen Committee of San Francisco and the World Conference Committee of the National Education Association, as a part of the Civic Celebration of Independence Day.

The Nations of the world, with America in the lead, participated in the celebration of America's Independence Day. The paramount idea was to present an authoritative and correct representation of the peoples of the world taking part in the convention. In this age of unrest and in an hour of the crying need for peace, the various racial denominations will symbolize their respective contributions to science, art, and literature. The groups carry their historic flag, led by a man and a woman in the traditional costume, while the orchestra provides their national music.

Fourth Day's Proceedings

Thursday Morning July 5, 9.00 o'clock

Second Business Session of the Representative Assembly

THE CLASSICAL INVESTIGATION
Andrew F. West, Dean, Graduate School, Princeton University, Princeton, New Jersey.

A SCHOOL SERVICE PROGRAM
Charles M. Holmes, National School Supply Association, Chicago, Illinois.

ROLL CALL AND GENERAL BUSINESS

REPORT OF RURAL SCHOOL COMMITTEE
John F. Sims, President, State Normal School, Stevens Point, Wisconsin, Chairman.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON TENURE
Emma L. Dacre, Public Schools, San Francisco, California.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON PENSIONS
Philip E. Carlson, Minneapolis, Minnesota, Chairman.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON COORDINATION OF RESEARCH AGENCIES
Jesse H. Newlon, Superintendent of Schools, Denver, Colorado, Chairman.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON THRIFT
Arthur H. Chamberlain, Secretary, California State Teachers' Association, San Francisco, California, Chairman.

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REPORT OF COMMITTEE TO COOPERATE WITH AMERICAN SCHOOL CITIZENSHIP LEAGUE
Fannie Fern Andrews, Boston, Massachusetts, Chairman.
REPORT OF FIELD SECRETARIES
Charl Ormond Williams, Washington, D. C.
J. O. Engleman, Washington, D. C.
REPORT OF LEGISLATIVE COMMISSION
George D. Strayer, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City, Chairman.
UNFINISHED BUSINESS
NEW BUSINESS

Thursday Afternoon, July 5, 2.00 o'clock

This afternoon was given to programs of the departments of the Association and of allied organizations.

Thursday Evening, July 5, 7.30 o'clock

The following musical program was arranged by the San Francisco Music Committee:

Organ solos, "Toccata," from the Fifth Symphony, by *Widor*, and "Air from Rinaldo," by *Handel*, played by Uda Waldrop; violin solo, "The Old Refrain," by *Kreisler*, played by Rudy Seiger. Organ solo, "Dance of the Water Sprites," by Uda Waldrop (from the Bohemian Club Grove Play, Nec-Natama, 1914), and "Intermezzo," (from the Family Club Play, The Fountain of Youth, 1920), played by Uda Waldrop, the composer at the great organ. Violin solos, "Berceuse," by *Rudy Seiger*, and "Andantino," by *Kreisler*, played by Rudy Seiger. "Finale in D," by *Lemmens*, played by Uda Waldrop, Municipal Organist, San Francisco.

Joint Meeting of National Education Association and World Conference on Education

HEALTH ASPECT OF THE WORLD'S CHILDREN
Ray L. Wilbur, President, Stanford University, California.
THE HOPE OF THE NATIONS
M. Sawayanagi, President of the Japanese Imperial Education Association.
THE MEANING OF THE WORLD CONFERENCE
E. J. Sainsbury, President of the National Union of Teachers of England and Wales.
WOMEN IN EDUCATION
Princess Santa Borghese, Rome, Italy.
THE WORLD AND INDIA
Hemendra K. Rakhit.
EDUCATION AND WORLD PROGRESS
Augustus O. Thomas, Chairman of Committee on Foreign Relations, Augusta, Maine.

Fifth Day's Proceedings

Friday Morning, July 6, 9.00 o'clock

Third Business Session of the Representative Assembly

REPORT OF EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE
REPORT OF TREASURER
Cornelia S. Adair, Treasurer of the National Education Association, Richmond, Virginia.
REPORT OF BOARD OF TRUSTEES
Walter R. Siders, Superintendent of Schools, Pocatello, Idaho, Chairman.

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REPORT OF COMMITTEE TO COOPERATE WITH AMERICAN LEGION
J. M. Gwinn, Superintendent of Schools, San Francisco, California.
REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON FOREIGN RELATIONS
August O. Thomas, State Superintendent of Schools, Augusta, Maine.
OTHER COMMITTEE REPORTS
CONSIDERATION OF AMENDMENTS TO BY-LAWS
UNFINISHED BUSINESS
NEW BUSINESS
REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON NECROLOGY
REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON RESOLUTIONS
REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON NOMINATIONS

Friday Afternoon, July 6, 2.00 o'clock

This afternoon was given over to programs of the departments of the Association and of allied organizations.

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MINUTES OF OAKLAND MEETING OF THE REPRESENTATIVE ASSEMBLY[1]

OAKLAND, CALIFORNIA, JULY 3, 5, AND 6

First business session—The first business session of the annual meeting was called to order by President Owen, Tuesday morning, July 3, 1923, at nine o'clock in the theater of the Oakland Civic Auditorium.

Report of Committee on Credentials, adopted as read by the chairman, U. W. Lamkin.

President Owen: That constitutes this the representative assembly of this annual meeting; we are now ready to do business. It is now in order to adopt rules of procedure for this convention.

It was moved from the floor that the rules which had been used during the two preceding years, as printed on page 6 of the Official Manual, be adopted. The motion was seconded and carried.

President Owen: We now have a set of rules. Shall we have a Committee on Rules?

A motion was made, seconded, and carried that the President appoint such a committee, and the following were appointed: Superintendent, R. J. Condon, of Cincinnati; Miss Rose Pesta, Chicago; Mr. Johnson, of San Diego; Miss Sterrett, Seattle; Mr. Rosier, West Virginia; Mary McSkimmon, Boston; F. A. Hathaway, Jacksonville, Florida.

The next thing in the order of business before us is the adoption of the minutes of the last meeting of the Representative Assembly. The chair recognizes the Secretary of the Association.

Secretary Crabtree: The minutes are published and printed in the Official Manual, which has been given to each delegate. I move the adoption of the minutes of the Boston meeting as printed in the Official Manual. Motion seconded and carried.

President Owen: The next thing is the adoption of the order of business. That means, of course, that this provisional order in the program which had to be set up by the officers can be adopted by the Assembly, or can be made as the Assembly deems wise. (Motion made that the order as arranged by the officers be adopted; seconded and carried.) The next order of business is the report of the President.

The President then spoke on the life and growth of the Association, pointing out the advantages which had come from the reorganization of the Association in 1920 on the representative basis. He attached importance to the deliberations of the Representative Assembly, to the wisdom during the next few years of developing proper forms of business procedure, mentioning in

[1] This is a brief statement of the proceedings of the three business sessions of the Representative Assembly at the sixty-first annual meeting of the National Education Association, as prepared by the Secretary. The complete copy of the notes taken by the reporter is in the Secretary's office.

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detail items in procedure which should be observed in order to keep the work of the Assembly on a high plane and in order fully to represent the democratic spirit of the Association and teaching profession.

Mrs. A. H. Reeve, president of the National Congress of Mothers and Parent-Teacher Associations, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, was then introduced and spoke briefly on the work of her association and advantage of cooperation with the National Education Association.

President Owen: We have a number of reports to be presented to us. First is the report of the Committee on Salaries. The chairman of this committee is Professor E. S. Evenden, of Columbia University, who is not able to be here. Professor Rugh, of the University of California, is to present the report. He is a member of the committee.

Professor Rugh spoke briefly concerning the report which had been printed and placed in the hands of delegates. In answer to a question from the floor, Professor Rugh gave assurance that additional copies of the report in pamphlet form could be secured by writing the central office.

President Owen: Next we will have the report of the Committee on Character Education, by the chairman, Milton Bennion, dean of the School of Education, University of Utah, Salt Lake City. (After the presentation of the report, which is printed in pamphlet form, a motion was passed to adopt the report and to continue the committee for another year.)

President Owen: The next is the report of the Committee to Coöperate with Motion Picture Producers. The chairman is Charles Hubbard Judd, director of the School of Education, University of Chicago.

In presenting the report, which was in the hands of delegates in pamphlet form and which will also be published in the Annual Proceedings of the Association, Dr. Judd called attention to the organization of the committee and to the steps in the preparation of the report, and moved the adoption of the report, including the following recommendations of the committee: (1) That the present committee be discharged; (2) that the Association express to the motion picture producers and distributors of America appreciation for support given to the committee; (3) that this Association recognize the desirability of legislation regulating the use of inflammable films and making more readily available to schools the non-inflammable films; (4) that a program on visual education be arranged for the next winter meeting to include all discussion of this subject at that meeting; and (5) that a committee be appointed by the President of the Association to carry on studies of the administrative and instructional methods which are employed and should be employed in the introduction of visual materials into the school curriculum.

Mrs. Bradford: I move that the present committee be retained.

President Owen: That is an amendment to the report. The motion comes to amend the report to read that the present committee be retained.

Mr. Wilson: A question of information: What is the scope of the responsibilities of the new committee? The printed document did not reach our hands.

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President Owen: The other committee was set up, if I may explain, with the definite plan of working in coöperation with the motion picture producers and distributors on a proposition from them.

Delegate: If we adopt this report, is there any implication of that coöperation, or does it mean from this time on it can coöperate or not, but it is going to study the whole question?

Chairman Judd: The recommendation is that your new committee canvas all aspects of the subject with such resources as can be secured, providing they do not hinder the operation of the committee as an educational committee.

Mr. Fairchild, of Washington: It seems to me it would be very much better policy for us to refer the creation of this new committee to our Executive Committee. I should like to move an amendment that the work of creating this new committee be referred to the Executive Committee. (Motion lost.)

Mr. Cort, of New York: I understood from the chairman of the committee, that the committee would welcome the addition of some people closely connected with this work.

President Owen: The chair will rule on that. The President of the Association has the power to remove all the individual members of that committee and make it all new. It is a question of continuing the committee as a committee and not the personnel. We hope the same committee will go on. (Motion is put for the amendment, seconded and carried.)

President Owen: Now the next point in the recommendation was that the Association express to the motion picture distributors appreciation for their support. (Motion made, seconded, carried.)

A motion for the adoption of the third point was also made, seconded and carried.

President Owen: On the fourth point, in regard to the progress for visual education at the next winter meeting, the chair will have to rule that we have no power over that. It is only a recommendation to the Department of Superintendence. With that interpretation, are you ready to vote on the adoption of the report as a whole? (Motion seconded and carried.)

H. B. Wilson: Was not another element involved—namely, that no steps should be taken to organize a department of visual instruction? Is it determinative? Is that a question for the Executive Committee?

President Owen: The Board of Directors can make a department on its own action. I suggest that we get rid of this first, then take it up.

Mr. Wilson: I speak of that because since I have been organizing a visual education conference for this meeting, a number of persons have been urging that action be taken. If our action is not determinative, it is of no use.

President Owen: It is not determinative. All in favor of the motion, etc. (Motion carried.)

The next report is that of the Committee on the Reorganization of Elementary Education, by Miss Olive M. Jones, of New York City.

After calling attention to the reports in the hands of delegates, and after outlining work of the committee since it was created, Miss Jones said: It is therefore recommended to you now that the original commission be dis-

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charged from its work; that the Committee on Publication be discharged from its duties; that all matters of publication of reports of these committees hereafter be left with the publication of the National Education Association. It is also recommended that the three sub-committees on English, Mathematics, and Social Studies, be continued, but that they take the position of committees of the National Education Association, and not sub-committees of a commission that had a general problem to solve, and feels that its work is completed. (Motion made for the adoption of the report; seconded and carried.)

President Owen: The next report is that of the Editorial Council, which will be presented by Dr. W. Carson Ryan, Jr., professor of education in Swarthmore College, Swarthmore, Pennsylvania.

W. Carson Ryan: I know I express the regret of every one present that Dr. Bagley is not here to give his report. (Reading of report by speaker, followed by a motion for its adoption, which was seconded.)

Mr. Cort: As a matter of information, may I ask if the various departments of this Association are kept in close touch with *The Journal.*

Dr. Ryan: Most of the departments appear to think that the editor of *The Journal* is so persistent in that respect that they are rather bothered by it. There is a constant communication between the staff at Washington and every department of the organization. I know, at least, that the headquarters staff most certainly encourages that. (Motion carried.)

President Owen: We will now hear the report of the Joint Committee on Health Problems in Education, by the chairman, Dr. Thomas D. Wood, of Columbia University, New York City.

Thomas D. Wood: Mr. President, members of the Assembly: You have received the printed copy of our committee report. I hope that you will all read it; I do not intend to take the time to read it to you now. (He then gave the report of the committee.)

A motion was made to adopt the report as read.

President Owen: You have heard the motion that the report of this committee be adopted. Is there a second? (Motion seconded and carried.)

From the floor: May I ask if it is necessary that all members of the Rules Committee should be members of this body here?

President Owen: I am going to rule that everybody must be a delegate. That is my ruling, and if you don't like that, direct the chair otherwise.

Motion made for adjournment of Tuesday morning session seconded and carried.

SECOND BUSINESS SESSION

THURSDAY FORENOON, JULY 5, 1923

Second business session—The second business session of the Representative Assembly was held in the theater of the Oakland Civic Auditorium on Thursday forenoon, July 5, beginning at nine o'clock.

President Owen: The meeting will please come to order. Now this morning we have a crowded program and I am going to ask each speaker to limit himself to ten or fifteen minutes at the outside, if he can possibly do it.

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The first speaker brings to us a report of a very important investigation carried on in a field that does not affect many of us directly, so far as the elementary school is concerned; yet it is a field which in the higher levels of our educational life is of great significance. I have great pleasure in introducing to you Dean Andrew F. West, of Princeton University, who will give us an insight into the Classical Investigation.

Dean West: President Owen, ladies and gentlemen: Ten minutes is time enough for anything I have to say. I shall not give you any rhetorical fireworks, but simply speak a few facts, although yesterday might be an excuse even for a professor of Latin to shoot off a few Roman candles! (He then delivered the excellent address which will be printed in the Proceedings.)

President Owen: The next presentation is out of the usual order. There is a great body of people who come in contact with us schoolmen at many points, and who may be looked upon as just troublesome talesmen or as real helpers in our work. Now Mr. Holmes has a big responsibility in coming before us. (Mr. Holmes then delivered an address, which will appear in the printed Proceedings of the meeting.)

President Owen: The chair will call on President Sims, of Wisconsin, to present the report of the Committee on Rural Education.

Mr. Sims: (After presenting the report which is printed in pamphlet form, he moved its adoption. The motion passed by a unanimous vote.)

President Owen: The next report is that of the Committee on Tenure, which will be given by Mrs. Emma L. Dacre, of the San Francisco public schools. (In introducing Mrs. Dacre, the President referred to her part in the success of the local arrangements for the meeting.)

Mrs. Dacre: I thank Mr. Owen for his remarks, but I never could have succeeded unless I had had the organization back of me in San Francisco, the San Francisco Grade Teachers' Association, the High School Teachers' Association, and the San Francisco Principals' Association. We all worked in harmony. (Following the presentation of the report, which is printed in pamphlet form, a motion was passed for its adoption.)

President Owen: We now have a full Representative Assembly and with your consent, the chair will introduce the chairman of the Legislative Commission, Dr. George D. Strayer, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.

Dr. Strayer: Before I make the brief report which I have to present for the Commission, I should like to acknowledge the splendid service to the Association in support of the work of the Legislative Commission that has been rendered by your field secretaries. The commission can meet from time to time and can serve you in the direction of the policies of the Association; but the actual hard work, day in and day out, twenty-four hours in the day, and all of the days in the month and in the year, is done by Miss Charl Williams and Dr. Engleman. (He then read the report and moved its adoption.)

Miss Hoffman, of Honolulu: I would like to second the motion. I wonder if I may at the same time beg that this commission add, "and Territories" to "the States" in every case.

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President Owen: With that interpretation of the motion, the question is open for discussion. Of course this change will be embodied in the report in its final form. (The President announced that the motion carried by a unanimous vote.)

President Owen: We will now have the report of the Committee on Pensions, which will be presented by Miss Mary McSkimmon, of Massachusetts. (After presenting the report Miss McSkimmon made a motion for its adoption.)

Mrs. Harding, of Illinois: I rise on a point of information. Will the adoption of this report place the National Education Association on record as endorsing Federal aid for pensions?

President Owen: The chair rules not. The report recommends that one of the points of investigation might be that point, but no pronouncement was made as to our opinion, or no conclusion was drawn.

Mr. Thayer, of Colorado Springs: I rise for a point of information. I am probably out of order, but it seems to me that the obvious and the appropriate thing for us to consider would be the economic possibility of an old-age pension for all and not for teachers exclusively.

President Owen: The chair will rule that if this idea is to be embodied in the report, it will have to be in the form of an amendment.

Mr. Thayer: I move to add to the resolution, then, that this committee shall at least consider the advisability of a recommendation dealing with old-age pensions generally, an investigation along these lines. (Seconded.)

Dr. Winship, of Massachusetts: I move that the motion be deferred until tomorrow.

President Owen: To defer the amendment will defer the whole report. (Motion seconded, but lost.)

President Owen: The question now is on the amendment.

Mr. Marshall, of West Virginia: Every once in a while an action of this same kind comes up. I think it is well enough to hoe corn in your own field.

Mr. Thayer: I realize it may seem a little grotesque to go outside our own field; but it is the disease of educators that they can never go out of their own field.

Mr. Moore, of California: I can agree entirely with what the gentleman has just said, but I would like to say I believe personally in old-age pensions and would like to see it put over. But the thing to do is to go ahead and do this for the teachers, and then the work that is done will be available for all the people.

Mr. Galloway, of Iowa: I am absolutely and utterly opposed to any attempt to take on too much territory. When we attempt to assume the functions of government, of the United States Government, we are going too far.

President Owen: We have before us the issue; are you ready to vote? (Motion lost.)

President Owen: Now the vote is on the original motion, the adoption of the report. (Motion carried.)

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We will next have the report of the Committee on Coördination of Research Agencies, by Jesse H. Newlon, superintendent of schools, Denver, Colorado. (After presenting the report Mr. Newlon moved its adoption.)

Miss Blake, of New York: In what way should the Commission be increased?

President Owen: The method in the long run is very simple, because the personnel of these committees are reappointed each year by the incoming president, and the chairman; then the personnel can be decided. (Motion carried to adopt report.)

Next is the report of the Committee on Thrift, a committee that has been working for some years, and I am sure has accomplished a great deal. It will be presented by the chairman, Arthur H. Chamberlain, of San Francisco, secretary of the California State Teachers' Association.

Mr. Chamberlain: It will be unnecessary to tell the California delegation what the others might not understand, that anything embodied in this report relating to thrift or economy is in no way in line with a type of economy which a certain governor of a certain illustrious State is proposing. (After giving the report, which is printed in pamphlet form, Mr. Chamberlain moved its adoption. The motion was passed.)

President Owen: I have the pleasure of presenting one of our field secretaries, the former distinguished president of the National Education Association, Miss Charl Ormond Williams. (After Miss Williams had presented her report, President Owen stated that "this is a report that does not require action. It is a report of one of our officers.")

The next report is that of another field secretary. We have added another since a year ago. I want to say that one of the difficult things the Executive Committee had to decide when we were confronted with the work of the year was whether we could really afford to go to the length of putting two field secretaries at work. But the fact was that our efforts at Washington need the constant, genuine leadership that was recorded in that report that was just read. I have great pleasure in introducing to you Dr. J. O. Engleman, field secretary of the National Education Association. (Mr. Engleman then gave his report, which, like the one by Miss Williams, received generous applause.)

President Owen: We will hear now the report of the Illiteracy Commission, which was to have been presented yesterday. Mrs. Cora Wilson Stewart, chairman of the Illiteracy Commission. (Written report read by the chairman, who moved its adoption. Motion seconded and carried.)

President Owen: Any new business?

From the balcony: Mr. President and members of the National Education Association: When you asked for a vote on the report of the Legislative Commission, I voted *No,* and you announced a unanimous vote in favor of the report. When I realized that you had not noticed my vote, or else ignored it, I repeated it, and you said I was too late. What I wish to state is that the adoption of the report was not unanimous.

President Owen: Do you refer to that vote on the report of the Legislative Commission which was presented? The chair asked for those in favor, and he heard a volume of approval. He asked for those opposed, and heard

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nothing, so he announced the ruling. Afterwards somebody said, "*No.*" The lady, who is a member of the National Education Association, says that she tried to make the chair hear, and even implies that the chair was not anxious to hear, for which we will forgive her. Then I will go on to say that she is not a member of the Legislative Assembly, and not a delegate, and while she has the privilege of expressing her opinion, she has no vote, hence, the action of the Representative Assembly stands unanimous.

Is there anything before us? If not, the Assembly is adjourned to meet Friday morning at 9.00 o'clock.

THIRD BUSINESS SESSION

FRIDAY FORENOON, JULY 6, 1923

Third business session—The third business session of the Representative Assembly was held in the theater of the Oakland Civic Auditorium on Friday forenoon, July 6.

Meeting called to order at nine o'clock by President Owen, who because of the number coming into the room, and while waiting for the distribution of reports, suggested that the Assembly recess for fifteen minutes.

President Owen (promptly at 9.15): We will listen to the report of the Committee to Coöperate with the American Legion, to be presented by J. M. Gwinn, superintendent of schools, San Francisco. (Reading of report by Mr. Gwinn.)

After Mr. Gwinn had presented the report, which was then handed to the secretary, Mr. Sims, of Wisconsin, moved the adoption of the report, which was seconded and carried.

President Owen (after making an announcement about the commercial exhibits and calling attention to their great values): We will now hear the report of the Board of Trustees, by Walter R. Siders, superintendent of schools, Pocatello, Idaho, who is chairman of the board.

Walter R. Siders: It is my understanding that the report of the trustees is in your hands. To expedite business, will you pick up that report and turn to the first page? There you will find some introductory remarks by the trustees, which point out the three funds of the Association.

(He then explained in detail the points in the report which might not be fully understood by reading the report. He called attention to the fact that the headquarters building purchased for $98,000 could now be sold for $150,000.)

President Owen: Does any one want to discuss this report? (After the presentation of the report, which will appear in the printed Proceedings, Mr. Bunker, of Hawaii, moved its adoption. The motion was seconded, and carried.) We will now listen to the report of the Treasurer, Miss Cornelia Adair, of Richmond, Virginia.

Miss Adair: You hold the report in your hands. I am going to ask you to turn to page four, which is the formal report of the treasurer. I am not going to read the figures, but I am going to ask you to turn to page seven,

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where a summary has been given. (She explained items in the report and made recommendations.)

Mr. Smith, of Tennessee, moved the adoption of the Treasurer's report. The motion was seconded and carried.

President Owen: Now there is a recommendation from the Treasurer that is also in essence a report of the Committee on Payment of Delegates' Expenses, of which committee Miss Adair is chairman. If there is no objection, I will ask Mr. Adair to present that recommendation at this time.

Miss Adair: I had very much hoped that we could have this report yesterday morning, but circumstances prevented. This is a matter that has been before our organization ever since the reorganization at Salt Lake City. Will you please look at your folder and get to the report of Financing Delegates? I move the adoption of this report. (Motion seconded.)

President Owen: Any discussion?

Mr. Welty, of Oakland: May I ask a question? As the calculation produces the sum of $20,000 and we are only approving an expenditure of $10,000, would that not mean that only half of the expenses above fifty dollars would be paid? (Answered in the affirmative by Miss Adair.)

Mr. Bunker, of Hawaii: In the first sentence of the second paragraph it mentions "State delegates." I merely rise to ask for information. Does that term include delegates from the Territory of Hawaii and from Alaska as well? (Answered in the affirmative by President Owen.)

Delegate from Ohio (representing the Cincinnati School Masters' Club): Is it not true that our income now is just about equal to the expenses; that is, providing for these investigations that the National Education Association is conducting? Is that not a fact? I represent the Cincinnati School Masters' Club. It is an organization of 300 men in Cincinnati. Feeling that was the case, they instructed me to vote against any payment of expenses for delegates, believing that this fund of the National Education Association ought to be reserved for these investigations and studies and research work.

Following an explanation by Miss Adair there was prolonged discussion, mainly in favor of the recommendation. Among those who took part in the discussion were: Miss Jones, of New York; Miss Gardner, of Wisconsin; Mr. Kelley, of Pennsylvania; Mr. Galloway, of Iowa; Miss Wade, of California; Mr. Bunker, of Hawaii; Miss Peterson, of Ohio; and others.

Mr. Bandman, from Alabama: How can they recommend that the National Education Association pay all railroad and Pullman expenses above $50 and that only $10,000 be set aside?

Miss Adair: The amount is to be provided proportionately.

President Owen: With that understanding, are you ready for the question? (Motion carried.)

Miss Adair: On the first page of the present report, you will find a suggestion by the Treasurer, that we set up a reserve fund to carry ourselves over the summer time, but I understand that will be cared for in the budget.

Miss Doherty, of St. Paul: I think the chair did not hear the negative on that last motion.

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President Owen: I am reminded that I did not take the negative vote, so we will take both again. (Vote retaken and the motion carried.)

Miss Doherty: I think in fairness to the members of this Cincinnati School Masters' Club, they should have a chance to register their vote on the floor of this house. I don't agree with them, but there has been general criticism all around me because they didn't have an opportunity to register their vote. If this is going to be a Representative Assembly, I maintain the members of this club in Cincinnati should have a right to register their opposition.

President Owen: The chair agrees with Miss Doherty, and has proved his agreement, and the motion is carried. Now the report of the Executive Committee will be presented by Mr. Siders.

Mr. Siders: This report is in your hands for comparison, while I read it. (Reads report as printed and gives explanations.) At the right time, the Executive Committee will offer a few amendments. I move the adoption of this report. (Question about a discrepancy in the figures, which proved to be an error on the part of the printer. Corrected by chairman.)

Miss Partridge, of Berkeley: Why is the money for the Health Program, and also Illiteracy, limited to the extent of money for carrying out the printing of reports, when the other committees have no limitation?

President Owen: The facts of the case are that last year this Committee on Health Problems asked for $1,500 extra in order to prepare a report, which would be essentially a course of study in health for the schools. We felt that in coming before this body at this time it should be recognized that this was for the printing of the report. The same also concerning the report of the Illiteracy Commission.

Mr. Walker, of Missouri: On page three of this report, under the budget for special committees, we note that the Committee on Rural Education had an appropriation of $800 last year, and that has been reduced to $150. Will Mr. Siders explain this reduction? (It was explained that the committee asked for this amount.)

President Owen: If you will trust the Executive Committee on that, we will remedy the errors made by the printer. The significant figures are the appropriation for committees. (Motion to adopt the report seconded and carried.)

President Owen: We will now have the report of the Committee to Cooperate with American School Citizenship League, by the chairman, Mrs. Fannie Fern Andrews, of Boston. This report was deferred from yesterday.

Mrs. Andrews: Mr. President, Delegates of the National Education Association: I am very sorry I could not have made this report when it ought to have been made. Mixing it in with finances, it may seem rather out of place, but I think we can concentrate on a new subject for a few minutes. (She then read the report.)

Mr. Newman: Does the adoption of this report imply the adoption of the resolutions? The idea seems to be that history should be taught from the world point of view.

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Dr. Smith, of Massachusetts: (After a short discussion of the report) I move that the report be referred to the Resolutions Committee of this Association, of 1924, for report at that meeting.

Mrs. Andrews: I rise to correct Dr. Smith's statement that the first function in the teaching of geography and history as stated in this report, is to do what he says. It distinctly says that it shall include the teaching of such matters not that its first function is that.

President Owen: Was it the intent of the motion to have the Secretary take out that part of the report and put it in the hands of the Resolutions Committee next year, and vote on the rest?

Dr. Smith: It was the intention of my motion that the entire report be put into the hands of the committee.

Miss Blake, of New York: That means we would take no action on this question for next year. It seems for us to retire from any action on this matter is very disastrous.

Mr. Cort, of New York: I understand the chairman of the committee itself has expressed satisfaction with our holding this matter over so as to consider it more carefully. (A vote was then taken, and as a division was called another vote was taken. The result of a rising vote showed 224 in favor of referring the report to the Resolutions Committee; 182 against.)

President Owen: The chair took the right—and it was a great pleasure—of extending to Mr. Sawayanagi, president of the Japanese Imperial Education Association, an invitation to appear before this body and to extend to us the greetings which he desires to extend from his Association.

With your permission, at this point the chair will recognize and introduce to this audience Mr. Sawayanagi, president of the Japanese Education Association, and a member of the House of Peers of the Japanese Parliament.

Mr. Sawayanagi then delivered a most excellent address. He was greeted with applause on taking the platform and with great applause as he closed his address with these words:

"I understand the United States of America is a land of freedom and democracy. I hope the United States of America will become the land of internationalism, where there are no traces of racial prejudices, where only justice and humanity reign. I think this object can be achieved by the educators rather than by the statesman. I thank you."

President Owen: It is a great pleasure to me personally and an honor officially to present to this audience the man who has carried the burden of this great and significant World Conference on Education, out of which has been born, as was said a moment ago by our distinguished visitor, this International Federation of Education Associations.

I have the pleasure of presenting the chairman of our own Committee on Foreign Relations, and the newly elected president of the International Federation of Education Associations, Dr. Augustus O. Thomas, State superintendent of schools, of Maine.

Augustus O. Thomas: It is very difficult to attempt in ten minutes to give a report of the Proceedings of the World Conference on Education,

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which was called by the National Education Association. The United States has, through the Association, extended the hand of friendship and good-will to the nations of the earth, and the warmth and genuineness with which that hand was accepted has been most remarkable.

(As Dr. Thomas continued his address it was evident from the interest and applause that the ideals of the World Conference on Education made a strong appeal to the membership of the Association.)

(At the close of the address:) Our Committee on Foreign Relations recommends that the National Education Association of the United States become a member of this new organization. (Motion seconded and carried.)

President Owen: This carries with it the approval of this last proposition that we become a member of this Association. The details, I suppose we will get to in time, and we will have our own chairman to keep us right.

Miss Blake: Will it be in order now to add to our motion of approval, a motion of profound thanks to the chairman of that committee for the very wonderful work that he has done? (Motion seconded and unanimously carried.)

Augustus O. Thomas: I thank you for the motion, but I need no thanks. I would rather thank you for the opportunity. This could not have been carried through without the authority and coöperation of Dr. Owen and Secretary Crabtree and the committee who have helped so wonderfully and have been sympathetic with all of it.

Secretary Crabtree: The amendments proposed for consideration at this time are on page eight of the Official Manual. I take it that any one who desires to have an amendment considered will call attention to it and that you will not want me to read all these amendments, since they are printed in your manual.

President Owen: The first amendment was presented by Mr. Springer, of Michigan. I received a telegram from him this morning asking that it be deferred until next year. If there is no objection, that action will be taken. The next amendment was proposed by Mr. Stapleton, of Minnesota. It is essentially an interpretation of what was the intent of our by-laws.

Miss Blake: Am I right in thinking that that does not in any way limit the affiliated associations, but it means that I as a member can vote in my affiliated association, whichever one of the half dozen I belong to that I choose, and may also vote in the Association?

President Owen: That is the interpretation. An individual member of the National Education Association, if this were passed, could vote for a delegate to this Association in this way. They could vote in one affiliated local association only, then could also vote in the affiliated State association.

(Motion made, seconded and carried for the adoption of this amendment.)

President Owen: The next is an amendment presented by Miss Blake, of New York.

Miss Blake: (After discussion from the floor.) I think I had better withdraw my motion and ask to have this laid over until next year.

President Owen: The request is granted.

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The next amendment is given, but there is no statement of what section is taken. Is there a motion on that paragraph? If not, we will pass to the next. (Motion by Miss Blake to adopt that amendment.)

President Owen: What that does is this: It takes out of this Representative Assembly the State superintendents of public instruction.

Miss Gardner, of Wisconsin: This amendment was presented by the State Superintendent of Wisconsin at the request of the classroom teachers of Wisconsin, and we feel that it is a just amendment. But on account of the local situation in California, I feel that it would be better to have action postponed.

Miss Blake: I didn't know it would take him out when I made my motion.

Will C. Wood, State superintendent of schools, California: I appreciate what Miss Gardner has to say in regard to the local situation. While I appreciate the kindly sentiments very much, I feel that if the resolution is right it should be adopted.

Miss Gardner: I move that the amendment be laid on the table. (Motion seconded and carried.)

Mr. Siders: (Having been called upon by the chair to present an amendment recommended by the Executive Committee.) This amendment is to clear up some question about the Association year. It recommends that Section 7, Article 1, of the By-Laws be changed and amended to read as follows: (Reads and moves the adoption of the amendment.)

President Owen: The point is this, that these two amendments have not been presented before the Association previously, and would have to be adopted at this time, if adopted at all, by unanimous consent. The motion is to adopt the first amendment presented.

Mr. Cort, of New York: Would it not be better to have the definition of the membership year precede that statement, because it speaks of the requirement that members shall pay on or before November 1. That means between what date? How far back from November first? It seems to me it would be well first to define the membership year, then go on to the rest.

President Owen: This is a good suggestion, and if there is no objection we will present the second amendment first and we will ask the chairman to read it. (Chairman Siders reads as directed.)

Mr. Minkel, from Iowa: I am entirely in sympathy with the resolution, which would make the fiscal year run from September 1 to September 1, but I am altogether opposed to that part of the resolution which would make the magazine year run from November 1 to November 1. The thing we want to do is to bring the fiscal year and the magazine year both in accord with the fiscal year and the magazine year of nearly all our State associations, so that a member can budget her allowance for National, State, and district meetings.

Mr. Fred Hunter, of Oakland: I fear that Director Minkel, of Iowa, misunderstands the purpose of this whole proposition. I can speak upon this question both as a member of this committee, and as a delegate from California. I think it is the biggest obstacle that has stood in the way of our membership drive in California. These amendments will clear up that mis-

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understanding. Consequently, it is of the highest importance that this be the action at this time, because the resources of the Association are endangered unless these amendments do pass, Mr. President, with unanimous consent.

Miss Matthews, of Milwaukee: Milwaukee would have had a far larger membership if it had not been for the confusion which we have had and which Mr. Hunter has just explained.

Mr. Hunting, of Nevada: Our membership is in great confusion today and there is a good deal of friction and dissatisfaction. I think it most important to pass the amendment.

Mr. Hunter: The director from Iowa and the Executive Committee are aiming at exactly the same thing. The Board of Directors, or the Executive Committee, in considering this amendment, Mr. President, went into the machinery of the thing very thoroughly. The amendments as proposed will do exactly what Director Minkel wants done. May I plead again that we have unanimous consent to put this in operation next year? (Motion which had been made was seconded and unanimously carried.)

President Owen: Now let's go to Section 7, Article 1. (Mr. Siders reads the proposed amendment.)

The effect of that is to give every member a reasonable time to decide whether to renew his membership, but it obviates sending out magazines to a lot of people who don't care whether they receive them or not. (Motion to adopt this amendment seconded, and voted upon, but vote not announced.)

Mr. Minkel: I want to introduce an amendment to change that date from November 1 to September 1.

President Owen: That is out of order; we are taking a vote. But we all want to hear this thing, and if you will let me, I will ignore that we started to take the vote, until we get this clear.

Mr. Minkel: I introduced that as an amendment to the resolution. If you say I am in order, I move we amend the date from November 1 to September 1. (Motion seconded and voted upon and declared lost.)

Mr. Reed, of Akron, Ohio: I have an amendment, which, as far as age and respectability go, should have been given precedence over all these others. It might be a Native Son, it is so old——

Mr. Hunter: I again appeal and say it is the most important thing for the resources of this Association that has yet come before us. Let me say to you, Mr. President, that the welfare of this Association is at stake, and it seems to me that there ought to be a waiving of the small technicalities which have been brought up here to prevent this thing from becoming operative in the Association. I cannot move a reconsideration; I voted for the amendment.

Mr. Cort: I move a reconsideration. (Motion seconded and carried.)

Mr. Hunter: May I ask Mr. Cort to take this into consideration? We have, or have had, a plan of organization to date that has resulted in great confusion. The Executive Committee has thought out a plan which they think will relieve that confusion.

Miss John, of Ohio: It seems so simple to me that I would like to state what I understand it means. I think it means that the dues are due on the first

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of September, to be paid in advance for the coming year, which will continue until the coming 31st of August. The bill is due on the first of September, and we are allowed sixty days' grace in which to pay. That is a sort of business arrangement that enables those who cannot spare the two dollars membership on the first of September, because they have earned no money for three months, to pay. They can save that much in two months and pay!

President Owen: The motion is on the reconsideration of the vote on the amendment, which was lost. Are you ready to vote on the reconsideration? (Motion carried.)

(Motion then taken on amendment, which was unanimously carried.)

President Owen: It is now time to introduce amendments to the By-Laws to lie on the table for a year. The chair recognizes Mr. Reed, of Akron, Ohio.

Mr. Reed: Mr. President, this is not a new amendment. Two years ago at the Des Moines meeting, the Ohio delegation introduced an amendment to the By-Laws providing for the nomination of the officers of this Association from the floor of the Assembly, and a vote by ballot, along the same lines as the Department of Superintendence has adopted.

This was presented at the Des Moines meeting, was allowed to lie over for one year. Last year it was represented at the Boston meeting and was laid on the table. Therefore, it is a legitimate item of business for this meeting. We have had copies of this amendment struck off and I think the most of you have a copy of it in your hands.

At this time I should like to read a resolution passed by the Ohio State Teachers' Association, numbering 20,000 members, in their Representative Assembly. (Reads report.) Mr. President, I move that this amendment be taken from the table. (Motion seconded and carried.)

From the floor: Pardon the suggestion, Mr. President, but you have a little habit of calling for the Ayes, and stating that the motion is carried, without due consideration of the opposition.

President Owen: Aristotle once said that one swallow doesn't make a spring. I did that one time, but I took the vote again. We will take this one again. (Recount; motion carried.) This amendment is before the house now for adoption.

Mr. Reed: We are a working body, Mr. President, of about 700 or 800 delegates, and I see no reason why we should not proceed with the election of our officers, which is perhaps the most important business we have, after this fashion; the Department of Superintendence, after trying various means, has adopted a plan which is substantially this. I should like to recommend that this organization do the same. I move the adoption of this amendment.

Mr. Walker, of Missouri: I move to amend this resolution by referring the action of this body of delegates to the members in our various States for final action. The folks back home have a right to say who shall be president of this organization.

Miss Menzel: I would like to offer an amendment to that amendment. In the place of the words beginning in the sixth line, "On the first day of the annual meeting of the Association, the delegates of each State, territory

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and district of the United States shall nominate one person for the Board of Directors"—I should like to amend that, substituting for what I have just read that "the State directors of each State, territory and district of the United States be elected by the respective State association."

President Owen: The chair will rule that this amendment is out of order. This is a body created by charter of the United States, and the Board of Directors is elected by this whole body. The most that Miss Menzel could accomplish in this way would be to have a nomination come up in that way.

Miss Menzel: Then I would like to know just how to proceed. What would be the legal procedure, then, for having it arranged in that way?

President Owen: This Association is by power and act of Congress in the control of this Representative Assembly and these are directors of the National Education Association from the States; but no State association or part of this body can elect a director of this body. The most you could do would be to have them nominated by the State associations, and the delegates directed to nominate that person.

Mr. Welty, of Oakland: I would just like to point out the effect of locality on such an election. California, at the first meeting of this Assembly, had 106 delegates. If I remember rightly, the largest number from any other State was 54. California had twice as many as any other. That would mean that the locality in which the National Education Association was held would have much more than a democratic influence on the election.

Mr. Berg, of North Dakota: It seems that the method under which we have proceeded in the past is more democratic and much more efficient and democratic than the proposed plan would be.

Mr. Smith, of Tennessee: It seems to me that we must remember that the smaller States never have an opportunity of having this Assembly meet in their States. They have to go to the larger States, where there are great numbers of delegates. As it now stands, every State has a vote, which, it seems to me, is as it should be. Tennessee has just as large a vote as New York or California, and we ought to keep it that way. it seems more democratic and I don't see how we can improve on it.

Mr. Hunter: The supreme thing in this whole argument is this question of professional solidarity and the effective working power of this National Association. This is a movement in that direction; it is a statement to the public that we have confidence in the rank and file of the teaching profession.

Mr. Will C. Wood, of California: I didn't have opportunity to study this matter. It was laid on the table last meeting. I am convinced that this means not democracy but "local-ocracy." I move that this be laid upon the table. (Motion seconded and passed.)

Mr. Moore: I rise to a point of information. I would like to know when this amendment which was taken off the table was again laid on the table.

President Owen: When they laid the amendment on the table.

Mr. Moore: They laid on the table the amendment to amend.

President Owen: When you lay an amendment to a motion on the table, you lay the whole thing on the table. I would like to say if you don't like

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that ruling the chair will be glad to have an appeal to the body, because it is a difficult point. I think we ought to know what we are doing.

Mr. Reed: I appeal from that ruling.

President Owen: All in favor of sustaining the ruling of the chair, say Aye. (Motion carried.) It is all on the table now.

The next is unfinished business. If there is none, the next is new business. The chair is not trying to do anything but trying to get our business done as expeditiously as possibly.

Miss Blake: I don't know how the members feel about not having any yearbook. I realize perfectly that it is impossible to print a yearbook with the names of all the members. It would be as big as the unabridged dictionary, and perhaps as a two-volume dictionary. Could the secretary give us any idea how many five-dollar members there are? (Secretary answered 12,000.) I would like to move that the names of all five-dollar memberships, with their institutions and their work and their addresses, be printed in a yearbook to be given to five dollar members, and to be sold to the others for three dollars. (Motion seconded, voted, and lost.)

President Owen: The next is the report of the Committee on Necrology.

Secretary Crabtree: The chairman, Mr. Ernest L. Crandall, had to leave at this moment in order to catch his train, and asked me to read this brief report. (Read.) I move the adoption of this report, which provides for a report of this committee on the program at the next annual meeting of the Association. (Seconded and carried.)

President Owen: The chair recognizes the chairman of the Committee on Resolutions, Dr. Payson Smith, State commissioner of education, Massachusetts. (Reading of resolutions by chairman. Motion for adoption of report seconded and carried.)

Delegate from Hawaii: I rise for a point of information, to know whether the Federal aid for the territories is safeguarded. Would it be possible to add "and territories" after "States"?

Chairman Smith: It was believed the action already taken had practically embodied that. The committee would not object if the delegates desire to have the insertion of those words.

President Owen: We have passed on that. The interpretation of the chairman is that the meaning is there, and he suggests he would be willing to put in those words.

Delegate from Hawaii: May I offer an amendment, that in the first article the words "to the States and territories" be included after "Federal aid"? (Motion seconded and carried.)

President Owen: The chair thought it best to allow the motion. The question now is on the adoption of the resolutions. (Motion seconded and carried.)

We will now hear the report of the Committee on Nominations, presented by the chairman, Jesse H. Newlon, superintendent of schools, Denver, Colorado.

Jesse H. Newlon: The Committee on Nominations has voted unanimously upon the following names of officers of the National Education Association

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for the next year: (Reads report and moves its adoption. The motion was seconded and carried.)

President Owen: We have just a moment or two. First, the President of the Association wants the privilege of introducing to this audience the new President of the National Education Association, Miss Olive M. Jones, of New York.

Miss Jones: Friends of the National Education Association, it is late and I am not going to make a speech. But I did want to answer publicly one question that has been given to me innumerable times in the last two days. That is, what is going to be my policy as President of the National Education Association.

I want to declare in most unmistakable terms that I object to having any individual policy. I am not an individual. I am the executive to carry out the program of the National Education Association as expressed by the vote of this delegate body. That is what I hope to do. It is what I want your loyal support to do. I will promise you that I will try to make it take shape in the form of concrete suggestions and concrete action, and not mere words. I ask your loyal support, and with that and the guidance of God, I will give you loyal service.

President Owen: It has been a great pleasure to act as your President during the year. It is a great honor, the greatest honor that can come to any school teacher, I think, in America, officially to serve as a President of the National Education Association.

I want to thank you for the wonderful coöperation we have had from you during this week, and to assure you that to the best of my ability I shall continue the policy of trying to be a loyal member of the National Education Association.

Mr. Cort: I should like to move a rising vote of thanks to our able retiring President. (All standing.) The vote is unanimous.

President Owen: The Sixty-first Annual Session of the National Education Association has come to a close and is adjourned *sine die.*

WILLIAM B. OWEN,
President.

J. W. CRABTREE,
Secretary.

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REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON RESOLUTIONS OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION[1]

PAYSON SMITH, STATE COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION
BOSTON, MASSACHUSETTS, CHAIRMAN

The education bill—We reaffirm our sincere, devoted, and unqualified support of Federal aid and Federal recognition for public education without Federal interference in any way with State and local control as embodied in the Towner-Sterling Bill. We believe that National leadership in education and the efficient administration of the educational activities of the Federal Government demand the creation of a Department of Education with a Secretary in the Cabinet of the President. We know that the aid furnished to the States and territories by the Federal government has been a most important feature in the development of their school systems. The deficiencies now existing in our system of public education will be most effectively and rapidly removed by providing Federal aid for the removal of illiteracy, for the Americanization of the foreign-born, for the development of a more adequate program of health service, for the training of teachers, and for the equalization of educational opportunity as provided in the Towner-Sterling Bill.

No backward steps—We affirm our faith and confidence that the American people will not be misled by the erroneous conclusions of those representing the Carnegie Foundation with reference to the cost of the public schools. Analyzed in the light of the increased attendance in all schools, the longer school year, the varied educational opportunities now offered, and with a view to the changed purchasing value of the dollar, the costs of public education are not excessive. The investment which is being made in the education of each child as reflected in per capita costs, is inconsiderable in comparison with the important civic, economic, and social returns that are expected from that investment.

We believe that in expenditures for public education, as for all other public enterprises, every effort should be made to yield one hundred cents of value for every dollar spent. The Association does stand, however, emphatically for the proposition that the only safe course for the protection of the political, industrial, and social welfare of the American people lies in a thorough, adequate, and universal system of public education extended throughout the Nation and available to every prospective citizen of the Republic. We believe that increasingly more children will attend schools. We believe they will attend for longer periods of time. We believe that more attention must be paid to individual capacity, to individual needs,

[1] These resolutions were passed by a unanimous vote of the Representative Assembly, Oakland-San Francisco meeting, July 6, 1923.

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and to potential individual service. We believe, therefore, that more money and not less must be expended for schools. America will not return to the grossly inadequate program of education of a generation ago. This Association invites the forward-looking citizenship of the Nation to repel the insinuation that a great and rich Nation needs to adopt a policy of narrow economy in those matters that affect the Nation's children and through them the Nation's future.

State responsibility—We believe that equalization of educational opportunity for all children can be secured only by the recognition of the principle of a larger responsibility on the part of the State for the adequate financing of education, and further, that along with the adoption of this principle, must come the development of larger units of taxation and administration to replace the local district system.

We believe that the principle that education is a State function is a sound one; that local boards of education are in this sense officers of the State, and that they should be free to determine and administer their own financial budgets, subject to State control but unhampered by municipal authorities.

We believe that justice demands greater study and consideration of the means by which rural education may be improved.

The National Education Association endorses the principle that the public schools of the territories of the United States be given equal recognition with the public schools of the several States.

The status of the teacher—We cannot emphasize too strongly the fundamental importance of improving the status of the teacher if we would improve child service. To provide an adequate supply of well-trained teachers, we must equip and support more and better teacher-training schools and colleges; we must offer salaries adequate to attract high-minded and well-educated youth into the profession; we must insure to them promotion on merit alone as well as permanent tenure while they render satisfactory service; we must remove from them the fear of destitution by adequate retirement annuities and pensions; and we must recognize their right to express their professional opinions and to develop in every proper way personal initiative.

Political sniping—For more than half a century, the National Education Association has advocated sound professional leadership in all educational offices, whether in State, county, city, or district. From long experience, we have had a right to assume universal acceptance of this principle by all who are working for the establishment of good government in the United States. That this principle should be acknowledged in the election of those who are charged with the responsibility of leadership in the office of State Superintendent, or State Commissioner of Education, we hold to be of surpassing importance.

The friends of public education deplore the recent flagrant violation of this principle in the case of the highest educational office in the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania. An educational leader having a record of proved accomplishment, had been invited to assume the responsibility of framing

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for the State a far-reaching and forward-looking program of education. In coöperation with the educational forces of the State, this program was framed and put in force. It was later examined and approved by a commission appointed by the Governor and by a second commission chosen from the National field of educators.

The press and the people of the State expressed in no uncertain manner their intense satisfaction at the record that had been made and at the promise of further accomplishments. This accomplishment of the Legislature of the State assured by the act of its approval in law of every item of the program that had been framed.

In spite of these conditions, the man who had been invited to this leadership and had thus demonstrated to the satisfaction of public, professional, and legislative opinion, his unqualified fitness for that leadership, was offered opportunity of continued service in his office on terms which, if they were not unconstitutional, were so distinctly humiliating that no self-respecting administrator could accept them.

So directly does such an act in a leading State affect education throughout the Nation that this Association believes it must record its disapproval of so unworthy an executive act, while it expresses its satisfaction at the general approval of the citizens of the State of the vigorous and forward-looking educational program that had been inaugurated, and at the professional attitude of the man who in this instance has so worthily stood in Pennsylvania as a representative of the best in educational leadership.

We heartily rejoice that, in this legislative year, governors and legislators have generally given vigorous support to the maintenance and extension of public education. In the few instances in which the legislatures and governors have been responsible for a curtailment of financial support of teacher training and other important activities of education we are convinced that new advances will be made when the people have had an opportunity to act.

Child labor amendment—The National Education Association reaffirming its belief in the vital importance to the children of a law establishing a Federal minimum of protection from premature or excessive employment, favors a Child Labor Amendment to the Constitution authorizing Congress to enact such a law.

Physical education—The National Education Association urges that adequate provision be made for the organization and supervision of courses in physical education and recreation in all elementary, secondary, normal schools, and colleges of this Nation. The purposes of such education include the correction of physical defects and the development of useful bodily and mental habits through socialized recreation.

National capital—We should be able to find in the city of Washington, the capital of the Nation, leadership in matters concerning school administration, supervision, teaching, business management, and for the promulgation of a far-seeing and adequate educational program for city schools.

The schools of the capital city belong to the Nation and for this reason we urge Congress to create a Board of Education for the City of Wash-

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ington, which shall be absolutely free from party control, which shall have entire control of its financial budget, and which shall have an adequate financial income to maintain schools of which the Nation may be proud.

We believe it to be the primary function of the teaching of American history to inculcate in the American people a lasting devotion to America and her institutions. This objective can best be attained by placing before American children in a manner appropriate to various ages an accurate and truthful portrayal of the events that have had a place in the growth and development of the country and her institutions. We believe that it is possible to develop through right history teaching a deep love and lasting respect for America without creating hatreds or animosities toward other Nations of their peoples. We approve that attitude in historical teaching which aims to present actual and truthful pictures of the past and to promote with older pupils the disposition to consider both National and international political, economic, and social problems on the basis of fundamental principle and not primarily on the basis of partisan, sectional or narrowly National self-interest.

World conference on education—We recognize with deep gratification the fine spirit shown and the real contribution made to the cause of better understanding among the Nations by the World Conference on Education held at San Francisco. We believe that we can most surely promote a lasting spirit of good fellowship throughout the world by taking advantage of appropriate opportunities to tell the coming generation of the good qualities and useful achievements of other nations as well as of our own.

Humanity is one. Injury to one nation or race involves injury to all, just as the proper growth of one nation or race carries with it an advantage to all mankind. Mutual coöperation and good will are absolutely necessary to mankind's steady growth in happiness and service.

The plan of the Committee on Foreign Relations for holding further conferences in other lands meets with our hearty endorsement.

We acknowledge the great service rendered to the cause of education by the intelligent and public-spirited reports on our deliberations, published not only by the local press but by many other great papers of our Nation.

We extend our grateful appreciation of the hearty hospitality which has been so generously given to the members of the Association by committees, organizations, and citizens of Oakland, San Francisco, Berkeley, and the vicinity.

Throughout, there has been shown careful foresight and untiring endeavor on the part of innumerable volunteer workers who have magnificently contributed to the success of the sixty-first convention of the Association.

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REPORT OF THE TRUSTEES

FISCAL YEAR JUNE 1, 1922, TO MAY 31, 1923

COVERING THE BOOKS AT THE SECRETARY'S OFFICE, AND INCLUDING A REPORT ON THE PERMANENT FUND

To the Executive Committee, to the Board of Directors, and to the Representative Assembly:

The Board of Trustees herewith submit the Annual Report on the finances and property of the Association.

The report includes the statements of Auditors Marwick, Mitchell & Co., and the report of Erskine Gordon, trust officer of the National Education Association, who handles in trust the permanent fund of the Association.

THE FUNDS OF THE ASSOCIATION

The following reports cover the three funds of the Association, the Permanent Fund, the Regular Fund, and the Revolving Fund. The Permanent Fund is the money which has been put into a reserve fund the income from which goes into the Regular Fund for Current Expenses.

The Permanent Fund now amounts to $200,537.51, made up as follows:

Invested in Securities (par value)	$114,000.00
Life Membership receipts	1,375.00
Real Estate Equity	85,162.51
Cash on hand	$4,162.51
	$200,537.51

The Income from the Permanent Fund is:

Rental of Properties	$11,200.00
Interest from Securities	4,725.00
	$15,925.00

Out of this income is paid amounts necessary for repairs, upkeep, insurance, etc. The balance goes into the Regular Fund for current expenses.

The Regular Fund is the money received for memberships, from sale of volumes and pamphlets, from commercial exhibits, advertising, etc. A complete exhibit of this fund is found in the following pages.

The Revolving Fund consists of fifteen thousand dollars placed in the hands of the Secretary to pay salaries and current bills. The Secretary presents vouchers for the moneys he expends. The Revolving Fund is reimbursed monthly from the General Fund.

The trustees by your direction purchased, during the year, properties at 1537-39 M Street for $15,000, and at 1541-43 M Street for $40,000.

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Owing to overcrowded conditions in the main building, the trustees contemplate remodeling the three buildings recently purchased to provide additional office rooms, and large work rooms for multigraphing and typing. Suitable space will also be provided for store room and supplies. The approximate cost of these repairs and alterations will be $8000. This expenditure will put these properties in first-class condition. We trust this meets with your approval.

The system of records and accounts was revised during the year. This system will enable the Association to go on a budget basis.

The auditors commend the Association on the soundness of its finances and on the efficiency of its business management.

Respectfully submitted,

BOARD OF TRUSTEES

Dr. William B. Owen, President,
National Education Association of the United States,
Washington, D. C.

DEAR SIR:

In accordance with instructions received, we have made an examination of the cash receipts and disbursements of the National Education Association of the United States for the year ended May 31, 1923, and now submit our report thereon.

INCOME AND EXPENSES

The following is a summarized statement of the income and expenses for the period under review, further details being submitted in Exhibit "A."

Income		$258,213.77
Less Expenses:		
Board of Trustees Expenses	$1,562.65	
Executive Committee	4,728.35	
Office of General Secretary	15,143.59	
Home Office	23,935.47	
Institutional Expense	11,164.35	
Special Appropriations	10,625.18	
Division of Records and Accounts	11,731.03	
Division of Field Secretaries	14,854.14	
Division of Business	46,884.34	
Division of Publications	111,539.04	
Division of Research	13,235.28	
Division of Elementary School Service	5,044.50	
		270,447.92
Deficit for the Year (In Regular Fund)		$12,234.15

The operations on Surplus are as follows:

REGULAR FUND

Surplus as at May 31, 1922	$40,868.69
Deduct Deficit for Year ended May 31, 1923	12,234.15
Surplus as at May 31, 1923	$28,634.54

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The total income for the year is $23,795,10 in excess of the prior year, but this is offset by an increase of $74,082.21 in the total expenditures demanded by a greatly enlarged work which required additional furniture and equipment and additional help.

RECEIPTS AND DISBURSEMENTS

The following is a summary of the cash receipts and disbursements of the Treasurer's Account for the year.

Cash Balance as at May 31, 1922				$33,293.87
Receipts:				
Income as per Income and Expense Statement			$258,213.77	
Accounts Receivable as at May 31, 1922		$11,615.69		
Less:				
Accounts Receivable Uncollected as at May 31, 1923	$6,019.75			
Notes Receivable Uncollected as at May 31, 1923	475.00			
		6,494.75		
			5,120.94	
				263,334.71
Disbursements:				
Expenses as per Income and Expense Statement			$270,447.92	
1922 Bills Paid during Current Year			20,807.83	
			$291,255.75	
Less:				
Bills unpaid as at May 31 1923		$12,280.67		
Depreciation Reserve		1,193.90		
			13,474.57	
			$277,781.18	
Furniture and Fixtures Purchased			6,150.75	
				$283,931.93
Cash Balance as at May 31, 1923				$12,696.65
Accounted for as follows:				
Revolving Fund:				
In Bank			$3,074.12	
Transfer from Regular Account, to reimburse Revolving Fund			11,924.22	
On Hand			1.66	
			$15,000.00	
Continental Trust Co., Regular Account, Overdrawn			2,303.35	
				$12,696.65

We examined the cash receipts, and, so far as the system in use permitted, we have satisfied ourselves that all the funds received have been properly accounted for.

Vouchers in support of cash disbursements were examined and found in order, but we noted that a few traveling expense statements had not yet been received by the Treasurer's Office, and a few vouchers were missing.

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ASSETS AND LIABILITIES

The following is a statement of the assets and liabilities as at May 31, 1923, as shown by the books:

ASSETS

Cash:		
Secretary's Fund—In bank, on hand and to be reimbursed from Regular Account		$15,000.00
Regular Account (Overdrawn)		2,303.35
		$12,696.65
Permanent Fund		4,162.51
		$16,859.16
Accounts Receivable		6,019.75
Notes Receivable:		
Life Members	$1,375.00	
Others	475.00	
		1,850.00
Securities at Book Value (Schedule "1")		110,428.80
Real Estate:		
At Cost Price	$98,000.00	
Acquired during Year (Cost)	55,000.00	
	$153,000.00	
Less Mortgages Payable	67,500.00	
		85,500.00
Furniture and Fixtures:		
Expenditures to May 31, 1922	$18,901.19	
Expenditures during Year ended May 31, 1923	6,150.75	
		25,051.94
Old Volumes of Proceedings		500.00
		$246,209.65

LIABILITIES

Accounts Payable	$12,280.67
Reserve for Depreciation on Furniture and Fixtures	3,828.13
Trust Fund—Permanent Investment	201,466.31
Surplus as at May 31, 1923	28,634.54
	$246,209.65

We verified the Secretary's fund partly by count and partly by certificate obtained from the depository. The overdraft on the regular account represents floating checks; we reconciled the Cash Book with the bank statement and verified the balance with the bank as shown by the latter, by certificate obtained from the depository. We also verified the balance in the Permanent Fund by certificate from the depository.

Certain of the accounts receivable appear to us to be doubtful, and we recommend that all the accounts be examined, and that those ascertained to be uncollectable, be charged off.

The notes on hand were examined by us and found in order.

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During the year the Association purchased real estate in M Street, Washington, D. C., at a cost of $55,000, subject to certain mortgages. We inspected the deeds of the real estate owned, and the liability on mortgages has been certified to us by the holders.

We inspected vouchers for the expenditures during the year for furniture and fixtures, and found them to be proper charges to the asset account.

The old volumes of Proceedings are carried on the books at the same arbitrary value of $500. As this stock is being added to each year and as these publications appear to be in demand, the value is probably higher than that shown on the books.

We made a sufficient check to satisfy ourselves that all the liabilities are shown on the books, and in addition obtained a certificate to that effect signed by the Assistant Treasurer.

PERMANENT FUND

We have audited the receipts and disbursements of the Permanent Fund and have inspected the securities in the custody of the trust officer of the Continental Trust Co., Washington, D. C. Details of the securities are given in Schedule " 1," showing par value and cost, the market value not having been ascertained.

The cash on hand in the Permanent Fund at May 31, 1922, was $20.51. Two Los Angeles School District 4½ per cent bonds for $1000 each became due during the year and were paid; $17,000 City of New York 4½ per cent Corporate Stock was sold at 105¼, realizing $17,867, and life memberships were received amounting to $3275, making a total of $23,162.51. Of this amount $2000 was expended in reducing the mortgage on the real estate owned and $17,000 for new property acquired, leaving a cash balance at May 31, 1923, of $4,162.51.

The following statement shows the changes in the Permanent Fund during the year:

Balance as at May 31, 1922			$197,456.51
Added during Year:			
Cash received for Life Membership Fees			3,275.00
Notes accepted for Life Membership Fees			1,375.00
			$202,106.51
Losses Sustained:			
On Sale of New York 4½ per cent Corporate Stock:			
Book Value	$18,320.00		
Sold at 105¼	17,867.00		
Loss		453.00	
On Redemption of Los Angeles School District Bonds:			
Book Value	$2,187.20		
Redeemed at Par	2,000.00		
Loss		187.20	
			640.20
Balance as at May 31, 1923			$201,466.31

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Made up as follows:

Cash	$4,162.51	
Notes Receivable (Life Members)	1,375.00	
Securities	*110,428.80	
Real Estate, less Mortgages	85,500.00	
		$201,466.31

The cash balance has been certified to by the depository.

The income from the investments and the disbursements for the period may be summarized as follows:

Receipts:

Interest from Securities owned (Schedule "1")		$4,725.00
Interest from Securities retired and paid during year		497.63
Rentals received from Real Estate owned		10,524.15
		$15,746.78

Disbursements:

Interest on Mortgages	$2,162.42	
Repairs to Buildings, Etc	787.20	
Expenses re Purchase of Additional Property	552.70	
Trust Officer's Commissions	368.17	
		3,870.49
Surplus transferred to Treasurer's Account		$11,876.29

The receipts were properly accounted for and vouchers were produced in support of the disbursements.

DETAILED STATEMENTS (SCHEDULE I)

SECURITIES ON HAND

(Auditor's Report)

As at May 31, 1923

	Par value	Book value	Income
Municipal and School Bonds:			
Kansas City, Mo., School District 3½% Bonds due 1925—Nos. 3127, 3128, 3129, 3133, 3135, 3136, 3190, 3191, 3192 and 3200	$10,000.00	$9,500.00	$350.00
Clearwater, Kansas, Water Works Bonds 5% due:			
1930	1,000.00	1,000.00	50.00
1931 Nos. 18 to 23	2,000.00	2,000.00	100.00
1932	3,000.00	3,000.00	150.00
Salt Lake City, Utah, Water Bonds 4½% due 1934—Nos. 310 to 319	10,000.00	10,000.00	450.00
Seattle, Washington, School Bonds 4½% due 1931—Nos. 586 to 595	10,000.00	10,266.30	450.00
Railroad Bonds:			
St. Louis & San Francisco R. R. Co. Temporary Prior Lien Mortgage Bonds 4% due 1950—Nos. M56051 to 56055, Y1527	5,250.00	4,331.25	210.00
Carried forward	$41,250.00	$40,097.55	$1,760.00

* Book value (the cost). See Schedule of Securities on Hand.

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Brought forward	$41,250.00	$40,097.55	$1,760.00
St. Louis & San Francisco R. R. Co. Temporary Adjustment Bonds 6% due 1955—Nos. M14552, D845, Y1033	1,750.00	1,443.75	105.00
Terminal R. R. Association of St. Louis, Gen. Ref. Sink. Fund Gold Bonds 4% due 1953—Nos. 16311 to 16325	15,000.00	15,050.00	600.00
Baltimore & Ohio R. R. Co. (Pittsburgh, Lake Erie & West Virginia System) Ref. Gold Bonds 4% due 1941—Nos. 13496 to 13500, 21236 to 21250	20,000.00	19,942.50	800.00
Oregon Short Line R. R. Co. Ref. Gold Bonds 4% due 1929—Nos. 4013 to 4017, 4025 to 4027, 4976, 13810	10,000.00	8,895.00	400.00
Chicago, Indiana & Southern Ry. Co. 4% due 1956—Nos. 11386 to 11394, 13786	10,000.00	9,500.00	400.00
Manhattan Railway Co. Cons. Mtge. Gold Bonds 4% due 1990—Nos. 2843, 6522, 16083, 16087	4,000.00	3,900.00	160.00
Atlantic Coast Line R. R. Co. 1st Cons. Mtge. Bonds 4% due 1952—Nos. 5130, 6494, 11638, 11639, 14335, 14339, 17579, 24601, 37565, 50251	10,000.00	9,600.00	400.00
Corporation Bonds:			
Maine Real Estate Title Company 1st Mtge. Gold 5% due 1932—Nos. 151-152	2,000.00	2,000.00	100.00
Total	$114,000.00	$110,428.80	$4,725.00

INCOME AND EXPENSES (EXHIBIT A)

FOR YEAR ENDED MAY 31, 1923

Income:		
Memberships from Secretary's Office		$89,369.00
Memberships from Annual Conventions:		
Boston Meeting	$4,418.00	
Cleveland Meeting	2,336.00	
		6,754.00
Memberships from Superintendent's Department, less Expenses		4,124.42
Memberships from Elementary School Principal, less Expenses		1,507.74
Subscriptions to N. E. A. Journal (Part of Membership Dues)		77.375.97
Subscriptions—Research Bulletin		893.00
Sales of Proceedings		785.55
Special Reports		574.15
Commercial Exhibits		14,514.72
Advertising		50,033.47
Interest and Di counts Earned		190.56
Net Income Transferred from Permanent Fund		11,876.29
Miscellaneous Income		214.90
Total Income		$258,213.77

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Expenses:			
Board of Trustees—Expenses			$1,562.65
Executive Committee:			
President		$2,708.94	
First Vice-President		527.99	
Treasurer		362.07	
Chairman of Trustees		672.10	
Member by Election		457.25	
			4,728.35
Office of General Secretary:			
Salary of Secretary		$7,500.00	
General Expenses		7,643.59	
			15,143.59
Home Office:			
Postage		$11,975.32	
Telephone and Telegraph		2,844.26	
Stationery and Office Supplies		3,454.69	
Repairs and Depreciation—Office Furniture and Equipment		2,762.76	
Express and Freight		416.28	
Insurance		125.35	
Legal Service		105.00	
Surety Bonds (Premiums)		183.02	
Interest and Discounts Allowed		113.61	
Audit Fees, Etc.		854.72	
Unclassified Expense		497.00	
General Expense		603.46	
			23,935.47
Institutional Expense:			
Oakland-San Francisco Meeting		$750.24	
Boston and Cleveland Meetings:			
Printing—Programs	$2,508.87		
Publicity	2,113.10		
Department Expenses	588.15		
State Directors	734.02		
Registration Bureau	685.03		
Stenographers and Typewriting	226.21		
Printing—Miscellaneous	226.00		
Express and Freight	32.70		
Telephone and Telegraph	120.81		
Miscellaneous	1,657.45		
		8,892.34	
General Publicity		1,521.77	
			11,164.35
Special Appropriations Committees:			
Coordination of Research Agencies		$1,276.68	
Foreign Relations		855.03	
Character and Citizenship		107.58	
Health Education		2,213.74	
Organization of Secondary Education		44.35	
Organization of Elementary Education		536.10	
Standardization of School House Planning and Construction		49.81	
Commission on Reorganization of Elementary Education		45.55	
Carried forward		$5,128.84	$56,534.41

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Brought forward	$5,128.84	$56,534.41
Teachers' Salaries, Tenure, Etc.	472.39	
Illiteracy Commission	1,732.12	
Rural Education	443.21	
Legislative Commission	1,455.27	
Thrift Education	19.50	
Department of Classroom Teachers	1,373.85	
		10,625.18
Division of Records and Accounts:		
General Expense		11,731.03
Division of Field Secretaries:		
Salary and Department Expenses (Mr. Magill)	$2,930.11	
Salary and Department Expenses (Miss Williams)	7,468.18	
Salary and Department Expenses (Mr. Engleman)	4,455.85	
		14,854.14
Division of Business:		
Typing Department	$14,574.31	
Mailing Department	3,352.98	
Multigraphing Department	2,077.51	
Printing—Miscellaneous	3,998.52	
Addressograph Department	3,562.82	
Physical Plant	1,940.94	
Rent, Light, Power and Janitor Service	9,834.96	
General Expense	6,920.21	
Miscellaneous Expense	622.09	
		46,884.34
Division of Publications:		
N. E. A. Journal	$87,048.17	
1922 Volume of Proceedings	13,953.13	
General Expense	9,941.82	
Sundry Publications	472.00	
Reprints	123.92	
		111,539.04
Division of Research:		
General Expense		13,235.28
Division of Elementary School Service:		
General Expense		5,044.50
Total Expenses		$270,447.92
Deficit for the Year		$12,234.15

GENERAL

As instructed, no examination was made of the funds received by the Department of Superintendence, and Elementary School Principals.

We shall be pleased to furnish any further information relative to the accounts that may be desired.

Yours truly,

MARWICK, MITCHELL & Co.

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REPORT OF CONTINENTAL TRUST COMPANY OF WASHINGTON, D. C. TRUSTEE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

For year ended May 31, 1923

PRINCIPAL ACCOUNT

Cash balance on hand as per last account		$20.51
$2000 Los Angeles School District bonds paid		2,000.00
$17,000 Certificates of Corporation stock of the City of New York sold at 105¼—Commission $25.50		17,867.00
Life Membership September 15, 1922	$100.00	
Life Membership October 11, 1922	300.00	
Life Membership October 28, 1922	250.00	
Life Membership December 1, 1922	275.00	
Life Membership January 18, 1923	250.00	
Life Membership January 31, 1923	350.00	
Life Membership February 28, 1923	525.00	
Life Membership April 2, 1923	450.00	
Life Membership April 30, 1923	350.00	
Life Membership May 31, 1923	425.00	
		3,275.00
		$23,162.51
National Savings & Trust Co. on account of loan secured on 1201 Sixteenth St. N. W.	$2,000.00	
Stone & Fairfax:		
Cash payment on 1541-43 M St. N. W.:		
Purchase price $40,000.00		
Subject to trust 28,000.00		
	12,000.00	
Stone & Fairfax:		
Cash payment on 1537-39 M St. N. W.:		
Purchase price $15,000.00		
Subject to trust 10,000.00		
	5,000.00	
		19,000.00
Cash balance on hand May 31, 1923		$4,162.51
Securities on hand:		
10—$1000 4½% Salt Lake City 20 year Water bonds, Series "F" due July 1, 1934, Nos. 310 to 319 inc. Int. payable Jan. 1 and July 1	$10,000.00	
10—$1000 3½% Kansas City, Mo., School District (Co. of Jackson) bonds maturing July 1, 1925, Nos. 3127 to 3129 inc., 3133, 3135, 3136, 3190, 3191, 3192, 3200. Int. payable Jan. 1 and July 1	10,000.00	
15—$1000 4% Terminal R. R. Association of St. Louis, Gen. Mtg. Ref. Sinking Fund bonds maturing Jan. 1, 1953, Nos. 16311 to 16325 inc. Int. payable Jan. 1 and July 1	15,000.00	
5—$1000 4% St. Louis-San Francisco Rwy. Prior Lien Mtg. Series "A" bonds maturing July 1, 1950, Nos. M56051 to 56055 inc. Int. payable Jan. 1 and July 1	5,000.00	
1—$250 Same, No. Y-1527	250.00	
10—$1000 4% Chicago, Indiana & Southern R. R. Co. 50 year bonds of 1906, maturing Jan. 1, 1956, Nos. 11386 to 11394 inc. and 13786. Int. payable Jan. 1 and July 1	10,000.00	
Carried forward	$50,250.00	$4,162.51

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Brought forward	$50,250.00	$4,162.51
1—$1000 5% City of Clearwater Public Utilities Sedgwick Co., Kansas bonds, dated Aug. 1, 1922, No. 18. Int. payable Feb. 1 and Aug. 1, maturing Aug. 1, 1930	1,000.00	
2—$1000 Same, maturing Aug. 1, 1931, Nos. 19 and 20	2,000.00	
3—$1000 Same, maturing Aug. 1, 1932, Nos. 21, 22, 23	3,000.00	
2—$1000 5% Maine Real Estate Title Co. 1st Mtg. bonds maturing Aug. 1, 1932, Nos. 151 and 152. Int. payable Feb. 1 and Aug. 1	2,000.00	
10—$1000 4½% Seattle School Dist. Series 11, maturing March 1, 1931, Nos. 586 to 595 inc. Int. payable March 1 and Sept. 1	10,000.00	
10—$1000 4% Atlantic Coast Line R. R. Co. 1st Cons. Mtg. 50 year bonds maturing July 1, 1952, Nos. 5130, 6494, 11639, 14335, 14339, 17579, 11638, 24601, 37565, 50251. Int. payable March 1 and Sept. 1	10,000.00	
1—$1000 6% St. Louis-San Francisco Rwy. Adj. Mtg. Series "A" bonds maturing July 1, 1955, No. M14552. Int. payable April 1 and Oct. 1	1,000.00	
1—$500 Same, No. D845	500.00	
1—$250 Same, No. Y1053	250.00	
4—$1000 4% Manhattan Rwy. Co. Cons. Mtg. bonds maturing April 1, 1990, Nos. 2043, 6522, 16083 and 16087. Int. payable April 1 and Oct. 1	4,000.00	
20—$1000 4% Baltimore & Ohio R. R. Co. (Pittsburgh, Lake Erie & W. Va. System) Ref. Mtg. maturing 1941, Nos. 13496 to 13500 inc. and 21236 to 21250 inc. Int. payable May 1 and Nov. 1	20,000.00	
10—$1000 4% Oregon Short Line R. R. Co. Ref. 20 year bonds maturing 1929, Nos. 4013 to 4017 inc., 4025 to 4027 inc., 4976 and 13810. Int. payable June 1 and Dec. 1	10,000.00	
		$114,000.00‡
Notes received during year on account of Life Memberships		1,375.00
Total cash and securities		$119,537.51
Real Estate:		
*1201 16th St. N. W., Washington, D. C.	$98,000.00	
Subject to trust	29,500.00	
	$68,500.00	
†1541-43 M St. N. W., Washington, D. C.	$40,000.00	
Subject to trust	28,000.00	
	12,000.00	
†1537-39 M St. N. W., Washington, D. C.	$15,000.00	
Subject to trust	10,000.00	
	5,000.00	
		85,500.00
		$205,037.51

* This property is now worth about $150,000.
† These properties are now worth about $60,000.
‡ This is Par Value. See Schedule of Securities on Hand.

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INCOME ACCOUNT

Income from securities:		
$10,000 Salt Lake City 4½%:		
Interest due July 1, 1922	$225.00	
Interest due January 1, 1923	225.00	
		$450.00
$10,000 School District of Kansas City 3½%:		
Interest due July 1, 1922	$175.00	
Interest due January 1, 1923	175.00	
		350.00
$15,000 Terminal R. R. Assc. of St. Louis 4%:		
Interest due July 1, 1922	$300.00	
Interest due January 1, 1923	300.00	
		600.00
$5250 St. Louis-San Fran. Rwy. 4% Prior Lien:		
Interest due July 1, 1922	$105.00	
Interest due January 1, 1923	105.00	
		210.00
$10,000 Chicago Ind. & Southern R. R. 4%:		
Interest due July 1, 1922	$200.00	
Interest due January 1, 1923	200.00	
		400.00
$2000 Los Angeles Sch. Dist. 4½%:		
Interest due July 1, 1922		45.00
$1000 City of Clearwater Pub. Util. 5%:		
Interest due August 1, 1922	$25.00	
Interest due February 1, 1923	25.00	
		50.00
$2000 City of Clearwater Pub. Util. 5%:		
Interest due August 1, 1922	$50.00	
Interest due February 1, 1923	50.00	
		100.00
$3000 City of Clearwater Pub. Util. 5%:		
Interest due August 1, 1922	$75.00	
Interest due February 1, 1923	75.00	
		150.00
$2000 Maine Real Estate Title Co. 5%:		
Interest due August 1, 1922	$50.00	
Interest due February 1, 1923	50.00	
		100.00
$10,000 Seattle School Dist. 4½%:		
Interest due September 1, 1922	$225.00	
Interest due March 1, 1923	225.00	
		450.00
$10,000 Atlantic Coast Line R. R. 4%:		
Interest due September 1, 1922	$200.00	
Interest due March 1, 1923	200.00	
		400.00
$1750 St. Louis-Fran. R. R. 5%:		
Interest due October 1, 1922	$52.50	
Interest due April 1, 1923	52.50	
		105.00
Carried forward		$3,410.00

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Brought forward		$3,410.00
$4000 Manhattan Rwy. Co. 4%:		
Interest due October 1, 1922	$80.00	
Interest due April 1, 1923	80.00	
		160.00
$20,000 B. & O. R. R. Co. 4%:		
Interest due November 1, 1922	$400.00	
Interest due May 1, 1923	400.00	
		800.00
$10,000 Oregon Short Line R. R. 4%:		
Interest due June 1, 1922	$200.00	
Interest due December 1, 1922	200.00	
		400.00
$17,000 New York City 4½%:		
Interest due November 1, 1922	$382.50	
Interest due to date sold	70.13	
		452.63
		$5,222.63
Income from Real Estate:		
National Education Association:		
Rent 1201 Sixteenth St. N. W.	$10,000.00	
Rents collected from 1537-39-41-43 M St. N. W.	524.15	
	$10,524.15	
Natl. Sav. & Tr. Co., int. on $31,500 to July 1, 1922.	$1,129.92	
Robt. H. Forman, Repairs to Lawn	150.00	
G. G. Lohler, Painting, etc	200.00	
Natl. Sav. & Tr., Insurance	137.20	
G. G. Lohler, Painting	300.00	
Natl. Sav. & Tr. Co., int. on $29,500 to January 1, 1923	1,032.50	
Adjustment of rents, taxes, insurance, costs of title transfers incident to purchase of 1537-39-41-43 M St. N. W.	252.70	
Geo. E. Sullivan, Atty. fee in suit for specific performance to enforce conveyance of 1537-39 M St. N. W.	300.00	
	3,502.32	
		7,021.83
		$12,244.46
Continental Trust Company:		
½% on $119,537.51 par value of cash and securities	$149.42	
*½% on $87,500.00 net value of real estate	218.75	
To National Education Association	11,876.29	
		12,244.46

WASHINGTON, D. C., May 31, 1923.

The foregoing is a correct statement of the funds and accounts of the National Education Association of the United States for the year ended May 31, 1923, as same appear on the books of this company.

CONTINENTAL TRUST COMPANY,
ERSKINE GORDON,
Trust Officer.

* Commission for handling the property at 1201 16th, N. W., is paid on basis of $100,000.

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WASHINGTON, D. C.

To the President of the National Education Association:

We have examined the books and reports of the Board of Trustees of the National Education Association, and certify that, in our opinion, the foregoing statement correctly shows the condition of the permanent funds and the securities in custody of the Continental Trust Company, Washington, D. C.

MARWICK, MITCHELL & Co.

June 19, 1923.

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REPORT OF THE TREASURER

JUNE 1, 1922, TO MAY 31, 1923

To the Executive Committee, Board of Directors, and Delegate Assembly:

Your Treasurer and her assistant wish, while presenting their annual report, to bring out certain features and to make certain recommendations.

During the last two years the National Education Association has passed through a period of phenomenal growth. Our membership has increased from 70,000 in June, 1921, to 125,766 in June, 1923. With the increased membership and revenue has come increased opportunity for service. We have National Headquarters, an executive force, and publications of which any organization might well be proud.

The Association has made great efforts to meet the emergency demands upon it during and since the Great War. It took many financial risks in order to render the maximum of service in those critical years. We believe that the worst is over and that we should now begin to build up a reserve fund to protect us against future emergencies.

The Secretary believes that the creation of a reserve fund should have our immediate consideration. This fund should be used only to tide over months when the income is low or to meet exceptional emergencies. If this is done, no new divisions can be created at the central office for some time. However, the number of divisions has almost doubled in the last year and a half. There can be no increase in the committee allowances, but much of the committee research work may be done through the Research Department. It will not prevent the normal growth of the office organization, but will postpone an increase in the number of divisions.

When the Association was reorganized in Salt Lake City, the question of the payment of some portion of the delegates' expenses had a prominent place in the discussion. Although the committee appointed by President Hunter will make a report, the Treasurer wishes to make the following recommendations:

That a reserve fund of $50,000 be created during the months of greatest income and that $10,000 of that amount be used for the payment of some part of the expenses of the delegates to the Annual Convention, the rest to constitute an emergency or reserve fund.

That the distribution of these funds be in accordance with some plan approved by the Executive Committee.

That the amounts set aside be increased by the delegate Assembly from time to time, as shall be necessary.

The formal report of the Treasurer follows:

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THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

TREASURER'S REPORT

FROM JUNE 1, 1922, TO MAY 31, 1923

Balance brought forward from Treasurer's Report for Year ended May 31, 1922		$23,293.87
Receipts:		
From Annual Meetings		$6,754.00
For Account—Department of Superintendence (Net)		3,323.82
For Account—Department of Elementary School Principals (Net)		2,278.34
From Secretary's office during the year:		
Membership Fees	$89,369.00	
Subscriptions to N. E. A. Journal	77,375.97	
Subscriptions to Research Bulletin	893.00	
Cash Sale of Volumes of Proceedings	1,080.55	
Cash Sale of Special Reports	596.30	
	$169,314.82	
From Income on Permanent Fund	11,876.29	
From Commercial Exhibits (Net)	14,304.22	
From Advertising—N. E. A. Journal (Net)	54,540.96	
From Interest and Discounts Earned	220.56	
From Library Department	97.50	
From Miscellaneous Income (Exchange, etc.)	118.20	
Sundry Income	506.00	
		250,978.55
		$263,334.71
Expenses:		
Board of Trustees—Expenses		$1,562.65
Executive Committee:		
President (Miss Williams)	$673.10	
(Dr. Owen)	2,035.84	
First Vice-President	527.99	
Treasurer	362.07	
Chairman, Board of Trustees	672.10	
Member by Election	457.25	
		4,728.35
Office of General Secretary:		
General Expense	$7,643.59	
Salary of Secretary	7,500.00	
		15,143.59
Home Office:		
General Expense	$603.46	
Postage	11,975.32	
Telegrams and Telephones	2,844.26	
Express and Freight	416.28	
Stationery and Office Supplies	3,454.69	
Insurance	125.35	
Repairs—Office Furniture and Fixtures	1,568.86	
Legal Services	105.00	
Surety Bonds	183.02	
Interest and Discounts Allowed	113.61	
Auditing Accounts and Reclassifying	854.72	
Unclassified Expenses	497.00	
		22,741.57
Carried forward		$44,176.16

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Brought forward			$44,176.16
Institutional Expense:			
Oakland Meeting—Traveling Expense		$750.24	
Boston Meeting:			
Department Expenses		588.15	
State Directors' Expenses		734.02	
Registration Bureau		685.03	
Stenographic Service and Typing		226.21	
Publicity		2,113.10	
Printing:			
Programs	$2,508.87		
Miscellaneous	226.00		
		2,734.87	
Express		32.70	
Telegrams and Telephones		120.81	
Miscellaneous Expenses:			
Banners	$279.50		
Speaker on Program	534.48		
Furniture Rentals	46.50		
Signs—Assembly Hall	63.60		
Messenger Service	15.90		
Badges	67.50		
Traveling Expenses	519.55		
Miscellaneous Expense	130.42		
		1,657.45	
			9,642.58
General Publicity			1,521.77
Special Appropriations:			
Committee on Coördination of Research Agencies		$1,276.68	
Committee on Foreign Relations		855.03	
Committee on Character and Citizenship		107.58	
Committee on Health Education		2,213.74	
Committee on Organization of Secondary Education		44.35	
Committee on Elementary Education (1921-22)		536.10	
Committee on Standardization of Schoolhouse Planning		49.81	
Committee on Elementary Education (1922-23)		45.55	
Committee on Salaries, Tenure, Etc		472.39	
Illiteracy Commission		1,732.12	
Committee on Rural Education		443.21	
Legislative Commission		1,455.27	
Committee on Thrift Education		19.50	
Department of Classroom Teachers		1,373.85	
			10,625.18
Division of Records and Accounts:			
General Expense			11,731.03
Division of Field Secretaries:			
Hugh S. Magill		$2,930.11	
Charl O. Williams		7,468.18	
J. O. Engleman		4,455.85	
			14,854.14
Carried forward			$92,550.86

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Brought forward		$92,550.86
Division of Business:		
General Expense	$6,920.21	
Typing Section	14,574.31	
Mailing Section	3,352.98	
Multigraphing Section	2,077.51	
Printing—Miscellaneous	3,998.52	
Addressograph Section	3,562.82	
Physical Plant	1,940.94	
Rent, Light, Heat, Power, Janitor	9,834.96	
Miscellaneous Expense	622.09	
		46,884.34
Division of Publications:		
General Expense	$9,941.82	
Printing 1922 Volume of Proceedings	13,953.13	
Reprints	123.92	
Sundry Publications	472.00	
N. E. A. Journal	87,048.17	
		111,539.04
Division of Research:		
General Expense		13,235.28
Division of Elementary School Service:		
General Expense		5,044.50
Purchase of Office Furniture and Fixtures		6,150.75
Depreciation on Furniture and Fixtures		1,193.90
		$276,598.67

SUMMARY OF EXPENDITURES

Expenditures made during Year for Current Expenses and Purchase of Equipment	$263,124.10
Depreciation Reserved—Office Furniture	1,193.90
Expenses of Current Year unpaid as at May 31, 1923	12,280.67
	$276,598.67

SUMMARY OF REGULAR FUND

Balance on Hand, May 31, 1922		$23,293.87
Receipts for Year ended May 31, 1923		263,334.71
		$286,628.58
Disbursements for the Current Year's Operations	$263,124.10	
Disbursements for Bills for Previous Operations	20,807.83	
Transferred to Increase Revolving Fund (To $15,000)	5,000.00	
		288,931.93
Regular Fund Overdraft as at May 31, 1923		$2,303.35

CASH SUMMARY

Regular Fund (Overdraft)	$2,303.35
Revolving Fund	15,000.00
Total Cash (Treasurer)	$12,696.65

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CERTIFICATE OF AUDITORS

To the President of the National Education Association:

We have audited the accounts of the National Education Association, of the Treasurer, and of the Secretary, for the year ended May 31, 1923, and certify that the foregoing statement of Income and Expenses is in accordance with the books of the Association, and that, in our opinion, it reflects the operations of the Association for the year. The Secretary's Revolving Fund of $15,000.00 has also been verified by us.

MARWICK, MITCHELL & CO.

40 Exchange Place, New York,
June 20, 1923.

In conclusion, I recommend that this report receive your most careful consideration.

Respectfully submitted,
CORNELIA S. ADAIR, *Treasurer,*
HELEN T. HIXSON, *Assistant Treasurer.*

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REPORT OF THE EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE FOR THE BOARD OF DIRECTORS TO THE REPRESENTATIVE ASSEMBLY

The Executive Committee submits for consideration the following report and recommendations:

I. GENERAL BUDGET—The Executive Committee recommends the following budget for the year 1923-24. This budget is based on the expenditures for the past year, a careful estimate of the receipts from all sources for the ensuing year and a thorough survey of the program and needs of the Association.

EXPENDITURES FOR 1922-23 AND ESTIMATED EXPENDITURES FOR 1923-24

	Paid out	Estimated expense
Board of Trustees	$ 1,562.65	$ 1,750.00
Executive Committee	4,728.35	4,000.00
*General Secretary's Office (including items under II below)	138,820.47	166,836.00
Printing of the Monthly *Journal* and Volume of Proceedings	101,001.30	106,000.00
Appropriations for committees	10,625.18	26,850.00
Unclassified expenses	497.00	500.00
Office furniture and fixtures	5,725.46	3,000.00
Annual convention (summer and winter meetings)	9,642.58	10,000.00
Auditing accounts	554.72	600.00
General publicity	1,521.77	1,500.00
Reclassified accounts	300.00	.....
Financing delegates	.....	10,000.00
Expenses of directors and departments	1,322.17	3,000.00
	$275,301.65	$334,036.00

II. EXPENSES OF THE GENERAL OFFICES—The estimate for the expenses of the general offices of the Association as contained in the budget recommended above is $166,636. Upon recommendation of the Executive Secretary, the following itemization of this expenditure is approved by the Executive Committee. We recommend its adoption as the budget for the executive officers for 1923-24:

Secretary's office	Paid out 1922-23	Estimated expense 1923-24
Salary of the Secretary	$ 7,500.00	$ 7,500.00
Postage	11,975.32	12,000.00
Telegraph and telephone	2,844.26	3,000.00
Express and freight	416.28	400.00
Clerical service	67,283.37	80,000.00
Rent, light, heat, power, etc.	12,397.99	14,000.00
Stationery and office supplies	3,454.69	3,500.00

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Secretary's office	Paid out 1922-23	Estimated expense 1923-24
Traveling	$ 664.89	$ 1,000.00
Insurance	125.35	200.00
Surety bonds	183.02	200.00
Interest and discounts allowed	113.61	200.00
Miscellaneous expense:		
Legal services	105.00	4,000.00
Repairs, office furniture, and fixtures	1,568.86	
Sundry supplies	1,402.49	
Miscellaneous printing	695.92	
Field Secretary's department	14,854.14	20,000.00
Research department	13,235.28	20,636.00
	$138,820.47	$166,636.00

III. BUDGET FOR SPECIAL COMMITTEES—Much work of the Association is done through the operation of the special committees appointed by the Association and its departments and affiliated bodies. In fact the accomplishment of the program to which the National Education Association has pledged itself is to be brought about by the success of the work thus delegated to these special bodies. The Executive Committee recommends appropriations for the work of these committees as follows:

	Appropriation 1922-23	Appropriation 1923-24
Committee on Character and Citizenship	$ 250.00	$ 250.00
Coöperation with Federation of Women's Clubs	.....	300.00
Foreign Relations	500.00	1,000.00
Health Education	2,500.00	2,500.00
Illiteracy	1,800.00	1,000.00
Legislative Commission	2,500.00	2,500.00
Rural Education	800.00	150.00
Schoolhouse Planning and Construction	500.00	800.00
Salaries, Tenure, Pensions (three committees)	2,000.00	600.00
Thrift Education	1,000.00	1,000.00
Reorganization of Elementary Education	1,250.00	1,250.00
Coördination of Research Agencies	2,500.00	500.00
Classroom Teachers	5,000.00	6,000.00
Elementary Principals	2,500.00	2,500.00
Superintendence (one half net profit)	5,000.00	5,000.00
American School Program	.....	1,000.00
Kindergarten	.....	500.00
	$27,800.00	$26,850.00

IV. SUMMARY.

Estimated receipts		$366,628.58
Estimated expenditures:		
General expenses (I, II, and III above)	$334,036.00	
Deficit in General Fund	2,303.35	
		$336,339.35
Unappropriated balance		$30,289.23

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V. COMMITTEES FOR THE ENSUING YEAR—The Executive Committee recommends the continuance of the following as active committees of the Association for the year 1923-24:

Legislative Commission; Character and Citizenship; Foreign Relations; Salaries, Tenure, and Pensions (reorganized into three committees—action of Representative Assembly); Expenses of Delegates; Coördination of Research Agencies; Reorganization of Elementary Education; Illiteracy; Health Problems; Thrift Education; Racial Well-Being; High School Libraries; Coöperation with American Legion; Coöperation with Federation of Women's Clubs; Coöperation with American School Citizenship League; Coöperation with Conference on Limitation of Armaments; County Superintendents' Problems; Editorial Council; Visual Education; American School Program; and Sources of Revenue.

VI. SECRETARIAL HELP FOR DEPARTMENTS, COMMITTEES, STATE DIRECTORS—The Executive Committee recommends that the policy outlined by the Executive Secretary to render much-needed assistance to departments and special committees carrying a heavy burden of work as a part of the program of the Association be the recognized policy of the Association and that the Secretary be authorized to render such assistance as he and the Executive Committee deem necessary and to make such special assignments of heads of executive departments or special secretaries of the headquarters' staff for this purpose as the work may, in his judgment, demand.

VII. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR COÖPERATION WITH THE AMERICAN LEGION—The Executive Committee recommends that the Americanism and Education program of the American Legion in coöperation with the Association be approved.

VIII. CHANGING DATE OF ANNUAL MEETING—The committee was instructed to report on the question of changing the date of the annual meeting. It has not, however, been able to reach a decision on the question and therefore requests an extension of time.

It is recommended that Section 7, Article I of the By-Laws be changed and amended to read as follows:

SEC. 7. The annual dues of members shall be sent to the Secretary on or before November 1. An active member failing to pay his dues as herein provided shall forfeit the privileges of membership and after being in arrears one half year be dropped from the list of members.

It is further recommended that Section 8 of Article I be changed and amended so as to read as follows:

SEC. 8. The membership year shall be from September 1 to August 31. All membership dues paid during the membership year shall be credited to that year unless otherwise requested.

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MINUTES OF EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE, OAKLAND, JUNE 30, 1923

A meeting of the Executive Committee of the National Education Association was held in Convention Hall B of the Civic Auditorium, Oakland, California, Saturday forenoon, June 30, 1923, at 9 o'clock, with all members except Miss Williams present: W. B. Owen, chairman, Cornelia S. Adair, treasurer, Fred M. Hunter, member-elect, Walter R. Siders, chairman of the Board of Trustees. There were present on invitation, Miss Olive M. Jones, Miss Agnes E. Doherty, and Mr. C. C. Pearse, of the Board of Trustees. Miss Williams has not been attending the meetings of the Executive Committee since her election as Field Secretary.

The minutes of the last meeting were approved as read by the secretary. Miss Adair presented in detail the report of the treasurer, and Mr. Siders the report of the Board of Trustees. Some time was taken in considering items in these reports, and in discussing the budget for the following year. It was decided to call another meeting for considering the budget.

Mr. Siders presented the plans for improvements on the buildings recently purchased by the Association, and gave an account of his recent visit at headquarters.

On motion the committee adjourned to meet at 9:00 o'clock the same evening in Room 103, Hotel Oakland.

W. B. Owen,
President

J. W. Crabtree,
Secretary

The meeting was called to order promptly at 9 o'clock Saturday evening by the chairman, with the same number in attendance as had attended the morning session. Mr. Siders presented the formal report of the auditor, which, on motion, was approved.

A motion was carried to present the following amendment to the by-laws to the Representative Assembly with the recommendation that unanimous action be taken at this meeting:

It is recommended that Section 7, Article 1 of the by-laws be changed and amended to read as follows:

SEC. 7. The annual dues of members shall be sent to the Secretary on or before November 1. An active member failing to pay his dues as herein provided shall forfeit the privileges of membership and after being in arrears one half year be dropped from the list of members.

It is further recommended that Section 8, Article 1 be changed and amended so as to read as follows:

SEC. 8. The membership year shall be from September 1 to August 31. All membership dues paid during the membership year shall be credited to that year unless otherwise requested.

On the request of Miss Adair, the approval of the treasurer's report was postponed to the next meeting of the committee, and on request of Mr. Siders, similar action was taken with reference to the approval of the report of the Board of Trustees.

Frank Irving Cooper, chairman of the Committee on Schoolhouse Planning and Construction, was present and presented the report prepared by the committee and requested that it be printed. A motion was passed instruct-

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ng Mr. Siders to ascertain the cost of printing the report and report back to the committee at its next session.

After devoting time to the preparation of the budget, a motion was passed to adjourn to 9:30 o'clock Sunday morning, July 1, 1923.

W. B. Owen, *President* — J. W. Crabtree, *Secretary*

The committee met at 9:30 o'clock Sunday forenoon, Room 103, Hotel Oakland, July 1, 1923, with the same members in attendance as at previous meetings.

After giving time and attention to the preparation of a budget for next year, Mr. Siders and Miss Adair were appointed to prepare a budget. Then on motion, the president was requested to sit in on the budget hearings.

A motion was passed to adopt the treasurer's report as presented by Miss Adair. A motion was also passed to adopt the report of the Board of Trustees as presented by Mr. Siders.

A motion was passed adjourning to meet at 10 o'clock Wednesday evening, July 4, in Room 103, Hotel Oakland.

The budget committee was authorized to meet in the same room from 8:30 to 10 o'clock to hear requests for appropriations from chairmen of the committees.

W. B. Owen, *President* — J. W. Crabtree, *Secretary*

The committee met Wednesday evening, July 4, at 10 o'clock in Room 103, Hotel Oakland, with the same members in attendance as at previous meetings.

A motion was passed authorizing the secretary to employ Miss Alltucker, of Berkeley, California, as assistant in the Division of Research, at a salary not to exceed $3200 a year, and to arrange for her services to begin September 1, 1923.

The budget committee presented its report. A motion was passed to add $500 for the Kindergarten Department to be used in publishing reports. A motion was also passed to add $1000 for the Committee on American School Program. After making other suggestions in the report which had been presented, the committee was instructed to have it printed, and a motion was passed to adjourn to meet again at 1:00 o'clock, Thursday afternoon.

W. B. Owen, *President* — J. W. Crabtree, *Secretary*

Another meeting of the committee, as arranged, was held at 10 o'clock, Thursday forenoon, July 5, Room 103, Hotel Oakland, with the same members present as at previous meetings.

A motion was passed approving of the budget which had been prepared by the budget committee, consisting of Miss Adair, Mr. Siders, and the chairman Mr. Owen.

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Mr. Siders was instructed to present the report of the Executive Committee to the Board of Directors for their consideration, and if approved, to present the same to the Representative Assembly at its business session Friday forenoon.

The secretary explained that Mr. Henry W. Ryan, of the American Legion, had been doing most excellent work for the Education Bill. He also called attention to the fact that American Education Week was first suggested by Mr. Ryan. A motion was passed authorizing the secretary to express appreciation to Mr. Ryan for his interest and work in the cause of education.

The secretary was instructed to print the report of the Committee on Schoolhouse Planning and Construction as presented by the chairman of the committee.

The chairman announced the appointment of the following audit committee:

M. E. Pearson, Superintendent of Schools, Kansas City, Kansas.
Loretta R. Doerr, Supervising Principal, New Orleans, Louisiana.
L. H. Minkel, Superintendent of Schools, Fort Dodge, Iowa.

On motion the meeting adjourned.

W. B. Owen,
President

J. W. Crabtree,
Secretary

MINUTES OF NEW EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE, OAKLAND, JULY 6, 1923

A meeting of the new Executive Committee of the National Education Association was held in Room 101, Hotel Oakland, 3.30 o'clock, Friday afternoon, July 6, with the following members in attendance: Miss Jones, the new president, in the chair; Miss Adair, Mrs. Stewart, Mr. Siders, Dr. Owen, Miss Doherty, and Dr. Finegan, of the Board of Trustees, were present on invitation. Mr. Pearse was not present because of sickness.

The convention bills were presented and signed by the officers of the Association. A motion was passed authorizing the President and Secretary to investigate locations for the next annual meeting, and to report recommendations to the Executive Committee for consideration at its next meeting.

A motion was passed authorizing the President and Secretary to borrow funds as necessary during the time when receipts are low, giving as security the current income of the permanent fund.

A motion was passed authorizing the President to call a meeting of the committee to be held in Washington early in the fall.

The meeting then adjourned.

OLIVE M. JONES,
President

J. W. CRABTREE,
Secretary

MEETING OF BOARD OF DIRECTORS, OAKLAND, JULY 2, 1923

The Board of Directors of the National Education Association met in Convention Hall B of the Civic Auditorium, Oakland, California, Monday forenoon at 9.30 o'clock as required by the By-Laws.

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The meeting was called to order by the Secretary, who explained that President Owen was presiding at a general session and requested Miss Williams, first vice-president, to preside at the meeting of the Board of Directors. Miss Williams thereupon took the chair and asked the Secretary to call the roll.

The roll call taken by distributing slips of paper on which each director wrote his name and the name of the State which he represented. The roll call showed the following directors to be present: C. B. Glenn, Alabama; A. J. Matthews, Arizona; Annie G. Griffey, Arkansas; Mary F. Mooney, California; Fred M. Hunter, California; H. B. Smith, Colorado; Mary C. C. Bradford, Colorado; Edward B. Sellew, Connecticut; Harry English, District of Columbia; J. W. Crabtree, District of Columbia; W. R. Siders, Idaho; Theodore Shank, Idaho; Robert C. Moore, Illinois; H. L. Smith, Indiana; L. H. Minkel, Iowa; M. E. Pearson, Kansas; R. E. Williams, Kentucky; William Burdick, Maryland; Mary McSkimmon, Massachusetts; J. C. Brown, Minnesota; Thomas J. Walker, Missouri; Everett M. Hosman, Nebraska; Robert H. Wright, North Carolina; M. R. Floyd, Oklahoma; Ambrose Cort, New York; George D. Strayer, New York; C. R. Reed, Ohio; E. H. Whitney, Oregon; James H. Kelley, Pennsylvania; H. W. Foght, South Dakota; S. L. Smith, Tennessee; Charl O. Williams, Tennessee; Catherine Gorbutt, Texas; L. John Nuttall, Jr., Utah; Caroline S. Woodruff, Vermont; Elizabeth W. Winston, Virginia; Cornelia S. Adair, Virginia; Jennie M. French, Washington; T. Marcellus Marshall, West Virginia; Joseph Rosier, West Virginia; John F. Sims, Wisconsin; C. G. Pearse, Wisconsin; and A. A. Slade, Wyoming.

The chairman stated that unless objections were heard the directors present would be seated as the representatives of their respective States.

The chairman declared that a quorum was present and called for the reading of the minutes of the last meeting. The minutes were approved as read by the Secretary.

The chairman explained that it would be necessary to call a meeting of the Board of Directors on Wednesday or Thursday to receive the budget estimates of the Executive Committee for 1923-24. By general consent it was arranged to call the meeting Thursday afternoon at 2 o'clock.

The Secretary was called upon for his annual report. He explained that the report had been printed in pamphlet form and was in the hands of all directors and moved that the report be received, and that it be printed in the Volume of Proceedings. The motion was carried.

The chairman then called on Miss Adair, the treasurer, to present the financial report. Miss Adair gave the summary of income and expenditures for the report and answered questions, but requested that action on the report be postponed to the Thursday meeting when it would be in printed form. Action, however, was passed approving of her recommendation for appropriating $10,000 on the payment of delegates' expenses in 1924, and the recommendation for providing a reserve fund of $50,000 to be used only in years when the income is low.

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Miss Williams, the chairman, explained the progress made during the year in the promotion of the Education Bill, and on request showed samples of her office records including card indexes, record books, and maps.

The chairman of the Board of Trustees, Mr. Siders, was then called upon to present the annual report of the trustees. After explaining concerning the purchase of the new properties, the auditors' report on the Secretary's books and on the trust officer's report, he requested that no action be taken until at the meeting on Thursday.

Attention was called to the practice of appointing at this meeting a committee to make nominations to fill vacancies in the National Council, but the chairman stated that since she was only presiding in place of the President, she would postpone the appointment of the committee until President Owen could be present to name the members of the committee himself.

A motion was passed to adjourn to meet again Thursday afternoon at 2 o'clock to consider the budget report of the Executive Committee, and to transact such other business as might properly come before the board.

CHARL O. WILLIAMS,
First Vice-President

J. W. CRABTREE,
Secretary

The Board of Directors met in Convention Hall B of the Civic Auditorium Thursday afternoon, July 5, at 2 o'clock in compliance with action taken at the meeting on Monday. The meeting was called to order by President Owen. The following directors were present: C. B. Glenn, Alabama; A. J. Matthews, Arizona; Annie G. Griffey, Arkansas; Mary F. Mooney, California; Fred M. Hunter, California; H. B. Smith, Colorado; Mary C. C. Bradford, Colorado; Edward B. Sellew, Connecticut; Harry English, District of Columbia; J. W. Crabtree, District of Columbia; Walter R. Siders, Idaho; R. C. Moore, Illinois; Sarah Thomas, Illinois; W. B. Owen, Illinois; H. L. Smith, Indiana; L. H. Minkel, Iowa; M. E. Pearson, Kansas; R. E. Williams, Kentucky; Loretta R. Doerr, Louisiana; William Burdick, Maryland, Mary McSkimmon, Massachusetts; Thomas J. Walker, Missouri; Everett M. Hosman, Nebraska; Charles B. Dyke, New Jersey; Ambrose Cort, New York; George D. Strayer, New York; Robert H. Wright, North Carolina; Carroll R. Reed, Ohio; A. C. Parsons, Oklahoma; James H. Kelley, Pennsylvania; H. W. Foght, South Dakota; S. L. Smith, Tennessee; Charl O. Williams, Tennessee; Catherine Gorbutt, Texas; L. John Nuttall, Jr., Utah; Caroline S. Woodruff, Vermont; Elizabeth W. Winston, Virginia; Jennie M. French, Washington; T. Marcellus Marshall, West Virginia; Joseph Rosier, West Virginia; John F. Sims, Wisconsin; and A. A. Slade, Wyoming.

The Secretary advised that since the Executive Committee represented the Board of Directors in all business transacted during the year, it would be proper to express approval of what had been done. A motion of approval of the work of the Executive Committee for the year 1922-23 was thereupon passed, and Mr. Siders was called upon to present the budget recommendations of the Executive Committee for 1923-24. (This will be mailed to you at a later date.)

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After discussion, a motion was passed approving of the recommendations in the report, including the recommended changes in the By-Laws.

The request for a new department of penmanship was read, and the Secretary instructed to reply that while it is not advisable to create a new department of penmanship, it would be possible to hold conferences on penmanship at the time of the annual meeting, which would seem to meet the ends desired by those signing the petition.

A motion was passed to adopt the Treasurer's and the Board of Trustees' reports as presented in pamphlet form.

A motion was passed by a unanimous vote to change the name of the Department of Normal Schools to Department of Normal Schools and Teachers Colleges. Another motion was passed to change the name of the Department of Physical Education to the Department of Physical Education and Health. The Secretary was instructed to make the necessary changes in reprinting the By-Laws.

On the Secretary's statement that there had been little interest in the Department for the Wider Use of Schoolhouses during the last six years, he was authorized to drop the department in reprinting the By-Laws, providing the newly elected officers approve.

The President appointed the following as members of the committee to make nominations for the vacancies in the National Council, requesting the committee to report to the new Board of Directors at its meeting on Friday; Mr. Rosier and Miss Grosvner.

On motion the meeting adjourned at 4.30 o'clock.

WILLIAM B. OWEN, *President* — J. W. CRABTREE, *Secretary*

MINUTES OF THE NEW BOARD OF DIRECTORS, OAKLAND-SAN FRANCISCO
FRIDAY, JULY 6, 1923

In compliance with the By-Laws the new Board of Directors met in Convention Hall B of the Civic Auditorium, Oakland, California, Friday afternoon at 2.30 o'clock. The new President, Miss Olive Jones, called the meeting to order with the following answering to roll call: C. B. Glenn, Alabama; A. J. Matthews, Arizona; Annie G. Griffey, Arkansas; William P. Dunlevy, California; Mary C. C. Bradford, Colorado; H. B. Smith, Colorado; Edward E. Sellew, Connecticut; H. B. Holloway, Delaware; Agnes Ballard, Florida; Elizabeth Russum, Idaho; Sarah L. Thomas, Illinois; H. Lester Smith, Indiana; Thomas R. Roberts, Iowa; M. E. Pearson, Kansas; Loretta R. Doerr, Louisiana; William Burdick, Maryland; Annie C. Woodward, Massachusetts; Ernest T. Cameron, Michigan; J. C. Brown, Minnesota; Thomas J. Walker, Missouri; Agnes E. Doherty, Minnesota; Everett M. Hosman, Nebraska; E. L. McKeown, Nevada; Catherine A. Dole, New Hampshire; B. McKinney, North Carolina; George D. Strayer, New York; Ambrose Cort, New York; Carroll R. Reed, Ohio; A. C. Parker, Oklahoma; George Hug, Oregon; James H. Kelley, Pennsylvania; Dorothea M. Hoxie, Rhode Island; S. L. Smith, Tennessee; Catherine Gilbert, Texas; C. N. Jensen, Utah; Caroline S. Woodruff, Vermont; Camelia S. Adair, Virginia; Elizabeth W. Winston, Virginia; Jennie M.

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French, Washington; T. Marcellus Marshall, West Virginia; Joseph Rosier, West Virginia; C. G. Pearse, Wisconsin; John F. Sims, Wisconsin; Katharine A. Morton, Wyoming; Harry English, District of Columbia; and H. H. Brodie, Hawaii.

Director Finegan called attention to the application which had been made for a Department of Visual Instruction, and moved that the department be created with Superintendent H. B. Wilson as its president for the next year. The motion was seconded.

A substitute motion was presented to appoint a committee on the revision of the organization into departments, and refer this and all other requests for departments to this committee. The substitute failed to carry. The original motion was then put and carried. The chairman announced that the department had been created and that its officers for the ensuing year are as follows:

President—H. B. Wilson, superintendent of schools, Berkeley, California
Vice-President—A. W. Abrams, Albany, New York.
Secretary—Dudley Grant Hayes, Chicago, Illinois.

After speaking on the need of a revision of the departments of the Association, Director Hunter moved that a Committee on the Revision of Departments be appointed, and that it be requested to present a report in 1924. The motion was seconded, put, and carried.

Miss Jones presented her resignation as a member of the Board of Trustees, which was accepted in view of her election as president.

After calling attention to the outstanding work of Mr. Siders on the Board of Trustees, Mrs. Bradford, of Colorado, nominated him to succeed himself. The nomination was seconded by the delegates of several States. A motion was then passed for the Secretary to cast the vote of the Board of Directors for Mr. Siders for the term of four years. The Secretary cast the vote, and the chairman declared him duly elected to succeed himself as a member of the Board of Trustees.

After referring to the unsurpassed service of Dr. Finegan in the Association and in the improvement of education in the Nation, Director Strayer nominated him to fill the unexpired term of Miss Jones. On motion the nominations were closed and the Secretary ordered to cast the vote of the Board of Directors. The chairman announced that the Secretary had carried out the instruction of the Board, and that Director Finegan had been duly elected to fill this vacancy.

Miss Woodruff, of Vermont, then nominated Mrs. Cora Wilson Stewart for member-elect of the Executive Committee, and a motion was passed ordering the Secretary to cast the vote for her. The chairman then announced that the vote was unanimous and that Mrs. Stewart was duly elected to membership on the Executive Committee.

The Secretary explained that St. Paul, Chicago, Columbus, San Diego, San Francisco, District of Columbia, and a number of other places had expressed a desire to be made the location for the next annual meeting of the Association. On motion the Executive Committee was authorized, after investigation, to select the location for the next annual convention.

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After Mrs. French, Mrs. Preston, Dr. Strayer, and Mr. Adams had made addresses inviting the Association to meet in Seattle in 1925, a motion was carried to recommend that the Board of Directors and Executive Committee of next year choose Seattle as the meeting place for 1925.

Director Rosier reported a list of names for filling the vacancies in the National Council and moved the adoption of his report, which was carried. The following are the names of those elected to membership in the Council, whose membership will expire in 1929:

Will C. Wood, State superintendent of public instruction, Sacramento, California.

Florence M. Hale, State agent for rural education, Augusta, Maine.

J. G. Crabbe, president, State Teachers' College, Greeley, Colorado.

R. G. Jones, superintendent of schools, Cleveland, Ohio.

Uel W. Lamkin, president, Northwestern Missouri Teachers' College, Maryville, Missouri.

A. J. Matthews, president, State Normal School, Tempe, Arizona.

Mary McSkimmon, principal, Pierce School, Brookline, Massachusetts.

William B. Owen, president, Chicago Normal College, Chicago, Illinois.

M. E. Pearson, superintendent of schools, Kansas City, Kansas.

S. M. N. Marrs, State superintendent of public instruction, Austin, Texas.

A motion was passed authorizing the Executive Committee to provide help for the State Directors in their effort for increasing membership in the State, that when necessary to appoint assistant directors.

A motion was passed to the effect that only those delegates certified by the Secretary by noon of the first day of the annual meeting will be permitted to participate in the meeting of delegates by States.

A motion was passed authorizing the Executive Committee to represent the Board of Directors in carrying forward the work of the Association during the year, requesting them to present a report at the end of the year to the Board of Directors for adoption.

A motion was passed accepting the resignations and making the appointments as shown below:

State	Resignations accepted	Newly appointed directors
New Hampshire	Catherine A. Dole	Wallace E. Mason
North Carolina	B. McKinney	Robert H. Wright
West Virginia	Joseph Rosier	J. H. Hickman
Wyoming	Mrs. Katharine A. Morton	A. A. Slade
Hawaii	H. H. Brodie	W. E. Givens
Vermont	Caroline S. Woodruff	Donald G. McClelland
Virginia	Elizabeth W. Winston	S. A. McDonald
Massachusetts	Annie C. Woodward	Mary McSkimmon
Rhode Island	Dorothea N. Hoxie	William O. Holden
Minnesota	J. C. Brown	W. A. Shephard

A motion was passed to adjourn to meet again on the call of the President.

OLIVE M. JONES,
President

J. W. CRABTREE,
Secretary

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THE SECRETARY'S REPORT

J. W. CRABTREE, SECRETARY

ASSOCIATION GROWTH AND MEMBERSHIP

The Association has had a marvelous growth during the past five years, climbing from an enrolment of 8700 active members in 1918 to 118,000 in 1922 and perhaps to 140,000 in 1923. During the five years before 1918, the enrolment of active members ranged from 6000 to 7500. The increased membership since then has been largely the result of fundamental changes in policy, purpose, and organization of the Association.

EXTENT OF GROWTH

This change in policy in management and work of the Association showed itself in 1918 in the appointment of the National Commission on the Emergency in Education and in the program of service which outlined a definite plan for promoting the interests of the profession. Before this time the membership had been composed mainly of superintendents, normal school and college presidents, and others engaged in administrative work. Teachers hoping for promotion to administrative positions also became members. A number of teachers near cities where meetings were held took out associate memberships but for the year of the meeting only. The rank and file of teachers throughout the Nation did not know the National Education Association. Members took pride in the fact that the membership was composed of persons engaged in administrative work on the theory that an organization of educational leaders could accomplish more for the schools than could be accomplished by an all-inclusive association. Teachers did not fully appreciate the part which they themselves might have in the improvement of the profession.

In 1919 the change in policy and purpose showed itself further in the adoption of the report of the committee on reorganization, and in a request to Congress to amend the Charter to permit the business of the Association to be transacted by a representative assembly. It showed itself in the organization of the Secretary's office into divisions for the purpose of putting into effect the program of service, which had been adopted. While something had been done previously along certain of the lines mapped out in the new platform, thorough organization for the work had never before been attempted.

In 1920 the Charter was amended by Congress and the Association reorganized under the provisions of the amended Charter. The by-laws were amended to provide for affiliated State and local associations and for a representative assembly. The name of the National Commission on the Emergency in Education was changed to the Legislative Commission. By

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this time members could see the results of the aggressive work of the Commission and of committees working on other important problems. They also began to appreciate the advantage of the wider scope of work in the central office.

In 1921 the reorganized Association met in Des Moines. The business was transacted for the first time by a Representative Assembly, composed of delegates from all parts of the country and representing all ranks in the profession. Before this time the business had been transacted by the active members in attendance at the annual meeting. This meant that the business was transacted each year largely by the members near the place where the annual meeting was held. It meant that the policies outlined each year represented the judgment of a local rather than of a National body. The membership, which had doubled in 1919, more than doubled again in 1920. The rank and file of teachers now began to feel that they had a part in the work of a great National association, and those engaged in supervision began to appreciate the advantages to be derived from the all-inclusive organization.

By the time of the Boston meeting in 1922 it was generally recognized that the Association was established on the new basis of organization and policy, and that it would in the near future include in its membership practically all teachers of scholarship, experience, and vision. It was pointed out that in many places nearly all teachers of true professional spirit had already become members. Up to 1922 the National Union of Teachers of England with an enrolment of 115,000 members was the largest all-inclusive national association of teachers in the world. In 1922 the enrolment of the National Education Association passed beyond that of the National Union of Teachers.

The psychology of the war was favorable to the growth of the Association. All realized the necessity of efficient organization to win the war. The teachers who went to war became a part of a world organization. Those who remained at home became a part of great National organizations—one formed by Mr. Hoover to conserve food and one by Dr. Garfield to conserve the use of fuel. They became a part of the National machinery for raising funds for the Red Cross, the Y. M. C. A., and other agencies. They helped to make a success of the organization for selling Liberty bonds. They saw the value of organized effort and learned to see things from the National standpoint. By coöperation with the American Legion in making American Education Week a success and in impressing the needs of the schools on the public, teachers have become familiar with what is being accomplished in that great National organization, the American Legion. Women teachers have become members of political parties. All this has prepared teachers for appreciating a strong National association of their own. It has increased their professional pride. It has had an important part in the recent growth of the National Education Association.

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REASONS FOR GROWTH—SUMMARIZED

Giving the Association its all-inclusive character, opened up new fields of membership. The World War revealed conditions showing the need for National attention to education and at the same time taught the value of organized effort. New contacts, as with the American Legion, gave inspiration and assurance. The reorganization of the Association, the adoption of a program of service, and the machinery provided at the central office for effective work were leading factors in making the larger Association possible. It must be remembered also that the National Education Association provided the only way for the teachers of the forty-eight

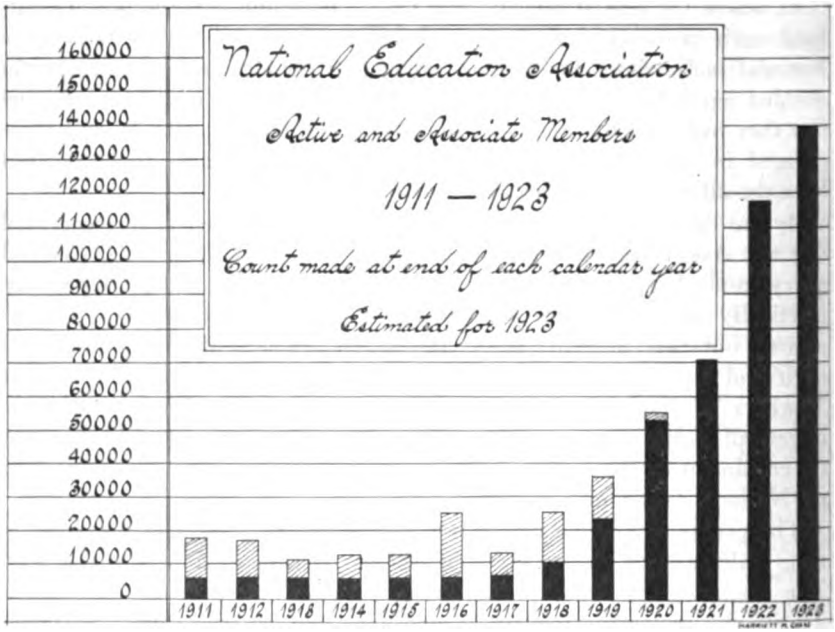


Fig. 1. ACTIVE AND ASSOCIATE MEMBERS, 1911-1923. ACTIVE MEMBERSHIP REPRESENTED BY THE BLACK PORTION OF THE COLUMN AND ASSOCIATE MEMBERSHIP BY THE LIGHT PORTION

State school systems and for men and women engaged in all phases of educational work to get together and work as a unit for the improvement of the profession as a whole. There were other factors, but these were among the fundamental causes of growth in membership.

The following factors though not so fundamental were just as important and necessary in the rapid development of the Association. Moving the headquarters to Washington; purchasing a home for the Association; replacing the little bulletin by a 68-page *Journal* published monthly; conducting important lines of field and legislative work; undertaking a high type of research work; the efficient work of all members of the headquarters staff; and the good-will and coöperation of the leaders in the profession throughout the country.

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GROWTH LIKELY TO SLOW UP

The increase in membership of 20,000 to 35,000 a year cannot be continued indefinitely. It cannot be continued because at the present rate of increase nearly all professionally-minded teachers will within a few years be members of the Association. As the enrolment comes nearer and nearer to the saturation point wherever that may be, the annual increase in membership will be less and less. The present membership may be nearer that point that we are aware of. Experience in associational work will develop professional interest. Very soon the annual gain in membership will depend almost entirely on the increase each year in the total number of teachers in the country, on increasing the number of professionally-trained teachers, and on raising the saturation point to higher levels. The annual gain will then be 5000 or 8000 instead of 25,000.

CAUSES OF CONFUSION IN MEMBERSHIP

Confusion in memberships has resulted from several causes. The double figures, as 1922-1923, used to represent the associational year, and giving out after January 1 to all new members on request membership cards for the following instead of the current year are causing much trouble. The fact that State secretaries have decided to use the double figures may in the course of time lessen the confusion from that source. The by-laws might well be amended to remove another source of misunderstanding.

According to section 8, article 1, in the by-laws, all members joining after January 1 may elect to have their membership dues apply on the following instead of the current year. Much confusion has resulted from carrying out this provision. The State directors and the secretaries of the State associations agree that the by-laws should be amended by eliminating the sentences pertaining to future memberships. It is suggested that the Representative Assembly make this change in the by-laws at the Oakland-San Francisco meeting. The amendment can only be considered and passed at this meeting by unanimous action.

Much confusion is due to a failure to appreciate the responsibilities of membership in one's professional organization. While as a rule our new members understand and appreciate the privileges and responsibilities of membership in the Association a surprisingly large number do not fully understand this relationship, and this causes trouble in the local associations and at the central office over the payment of dues. This trouble showed up more prominently in the recent effort to collect dues up to date. The Association is largely to blame for this condition. It has constantly called attention to the privileges of membership without giving adequate information concerning the responsibilities of membership.

Certain points should be made clear to everyone applying for membership. He should know that membership in the Association, like that in any other true national association, is meant to be continuous. He should know that according to the by-laws it does not lapse for one year beyond the time covered by the payment of dues and that it can only be terminated on the request of the member, or by being permitted to lapse. More than 5000

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members who allowed their membership to lapse in November dodged the payment of dues for the last year. It would be expensive and impossible to collect these small accounts by legal means. Payment depends on the members understanding that under the by-laws he cannot become a member without assuming the responsibility of paying dues. That would in itself increase the income of the Association by several thousand dollars annually.

The delegates at the annual meeting and the officers of the local, State, and National associations may well have the fullest confidence in the records of the office. No one in the United States has a better record for accuracy than Mrs. Hixson who has the complete responsibility of the

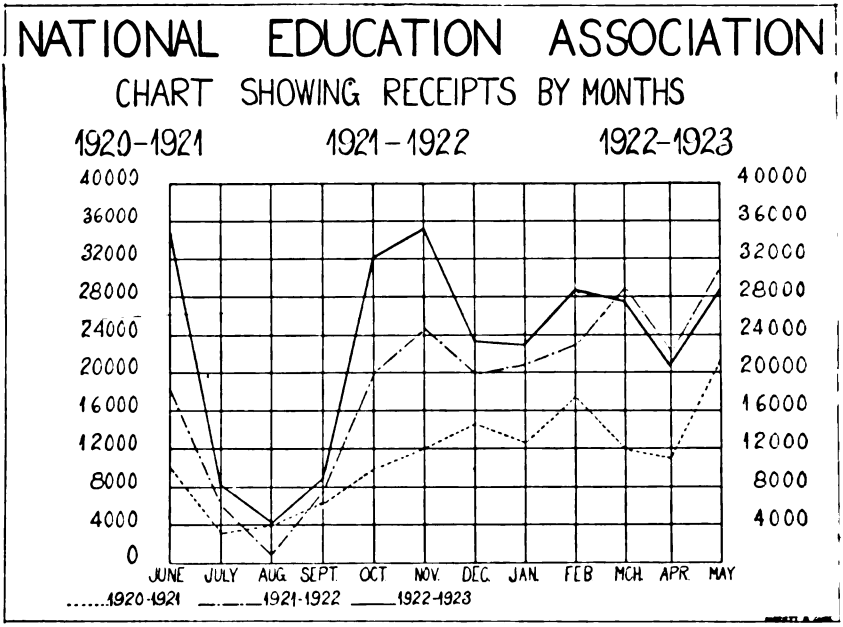


Fig. 2. RECEIPTS BY MONTHS, 1920-1923

membership files. One of the best efficiency experts in Chicago has selected the headquarters organization of the National Education Association, its records, and management, as a model of efficiency.

By making a few changes in the by-laws and by taking greater care to impress on applicants the responsibility of membership, it is believed that most of the confusion concerning the status of membership will disappear. But to do this the help of officers and members is necessary. The office will print on membership cards hereafter a statement showing responsibilities as well as showing membership privileges. *The Journal* will carry more careful explanations than before. Will you not help by vouching for the reliability of the records of the office, by having members attach importance to a permament connection with local, State, and National associations and by paying particular attention to the raw recruits admitted to membership from year to year?

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FINANCIAL POLICY AND BUDGET

The successful development of the Association is measured by the certainty of its financial resources as well as by the character of its educational ideals and standards. Its main source of income at present is that from membership dues. The certainty of this form of financial support depends almost entirely on the ability of the Association to satisfy members with *The Journal* and the professional service which it renders. The next important source of income is from advertising, and the next from commercial exhibits. Something has been received from the sale of bound volumes, from life memberships, and from contributions. The income from advertising has increased rapidly during the last two years and will grow better from year to year. The income from commercial exhibits has much more than doubled in two years. Only small sums have been received as contributions, but it is believed that this particular source of income may be developed to exceed that from commercial exhibits.

NO CHANGE IN DUES

Owing to a general desire to broaden the scope of the work of the central office, the suggestion is often made by members and officers to increase membership dues. While it may be advisable to increase dues in the future, it would seem to be unwise to make any change in the regular $2 and $5 memberships at the present time. In one sense the dues have been increased recently in arranging for departments to charge an additional fee for membership in the department. One department has added a fee of $2, another a fee of $3, and still another a fee of $5. It will be much better to render the greatest possible service from income on present rates, than to take the risk of asking for larger fees before the Association is more thoroughly established on the basis of the larger enrolment and before the members have become accustomed to paying the departmental fees which have been established upon.

Teachers faced by the fact that they can hardly make ends meet on the salaries which they receive would necessarily hesitate to retain membership in the Association if fees were doubled. It is estimated that more than seventy-five per cent of the present membership belong to this class. Many of those who receive better salaries are slow in paying the additional fees for membership in the departments. Teachers will pay increased dues in state and local associations much more readily than in the National Association.

The real test of professional interest comes when the member is sent the first and second bills for membership dues. The great majority meet the test surprisingly well. Far too many, however, do not yet see problems from the national standpoint. There is something lacking in interest when the member pays no attention to notices or where one cancels his membership without paying back dues. There should not only be a willingness but a desire to pay. It requires time, however, for this type of pro-

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fessional spirit to develop among these teachers to whom associational work is new. A change in membership dues is certainly unsafe until these new members become better accustomed to associational work in the State and Nation.

It is true that more than half of the $2 membership fee goes back to the members in *The Journal,* which is published monthly. It is also true that the expense of collecting fees under present conditions is great and that there is only a fraction of each fee left for service projects. But by enlisting the interest of the entire profession and by making membership appeal to all, the total amount for general use will become increasingly large. The American Federation of Labor receives only one cent a month from each member, yet because of an enormous membership an annual fund of $300,000 is provided for the use of the central office. Let us instead of increasing fees add to the income by increasing the number of members and by organizing to decrease the cost of collecting fees. This plan has the advantage of being safe. There is no way of knowing what might happen from increasing membership dues at this time. Let further experience determine whether there is any real need of increasing dues.

THE NEED FOR A RESERVE FUND

The chart showing the receipts of the Association by months explains the need of a good reserve fund. In July, August, and September the weekly receipts are less than one fifth of the expenses. In December, January, and April the receipts are low. We have had deficits during these periods each year. We have been living too much from hand to mouth. This can only be justified because of the emergencies which have come upon the Association and professsion. It is not wise, however, to continue these risks beyond the period of emergency. For this reason, an item marked Reserve is included in the budget, and it is recommended that the reserve be protected and used only during the time when current receipts are low.

By careful management the office has been able to get through these bad times without injury to the credit and good name of the Association. In more than one instance the Secretary has borrowed funds in his own name to help keep the work of the Association going. In a few instances S. O. S. calls were sent out for new members and help came immediately from the field. But there will be little opportunity for a drive of that kind when all the professionally-minded are members as we hope will soon be. Is it not better to provide this reserve fund even though it means sacrifices in important lines of work to do so, rather than risk the menace of no funds to carry on the basic work of the Association as its responsibility to the larger membership increases? This reserve merely assures members from whom the Association has accepted dues that the service paid for will be rendered in full.

In order to lay aside a reserve of $50,000 during next year the Association cannot safely undertake many new projects. It cannot make large

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appropriations for the use of committees and departments. It can, however, continue the service which it is now rendering. It can add something to salaries and add assistants to care for additional work due to increased enrolment. But if it is to lay aside a reserve, it cannot explore new fields or undertake expensive enterprises.

LIFE MEMBERSHIP MOVEMENT

Over fifty life memberships have been taken out during the past year, thus adding more than $5,000 to the permanent fund. While the amount is small as compared with the needs, it is a good beginning. It is encouraging to observe in the list a number of classroom teachers and principals. The correspondence shows that many new members of the profession are planning to become life members within a year or two. The idea of active membership for life seems to appeal strongly to wide-awake progressive teachers and may easily result in adding many thousands of dollars to the permanent fund each year. If officers and members generally take hold of this method of increasing the permanent fund there is no doubt as to the result. It is possible through life memberships to build a much larger permanent fund.

Institutions have applied for life membership. It has been necessary in each case to return the $100, since the action taken in establishing these memberships applies only to individuals. In view of the fact that membership dues may be increased some time later, the Association could not afford to give all its publications indefinitely to an institution for $100. But would it not be a good plan to give institutions the privilege of taking out what might be termed permanent membership on the payment of $300? This would be a great convenience to the Association and to institutions and might prove to be a valuable source of income for carrying forward important lines of work.

FINANCIAL SUPPORT BY THE LAITY

No organized effort has yet been made to enlist lay support through associate memberships, although the question has been favorably discussed at times. This has not been done because it was considered of greater importance to first enlist the support of a fair percentage of the profession itself. Then it was by no means certain that a campaign for members among the laity would meet with success. It has been observed that few of those who have become associate members have continued their membership beyond one year. They become members to help out in an emergency.

The laity would much more readily become associate members of the local and State chapters than of the National Association. It may be well when the Association is more firmly established to make a drive for associate members among the laity. If true that those outside the profession would make $1 contributions as readily as to take out associate memberships, it would be wiser and better to ask for contributions instead of asking for memberships; 100 per cent of the contributions would then be used for

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service projects, whereas only 25 per cent of the membership dues can be used for such purposes. We can only hope to secure aid from the laity in either form when help is needed for some outstanding purpose.

There ought to be no objection to receiving large contributions, but it is easily seen that small donations are preferable. The large contribution too often has provisions attached to it designed to carry out the ambitions and selfish purposes of the donor, but more particularly to carry out the whims and designs of those who happen to be responsible for the distribution of the foundation funds. Most often the purpose of the one providing funds directly or establishing a foundation to distribute them, is unselfish and his chief incentive is to promote a worthy ideal. Unfortunately, the officers of the trust or foundation do not always have the vision, high ideals, and unselfish motives of the founder. There has been at least enough of the desire to control policies, to promote preconceived notions, and to gain selfish ends in these large gifts to arouse suspicion and create a deep-seated prejudice. The foundations and the rich who are unselfishly working to improve citizenship through education could render their best service by making contributions without conditions for the use of the Association. It has not been considered wise, however, for the Association to solicit funds from these sources at the present time in the face of the suspicion which the few have brought on all these agencies.

On the plan of the $2, $5, and $10 contributions a much larger number of people would share in the support of the movement to promote the interests of education. The plan would aid in getting the needs of the schools before the public, which is the most important of all considerations. The schools belong to the people. They are operated to promote the social and economic welfare of all. It is most fitting for citizens interested in school improvement to make contributions for the use of the National Education Association in its organized effort to constantly increase the efficiency of the profession and the schools. In order to meet emergency needs, the central office will during the next year, if agreeable to the Board of Directors and officers, extend to citizens through the machinery of the Association the opportunity of helping to support the teacher and school-betterment movement which is already making some headway on the meagre allowance which comes from membership dues. If each member would be responsible for securing only one small donation, the success of the movement would be assured.

BUDGET PROVISIONS FOR CARD INDEXES OF MEMBERS FOR STATES

The budget recommended for the year 1923-24 contains an item for providing a card index of members for each State to be kept in the office of the secretary of the State association. This provision is made on the suggestion of the State secretaries. Lists of the National Education Association members were sent to secretaries on request during the past year. This was done at slight expense, but to provide card indexes for the States and to keep them up to date will cost the Association several thousand dollars and each State several hundred dollars annually. No allowance was made in the budget for this work last year. The State secretaries can and will work

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much more effectively for the National Association if provided with these card indexes. It will afford a better opportunity to work out a general budget plan of collecting membership dues for the local, State, and National associations.

The budget plan is in use in less than a score of the affiliated associations. The effort three years ago to secure the general adoption of such a plan throughout the country proved to be premature. It was made before local and State associations had had experience in working as affiliated units, and before the National Association had completed its scheme of reorganization. The wave of interest created in the plan soon died down. One result remains—that of the recognition of the need of a budget plan. The local units with the help of the State associations are at the point where they are ready to develop plans of their own. Making use of the card index will put the State and National associations into much closer touch with local associations. The budget plan with its savings and other values would certainly result from these contacts in due time.

BUDGET AND EXPENDITURES FOR 1922-23

The budget estimate for next year cannot be put in form until after the completion of the audit of the records of the Association, which is under way as the material for this report goes to the printer. The budget estimate will be given as a part of the report of the Executive Committee. It will be printed and distributed to delegates as early as possible during the week of the convention.

The following is a summary of the expenditures for the year ended May 31, 1923, showing also the estimated budget for the year:

Financial Statement for Year 1922-23

Items	Expenditures for year ended May 31 1923		Budget adopted at Boston for 1922-23
Board of Trustees	$1,562.65		$1,750.00
Executive Committee	4,728.35		4,000.00
General Secretary's Office, including three estimated budgets:			
General Expense			76,100.00
Departments	138,820.47		17,500.00
Printing—general			50,000.00
Printing—*The Journal* and Volume of Proceedings	101,001.30		100,900.00
Express on Volume			
Appropriations for Committees	10,625.18		16,600.00
Declassified Expenses	497.00		500.00
Office Furniture and Fixtures	5,725.46		5,750.00
Annual Conventions:			
Boston and Cleveland	8,892.34		9,000.00
Oakland-San Francisco	750.24		
Auditing Accounts	554.72		600.00
Other Expenses:			
General Publicity	1,521.77		3,000.00
Reclassifying Accounts	300.00		
5	$274,979.48		$285,700.00

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The expenditure for the year 1922-23 constitutes the basis for the budget which will be presented at the annual meeting for the year 1923-24. Great care will be taken in working out the new budget so as to provide a reserve fund.

HEADQUARTERS ORGANIZATION AND WORK

The headquarters staff is responsible for putting policies and plans into effect. Upon the efficiency of its organization and management more than on all other causes, depends the success of the Association's program of service. Following this report of the Secretary are the reports of the directors of divisions, which should be read by every delegate. Each report mentions the leading activities of the division, and either directly or indirectly shows the objectives for the continued development of the division.

PLAN OF ORGANIZATION

There are now seven well-organized divisions in the headquarters organization: Records and Accounts, established in 1917; Field Work, established in 1918; Business, established in 1919; Publications, established in 1920; Research, established in 1922; Elementary School Service, established in 1922; and headquarters of the Department of Superintendence, established in 1922. The Field division is now divided into two divisions, Field Work and Legislative Work, each independent of the other. The title of director is given to the head of each division. The title of first assistant is given to the second in rank in the larger divisions. Some of the larger divisions have subdivisions. The heads of subdivisions rank next to first assistants. Others in divisions are known as assistants. There are now eight holding the rank of director, five holding the rank of first assistant, two serving as heads of subdivisions and about 60 other employees.

The headquarters staff works under the direction of the Secretary and the Secretary under the direction of the Executive Committee. As will be seen by the chart, the Executive Committee receives its authority from the Board of Directors and the Board of Directors receives its authority from the Representative Assembly. The division which represents the Department of Superintendence is different from other divisions in that it works under the direction of the Department of Superintendence except in the additional work which it does for the general Association. The chart shows the present organization of the headquarters office and its relationships.

The vast amount of business transacted at headquarters can hardly be appreciated by those who have not visited the central office. Over 1,500,000 pieces of literature including *The Journal,* the annual Volume of Proceedings, and the more important bulletins were mailed out to members during the past year. Over 500,000 first and second-class letters were sent to members and teachers. These letters contained more than two million enclosures. It requires half a million cards for use in the

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membership records and in the various card indexes in the office. It cost the Association almost $12,000 for postage on the letters and publications which have been sent to the members.

The divisions of the headquarters organization naturally group themselves into two classes: (1) Those essential to the continuance of the organization—Records and Accounts, Business, and Publications. (2) Those which are strictly service divisions—Research, Field Work, Legis-

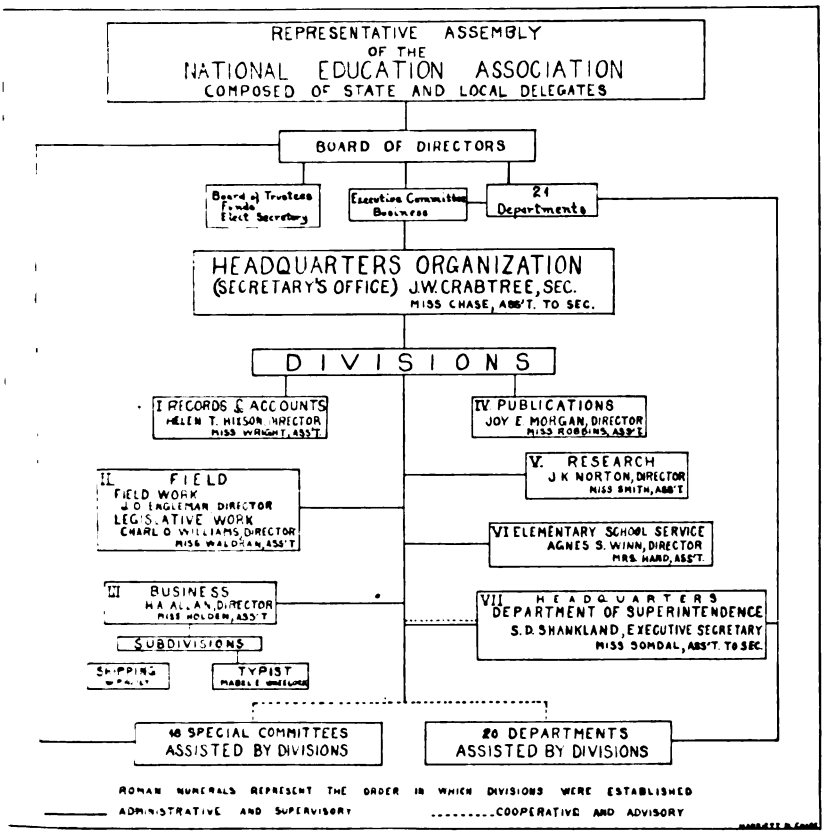


Fig. 3. HEADQUARTERS ORGANIZATION

lative Work, and Elementary School Service. There would be no Association without the first group. The number of employees in each and the amount of work to be done depends mainly upon the size of the Association itself. The second group represents the other subjects of importance to the profession and the schools. These divisions show the nature and the scope of the service which the Association renders to its members and affiliated units. The size of each division in this group may be large or small depending on the wishes of the Representative Assembly and the financial condition of the Association.

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STATEMENTS RELATING TO DIVISIONS

Records and Accounts—The division of Records and Accounts was the first established. In fact, it was about all there was of the Association for many years before it was given the name of Records and Accounts and formally recognized as a division. The report of the director, Mrs. Hixson, tells of its work and its problems. The division is efficiently managed and its work is thorough and accurate. Mrs. Hixson has been connected with the Association for fifteen years. The experts who audit the books each year never fail to give her credit for having the best records they are called upon to audit.

The Business Division—The needs of the Business Division are set forth in the report of the director of that Division. It will be observed that as a result of the recommendation of Dr. Tanner, who recently revised our system of records and accounts, important changes have been made in the organization and work of the division.

The loss of Mr. Erlandson just at the time when the commercial exhibits had been placed on a paying basis and when advertisers were trying out *The Journal* as a suitable medium for their use was a shock and a disappointment. His resignation coming at midyear increased the fear that the Association would suffer financial loss as a result of his leaving. He had proved to be able, efficient, and successful. His reputation became National and resulted in the call which he accepted.

Not once in a hundred times can the Association hope to be so fortunate in filling a vacancy as it was in filling the vacancy in the Business Division. Mr. Allen, prepared by scholarship, contacts, experience, and by natural ability, was not only able to hold the ground which had been gained but to continue the development of advertising, exhibits, and other business enterprises. He is one in a thousand in the important field of business management.

Division of Publications—The Division of Publications expends more than half the income from membership dues. During the present year it has issued over 111,000,000 pages of printed material. The director of this division has been in training for three years under Dr. W. C. Bagley, one of the best writers and editors in America, and already Mr. Morgan himself stands out as a great leader in the editorial field. He is now publishing by far the best magazine of its kind in the world. All his editorial work is outstanding. Read his report for details concerning the work of the division.

The Research Division—The Research Division will be able to carry forward the work now under way and what has been outlined for it for another year on a comparatively small increase in the Budget. It was decided to employ an assistant last year for special work, but owing to a heavy load outside this department, the appointment was not made. It cannot be longer deferred, however. The needs of the division are set forth in the report of the director found elsewhere in this booklet.

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That the work of this division is rendering timely and valuable service is shown by the hundreds of letters received from teachers and superintendents expressing grateful appreciation for help which they have received. Statements from men and women highest in the research work give assurance as to the high standing of the division among those who are qualified to speak on the question. The director of this division, though young, has already been given a place among the leading research experts in the Nation.

Division of Field Work—The resignation of Mr. Magill a year ago was recognized by all as a distinct loss to the Association and to the profession. The vacancy was filled by the election of two field secretaries, Mr. Engleman for field work proper and Miss Williams for legislative work. Each of these subdivisions is treated as an independent division. An outline of the work in each is given later in the report of the director in charge. One person in either division can only touch the high spots, but that is all the Association can do at the present time. No additions to these divisions beyond adequate clerical help is contemplated next year.

Mr. Engleman is a scholar of recognized ability. He is a leader in educational thought. He was rated high as a city superintendent. He is a man of pleasing and impressive personality. He goes out into the field to bring about a better understanding between the public and those who administer the schools. His heart is in the work. His messages are inspiring and constructive. His is a remarkably great service.

Miss Williams, as county superintendent and as president of the Association, demonstrated her ability as a leader close to the teachers and also rather up among those who are in control of large movements. She is a woman of charming personality. She possesses a strength of purpose which wins great battles. She loves the work which has been assigned to her. Her success compares favorably with that of Mr. Magill, a standard that few people in the country could hope to meet.

Elementary School Service—This division is new. It is strictly a service division. Its main purpose is implied in its name. It aids local teachers' associations in working out programs for the year. It puts them in touch with experts in various lines of research and tells them how to find needed information. It answers questions from classroom teachers and gives information concerning their work. The director of this division assists the president of the Association and departments in making their annual programs, and she serves as an assistant secretary to a number of the departments, especially those in the field of elementary education.

The Association placed at the head of this division Miss Winn, one of the most successful classroom teachers in the country and one whose name had become nationally known. Her work is greatly appreciated by all with whom she comes in contact. She is faithful and efficient, and is making an excellent record.

Department of Superintendence—The Department of Superintendence went a year ago located its executive offices at the headquarters of the central Association, and made coöperative arrangements with the central office so that fully half the time of the Secretary of the Department is devoted

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to important work in the general Association. The report of the Secretary of the Department gives the relationships and other details, which all should read. The Department more than pays its own way since the adoption of its new constitution and by-laws and arrangement for department dues. The general Association does not now bear any expenses connected with the spring meeting. The income from commercial exhibits properly belongs to the Department.

The plan of coöperation between the Association and the Department is ideal. The adoption of this plan and the development of a cordial and valuable relationship were due to wise action on the part of the Executive Committee, to the excellent judgment and vision of President J. H. Beveridge, and to the exceptional managing ability of Secretary Shankland.

STAFF PARTICIPATION IN ELECTIONS PROHIBITED

As the Association grows and as its leadership increases, positions of honor become more and more desirable. It stands to reason that the contests for office will become more spirited as the influence and power of the Association increases and that the help of members of the staff will be sought more and more by those managing campaigns. Ethically, members of the staff could not participate in these campaigns. They have no desire to do so. But to protect them, as well as to safeguard the future of the Association, the Secretary recommended in his last annual report that action be taken definitely preventing such participation. This recommendation was accepted and put in form of an order by the Executive Committee at its Boston meeting. In view of this rule, it would be the height of disloyalty for members of the staff to have any part in furthering the interests of candidates for office, and those in charge of campaigns will not expect their help. The observance of this policy goes hand in hand with the wise tenure regulations for the central office, and will, we believe, be duly appreciated by the members of the Association.

EXPANSION OF PLANT

The Association has since the Boston meeting purchased the four properties east of the headquarters building facing on M Street. These consist of a double brick building and of a double frame building. The cost was $55,000. The brick buildings can be repaired at small cost for use for a few years. The frame building can be used only for storage purpose.

In five, ten, or fifteen years, we hope, the Association will build on the new property connecting with the present headquarters building. The total cost of the headquarters plant is $153,000. This could be sold for more than $300,000 owing to the increased land and property values since the purchases were made. This is one of the finest locations in Washington. It may be of interest to know that Sixteenth Street is rapidly becoming to Washington what Fifth Avenue is to New York City.

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ACTIVITIES AND RELATIONSHIPS

The interests of the Association are connected with the interests and success of the affiliated State and local associations. Practically all leading National associations are now attaching importance to education and hence appreciate having coöperative relations with the National Education Association. This is giving combination of influence and power which is duly recognized by the enemies as well as the friends of public-school betterment.

LOCAL ASSOCIATIONS

Only a few of the local affiliated associations are working on educational problems. Some of the organizations in larger cities hold formal meetings regularly, hear reports of committees, and discuss important programs. Very few local associations in the smaller and medium-sized cities do more than hold an occasional meeting to hear announcements of the officers and superintendents. The director of the Division of Elementary School Service has given help to some of these local associations. It is evident that it will require much time and attention on the part of someone to interest all associations in doing systematic work on important problems. Miss Winn will continue this help to these associations on a larger scale during the next year.

The State associations and a few large city organizations are doing associational work of a high order. Especially is this true where a secretary is employed on full time. It is highly important for these associations to meet regularly and to do systematic work on school problems. It is worth while to aid in getting them on a good working basis. The National Association has its foundation in the local and State associations. Since the strength of the structure itself can be no greater than the strength of the foundation on which it rests, it is as necessary to pay attention to the work and program of the local and State associations as to pay attention to the important problems of the National Association proper.

THE ELGIN REPORT

A motion was passed at the Boston meeting of the Representative Assembly directing the field secretary and the director of research to inquire into the report that Elgin teachers had been dismissed from service because of affiliation with certain teachers' associations, and to make a report to the Executive Committee. The report was made after careful investigation, and on the order of the Executive Committee, printed in the November *Journal*. Before it was made a number of communications were received from teachers suggesting the necessity of making other investigations. It was believed that the Elgin survey would be followed by demands for many others throughout the country.

A plan of handling future investigations was proposed. It was thought necessary to set up machinery for this work. But strange as it may seem not a single request for an investigation has since been made by any association. Besides the findings in points at issue, the Elgin Report was an

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able statement of the principles underlying the relationships which should exist between the teachers and the board of education. The report was not entirely satisfactory to either party in the controversy. No one expected that it would be, but it was generally considered a noteworthy report and a fair presentation of the case.

One reason why no additional demands for investigations have come is because the need for them exists in few places in the United States. In order to test this view, inquiry was made in each of the States to find places where investigations were considered necessary by officers of local associations. No new cases were found where the differences were great enough to be referred to State or National committees for adjustment. The local tribunal, the public, proves to be adequate and satisfactory for both teachers and boards of education wherever difficulties arise. The public does not discriminate against the teacher when it really understands the situation. Let us see that the public knows what the schools are doing and what their needs are. Parents are beginning to realize that good schools mean more to them than to teachers. Teachers realize as never before that their success and promotion as well as the success of the schools depend upon cordial relations between teacher and parents. This condition of the public mind and this attitude on the part of the teacher have been brought about largely by the effective work of the National Mothers' Congress and Parent Teacher Associations. While there is no further need at the present time for investigations by the National Association, there always will be need for attaching importance to the best possible understanding between the schools and the public.

AN UNFORTUNATE INCIDENT

One of the most unfortunate incidents of the year is the use which Dr. Pritchett made of the influence of the Carnegie Foundation against the adequate support and development of the public schools of the Nation. The data in his report are so meager and his conclusions so unsound that his arguments are easily refuted. Still it was much easier to reach large taxpayers with the report than it is to reach them with the arguments against it. There is no way of knowing the extent of the harm which has resulted from the generous distribution of the report in places where the school situation was critical.

Effects both good and bad—The Pritchett report has had both an undesirable and a desirable result. It has brought influences to bear on boards of education to reduce school costs. It has not yet changed many salary schedules, but it has caused authorities in places to listen to the suggestion of doing away with some of the supervisors and assistant superintendents. It has led to combining grades and the increased use of half-day sessions. It has also had the desirable result of causing teachers, principals, and superintendents to cease sparring with each other and to work together in furthering the interests of the profession. They have been led to see as never before that a house divided against itself cannot stand. It will not be in the least surprising if this report results in another marvelous increase in membership in the

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Association and in unprecedented team work in the profession. If such a result as that follows it will more than offset the harmful effects of the report.

ADOPTS COMMITTEE REPORT

The adverse action of the U. S. Chamber of Commerce on the Education Bill was not unexpected. In the first place adverse action was taken by the committee of the U. S. Chamber of Commerce. Then the majority and

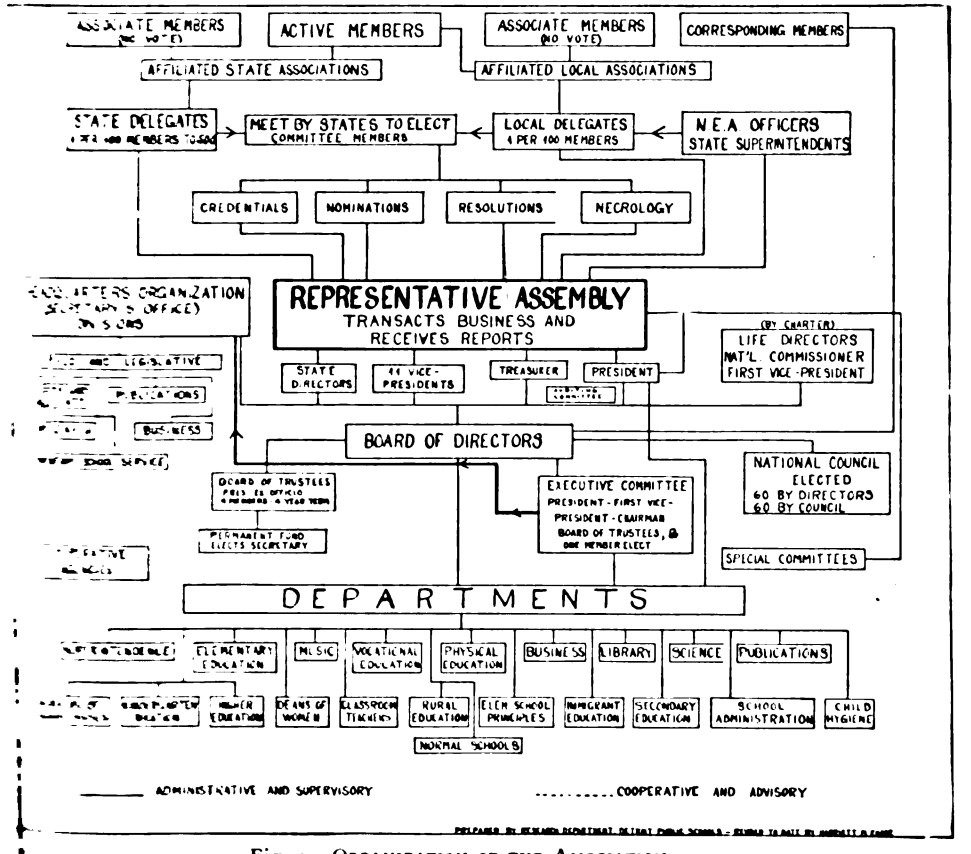


Fig. 4. ORGANIZATION OF THE ASSOCIATION

minority reports were placed before the various Chambers of Commerce in the country. It stood to reason that the majority report would be adopted. The action taken has neither blasted the hopes of the friends of the Bill nor has it inspired hope on the part of the enemies of the measure. In less than six months' time the public has forgotten all about the vote. As a rule people listen when the U. S. Chamber of Commerce speaks. They might have listened this time had the vote been on the Bill instead of being on the adoption of the majority or minority report. Many members say frankly that the Bill did not have a square deal. The total vote showed reasonable confidence in the committee. That is about all that it showed.

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A FIGHT ON LEADERS IN EDUCATION

A fight is on the country over to reduce school costs. It grows out of a general movement to reduce taxes. The enemies of the public schools and those who believe taxes must be cut down to expand industry have joined hands in many places. The former are always glad to weaken the schools by any method, and the latter do not care where the cut is made just so it is made. This is a powerful combination and one which might win out before the public is aware of what is taking place. It has already won out in a few of the preliminary skirmishes, but not in all of them. Nothing except an aroused public sentiment can avert the impending injury to the schools.

These enemies of the public schools are good tactitians. They realize that it pays to kill off the captains, colonels, and generals. It is apparent that there is a well-defined movement having as its objective to weaken the educational leadership in cities and States. Wherever exceptionally strong leaders have succeeded in obtaining increased support for the schools, they have found themselves under fire, provided there were local agencies to assume the responsibility of the attack. The attack is of necessity local, yet it is often plain that it receives its real inspiration from the outside.

In one city a superintendent was responsible for the adoption of the single salary schedule which has become a model for school systems of the Nation, and which increases salaries more nearly to a professional basis. This superintendent found himself vigorously attacked, and an adverse vote in a school election was only averted by last-minute activity on the part of friends of the school in acquainting the public with the designs of the opposition and with the danger which threatened the schools. In another city, where a number of school movements which were attracting the attention of school authorities throughout the country had been launched, the fight was even more bitter, and the unsuspecting public might have lost out had not the opposing forces made the mistake of attacking the motives of the superintendent of schools, charging him with dishonesty and crookedness. The aroused public in each case saved the situation by substantial majorities. There are other striking examples of the effort to destroy the leadership in cities large and small. In a few places the thinking public has been taken unawares. In most cases these attacks seem to come from a local source—political, factional, sectarian, or commercial—but a careful analysis usually shows outside connections and influences.

This movement has put in jeopardy the positions of some of the State superintendents of public instruction. One of the most outstanding leaders in administration and teaching efficiency in the United States could not accept reappointment because of conditions imposed. In this case the causes may be entirely local, yet there is no way of escaping the fact that the question of school costs and the expenses of the headquarters organization were in the minds of many of those who aspired to advise the appointing power. It is also evident that the judgment of the State Teachers' Association and virtually of the entire teaching profession in the State did not receive favorable consideration. Another great State educational leader

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has been forced to battle, if not for his own life, certainly for the life of the most efficient school system in America. There is scarcely a constructive ruler in the States or in the cities who does not feel a pressure which has every appearance of being of organized origin.

Besides the tooth marks of organized effort in the attacks which have been made on educational leaders and on their policies, it stands to reason that men of affairs who desire to reduce school costs would readily see the advantage of crippling or getting rid of the superintendents so as to be unhampered in reducing teachers' salaries and in cutting out supervisors and members of the teaching staff. If true that there is an outside agency paying particular attention to putting superintendents of satisfactory tendencies in positions, there could also be an organized force putting them out of their jobs when their policies are unsatisfactory.

Each year a new emergency seems to present itself. None has been deserving of more serious attention than the present threatened reduction in school costs. No greater harm could come to education than to lose its present outstanding leaders. Shame on those men who would take the funds for paying the war debt out of the allowances for the education of the children of the land. Let the local, State, and National associations meet organized effort with united strength. Let all officers and members become standard bearers for the great cause of school efficiency through adequate school support.

The stock arguments for reducing school appropriations are easily answered. When attention is called to increased appropriations, simply ask whether there is not a corresponding reduction in the purchasing power of the dollar. One pays double the pre-war price for a loaf of bread, for a ton of coal, or for admission to a motion picture theatre. Industry everywhere demands double price for a particular service or commodity. The same inexorable economic laws which make this necessary have also increased school costs. The only alternative would be less efficient schools and this the American people will not permit if they are kept awake to the real issue.

The argument that to educate all the children in the State at the present per capita cost would bankrupt the Nation is most absurd. It entirely ignores the economic value of education. Mr. Frank A. Vanderlip thinks that by educating all the children in the State and by improving the type of the school and the quality of teaching, the increased wealth as a direct and indirect result will much more than offset the increased cost of operating schools. There are Frank A. Vanderlips in every city and State. Find them and get their coöperation in this fight.

The central office looks upon this organized movement to cripple the leadership in the schools and the effort to reduce school costs, as the outstanding emergency problem for the year 1923-24, and would welcome suggestions to provide State and local associations with an abundance of fighting material, and to aid in rallying the friends of education to the defense of adequate support for the schools.

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AMERICAN EDUCATION WEEK

American Education Week was observed in December, 1922, in every State and in almost every community. Its program was under the auspices of the National Education Association, The American Legion, and the U. S. Bureau of Education. The aim of the week was to acquaint the public with the needs of the schools and to consider ways of meeting these needs.

The American Legion uses its forces throughout the Nation to make the week a success and to secure better recognition for teachers and more adequate support for the public schools. The Legion is a new and powerful influence in the promotion of public education.

American Education Week will be earlier next year. It will occur the week before Thanksgiving, November 18 to 24. The general program is now in press. The American Legion will send speakers to every meeting in the United States and provide them with valuable material for programs. The National Education Association will print and distribute 200,000 programs. Its research division will prepare material for *The Journal* and will send out in bulletin form important facts bearing on each leading topic in the program. The U. S. Bureau of Education will again prepare the "broadsides" and other valuable information for schools and speakers. The plan is to begin early in order to reach into every nook and corner of the entire country with information and help for the exercises in November. The Association, the Legion, and the U. S. Bureau of Education all advise those in charge of the exercises not to allow Education Week to be used for propaganda for special phases of education or for special interests of any kind. Hold close to the needs of the schools and discuss ways of meeting these needs.

THE WORLD CONFERENCE ON EDUCATION

The World Conference on Education held under the direction of the National Education Association promises to be one of the most successful and far-reaching of all the world conferences which have been held since the war. It is most fitting for this great conference to be under the auspices of voluntary educational associations rather than under Government control. In the first place the American Government having no National department of education is not in a position to call a world conference on education, and in the second place the red tape of Government would not allow the same freedom in discussion and action which can be had under voluntary associational leadership. All governments were requested to lend their aid in assuring success for the Conference and most of them have responded favorably. The higher institutions and the educational associations of all countries have appointed delegates. It is believed that this Conference marks the beginning of a better understanding between nations. It is certain that it is only through education that nations can learn to appreciate each other. Provision should be made by the Conference and the National Education Association to hold future world conferences under the auspices of national education associations.

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SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

Members may well take pride in (1) the growth and development of the Association during the last five years; (2) the soundness and certainty of its financial resources; (3) the efficiency of the organization of the central office; and (4) in the coöperative relations which have been established with other national associations. Fig. 1 on page 88 shows how rapid and yet how steady the growth. Look at figure 2 and see the increase in monthly receipts from year to year. See also the charts showing the plan of organization of the general association and the one of the headquarters organization. These charts show that the charter and by-laws provide for an exceptionally well-balanced working organization.

The Association has more and more come to see that education is greater than mere teachers' organizations. It shows this recognition by fostering such extra-school activities as that of the Boy Scouts, the Campfire Girls, and other clubs and student enterprises. It shows the same recognition in even a larger way in seeking and profiting from the coöperation with such organizations as the Rotary Clubs, the Kiwanis Clubs, the Lions Clubs, the Pathfinder, and the fifteen other civic service clubs which have arisen out of the failure of Chambers of Commerce, commercial clubs, and other strictly business organizations to get away from the more selfish interests of trade and business long enough to give due consideration to the promotion of the interests of welfare and education.

It has wisely worked out a plan of Nation-wide coöperation with the American Legion, the Federation of Women's Clubs, the American Federation of Labor, the National Mothers' Congress, and a number of other great National organizations. These outstanding civic service clubs and associations are helping discover to the citizens of America the real meaning of education in its relation to social service and to the improvement of citizenship in the Nation.

The Association is definitely committed to continue during the coming year its fight for more adequate pay for teachers, its work for improved tenure regulations and pension laws, its active promotion of the educational bill, its inquiry into school costs and sources of revenue, its secretarial service to departments and committees, and its effective work on the very big items in its platform. It will no doubt arrange at the Oakland-San Francisco meeting to meet the following new needs and demands:

It will urge the budget plan in our school systems and the wisest possible expenditure of school funds. It will devote its best thought to the continued readjustment and revision of courses of study and to the improvement of the teaching service. It will seek to learn the outstanding needs of the schools, and, with the coöperation of the American Legion and other great organizations, make a greater effort than ever before to lead the public to see ways of meeting these needs. It will supply State and local associations with material showing why funds for paying war debts must not be taken out of the allowances for the education of the children of the land. It will certainly extend the S. O. S. call to its educational crusaders throughout the United States to meet on the platform the enemies of the schools, the tax dodgers,

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and others who are trying to force a reduction in school costs. It will take steps to meet the propaganda of organized forces which are attacking the policies and work of outstanding leaders in education. Let the Representative Assembly dedicate itself anew to the promotion of this great program.

REPORT OF THE BUSINESS DIVISION

HAROLD A. ALLAN, DIRECTOR

The following report summarizes the work of the Business Division for the year ended June 30, 1923. During the first half of that year this Division was under the management of my predecessor, Mr. Ray S. Erlandson, to whom the Association is deeply indebted for his efficient direction of its business affairs. The present business manager, upon entering the work February 1, found a splendidly organized division, closely coördinated with other divisions of the headquarters organization and composed of a staff working loyally and interestedly for the Association's welfare.

The activities of the Business Division may be divided as follows: (1) Office management, including (a) purchasing, (b) approval of accounts and checking of appropriations, (c) employment, (d) general typing and clerical service, and (e) shipping and mailing. (2) Business arrangements for printing and publications. (3) Advertising. (4) Conventions, including (a) organization, (b) commercial exhibits. (5) Property supervision.

General scope of the division—From the above outline it may be noted that the Business Division has close contacts with all other divisions of the headquarters' organization, especially as relating to matters of office management, printing, and convention arrangements. The preservation of a proper balance in relationships between divisions is essential. In the management of business affairs it is necessary that the values of outlays proposed be carefully weighed, and when such outlays are not of a routine nature it is often desirable that proposals be discussed with other division heads before authority for expenditure is given. This might be difficult without the present coöperative spirit that is manifested by all division heads. While it is the duty of the Business Division to maintain proper balance between income and expenditure, it does not become necessary for the business manager to be a chronic discourager of expenditure.

Reference to the Treasurer's report indicates the size of the financial problem and the extent to which business problems affect the activities of the Association.

The variety of the duties of the Business Manager is such that it is plain that responsibilities in the various sections of the division must be delegated increasingly to the assistants in charge.

OFFICE MANAGEMENT

Purchasing—The purchase of supplies is carried on through a system of requisition and order. Under this plan heads of divisions indicate requirements, and orders for the same are placed through the Business

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Division. It is understood that no material can be furnished until a requisition is approved and order is issued therefor. Strict attention is given to market conditions.

To further improve the system of purchase and supply, recommendation is made that a store-room be established. Such store-room should be equipped with bins, cases, and shelving, so arranged that all supplies, printed matter, and stock can be cared for adequately. This store-room should be managed on a perpetual inventory system, by which the problem of purchase, supply, and cost distribution can be much simplified. Competent advice has been secured in regard to the operation of such a plan and it will in no way involve additional work on the part of other divisions. It will, however, require the extension of a requisition system to all division requirements, including postage and general office supplies.

Approval of accounts and checking of appropriations—Bills as rendered to the Association, with a few exceptions, pass through the Business Division for checking and approval before going forward to the Division of Records and Accounts. Every effort is made to examine such bills from the point of view of an auditor and to know and make note of conditions relating to the expenditure represented. Careful checking is made with the appropriation out of which the account is paid. All such work is preliminary to the adoption of a complete budget plan, thus following the detailed recommendations of the auditor who reported upon the business methods of the Association.

For the ensuing year it is recommended that all expense be distributed under the heads recommended in the auditor's report. By so doing the Association will have a satisfactory experience upon which to base detailed recommendations for a complete budget. The organization of the business affairs is such that definite steps are being taken as fast as is practicable toward a final and completely developed budget, accounting, and statistical system.

It will be noted that mention has been made that there are exceptions to the rule of reference of bills to the Business Division. Such bills include those payable out of appropriations for departments or committees of the Association where orders for expenditures have not passed through the Business Division. It is recommended that a careful study of conditions be made to determine whether such a plan should be continued, or if it would not be advisable that all bills be referred to the Business Division for verification before going forward to the Division of Records and Accounts.

Employment—Occasional additions or replacements in the clerical force are necessary. An effort is made to coördinate the activities of the various divisions to preserve as nearly an even load as possible. As the load lightens, reductions are made in the temporary staff.

General typing and clerical service—The operation of the section of typists and clerks is very satisfactory. In this section twenty-one persons are normally employed. This flexible unit, reasonably versatile, under generally competent direction, has made it possible to render unusual service

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to the division of the headquarters organization, and to meet competently all demands of pressure and drive. The expense for the work as carried on in this section is distributed among the divisions. To simplify the matter of distribution of charges and to make it possible to follow more closely the relative order and importance of demands, a system of requisition for such service is recommended. Such system should apply also to all work done in the multigraph, addressograph, and mailing sections.

Shipping and mailing—Within the year a change in the method of mailing *The Journal* has been effected. Under the present plan this is done by the printer, the journals passing directly from the trimming machine to the mail sacks. As a result reduction has been made in the mailing-room force. The increased number of publications, the frequency of demands for them, and the special mailing lists for *The Journal* and the Volume of Proceedings tax the energies of the present mailing-room force.

BUSINESS ARRANGEMENT FOR PRINTING

Reference to the report of the Division of Publications indicates the extent of the problem of business arrangement for printing. *The Journal* and the Volume of Proceedings are printed under terms of detailed contracts. Bids and estimates are obtained for various other publications. Great care is taken to keep printing costs as low as quality and service will permit.

The operation of the multigraph section is proving to be economical for the Association. By far the greatest amount of "stock printing" of smaller size material is taken care of by multigraph.

ADVERTISING

The Journal has achieved a splendid record and well-deserved growth as an advertising medium. The following table shows the amount of advertising carried and compares the advertising income with printing costs:

TABLE 1

THE RELATION OF ADVERTISING PAGES TO READING PAGES, AND THE RELATION BETWEEN ADVERTISING RECEIPTS AND PRINTING COSTS OF THE JOURNAL

Month	Number of pages	Number of copies printed	Printing costs	Number of pages of advertising	Advertising receipts as billed
1922					
September	68	130,000	$8,482.87	19	$4,820.24
October	68	130,000	8,960.47	20	5,613.44
November	68	130,000	8,387.83	16	4,210.36
December	68	130,000	8,582.75	18	4,666.39
1923					
January	68	130,000	8,681.01	26	6,778.77
February	68	130,000	8,618.38	28	7,340.26
March	68	125,000	8,481.66	22	5,635.36
April	68	125,000	8,542.08	22½	5,640.18
May	68	125,000	8,403.85	21¼	5,505.96
June	68	123,000	8,200.00	22¾	5,905.90

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Advertising receipts should be more than sufficient to meet printing costs. This may be done either by increasing advertising rates or by increasing the number of or the proportion of advertising pages. A combination of these methods is likely to be most effective, but as the amount of advertising increases, or if effort is to be made for its increase, some reorganization within the Division must be made.

Advertising in *The Journal,* both as a service to members and as an income producer, requires the undivided attention of one person. Recommendation is made that a relatively slight addition be made to the amount available for clerical services in the Business Division. If this is done it will be possible for an assistant to the Business Manager to assume greater responsibility in the advertising field and to assist directly in developing new advertising. The assumption of this responsibility must permit the assistant to be relieved from other routine duties, especially details of office management. There can be no question of the wisdom of such additional expenditure, as the follow-up work alone on advertising will produce much more income than the additional expense proposed.

CONVENTIONS

Organization—To the Business Manager is entrusted the preliminary work of organization for the annual meeting of the Association and similar work relating to the Association proper in connection with the annual meeting of the Department of Superintendence. Such preliminary work consists in meeting local leaders and assisting in all preparations for committee organization, meeting places, exhibits, State headquarters, registration headquarters, housing, and printing. Such arrangements include preliminary visits to the city in which the convention is to be held and continued contacts with local leaders up to and during the meetings.

Commercial exhibits—The development of the commercial exhibits of the Association appears to be entirely satisfactory. Under the direct management of the Association these exhibits are valuable features of both meetings of the year. They can be said truly to be educational in their aim. In order to increase their effectiveness the coöperative display by exhibitors should be encouraged.

PROPERTY SUPERVISION

Needed repairs have been made during the year on the property of the Association at 1201 Sixteenth Street N. W., Washington, D. C. The continued increase in property value emphasizes the wisdom of the purchase of this property. This increase may be estimated conservatively at more than fifty per cent.

The purchase of the three-story brick building at 1541-43 M Street and of the two-story frame building at 1537-39 M Street have been completed, and a careful study has been made of the most effective methods of utilizing them for Association needs. The brick building which immediately adjoins the main property of the Association can be directly connected and used for

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the housing of some of the divisions. The wooden building will afford storage place for volumes and other publications.

Tentative plans have been prepared for necessary remodeling, reconstruction and connections. To carry out these plans the sum of $10,000 should be appropriated. This amount would include the addition of a low-pressure steam plant to serve the brick building. In addition to this the sum of $1200 should be appropriated for the construction of service bins and cases in the store-room, which should be located in the rear of the brick building, and for proper shelving for the printed matter to be taken care of in the wooden building.

The main building of the Association is in first-class condition. As soon as possible, however, an appropriation of $5500 should be made for the installation of a modern heating plant.

SUMMARY OF RECOMMENDATIONS

1. That the system of requisition and supply be extended to include a perpetual store-room system, and that $1200 be appropriated for construction of suitable bins, cases, and shelving.

2. That all business transactions of the Association pass through the Business Division.

3. That a complete system of classification of accounts be adopted and that all necessary preliminaries to a complete and detailed budget plan be carried out.

4. That as a means of increasing the advertising revenue and bettering business service, the funds available for clerical assistance in the Business Division be increased by $900.

5. That the sum of $10,000 be appropriated for remodeling the property at 1541-43 and 1537-39 M Street N. W.

6. That the amount of $5500 be appropriated for the installation of a modern steam-heating plant in the property at 1201 Sixteenth Street N. W.

CONCLUSION

The remarkable growth of the Association has required many adjustments to meet the demands of increased service, but the sound and stable financial methods have remained. This no doubt is due in part to the wise provisions of the Charter and By-Laws. These have prescribed the methods of expenditure of appropriations and have safeguarded the permanent funds of the Association. Fully as important a stabilizer is the element of faithful discharge of duties by officers and employes and ceaseless and untiring effort on the part of the Secretary to guide wisely in the Association's membership and financial programs. The continued success and progress of the Association is assured so long as these conditions remain.

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REPORT OF THE DIVISION OF PUBLICATIONS

JOY ELMER MORGAN, DIRECTOR

This report covers the work of the Division of Publications for the period between July 1, 1922, and June 30, 1923, under the headings (1) *The Journal*, (2) Proceedings, (3) Other Publications, (4) Publicity, (5) The Headquarters Library, (6) Growth of the Division, and (7) Conclusion.

THE JOURNAL

Growth in *The Journal* has been on the side of content rather than of increased number of pages. Each issue has consisted of sixty-four pages and cover, which may now be regarded as the minimum. As soon as feasible the number of pages should be increased to one hundred, which may be regarded as a maximum. This would enable us to meet reasonable demands for space without sacrificing that variety of content and breadth of appeal which is necessary if *The Journal* is to commend itself to the increasingly large membership of the Association. There is always the balance to be maintained between material that appeals to a small or special group and the wish of the rank and file to have a considerable volume of material of more general appeal.

There have been two meetings of the Editorial Council under the chairmanship of Dr. William C. Bagley. A meeting was held at Boston in July, 1922, and another at Cleveland in March, 1923. These have been the best meetings the Council has had and, supplemented by a large volume of correspondence, have built up a considerable body of expert opinion as to what *The Journal* should be. Frequent letters have been sent to the Editorial Council reporting plans and asking for specific suggestions, which have been given generously. To the inspiring leadership of Dr. Bagley and the help of the Council and the whole-hearted coöperation of the officers and members of the Association, combined with the faithful work of all members of the headquarters staff, is due the striking growth of *The Journal* in the brief two and a half years of its existence.

The field which a journal shall occupy is not easily defined. There are certain principles which govern the selection of material and its arrangement, but these are only the framework. The development of a journal is like the construction of a great building. Back of the plan are the needs of those who are to be served. Around these needs the architects and engineers plan the building months before the actual work begins. So it is with the journal that is to serve in any broadly useful fashion. The general plans for *The Journal* are laid far ahead. The actual building of a given number begins monthly before it appears. Education is never a perfected process. Our ideals are always beyond our grasp. So it is with the content of *The Journal*. We are obliged to make the best of the materials we have while seeking always to obtain better materials. An educational journal may build itself around the manuscripts that come regularly to it, or it may assume a creative attitude and reach out to encourage thinking along educational lines by asking for articles on special

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subjects. The second plan is the aim of *The Journal*. Certain material comes to it as a matter of routine. Other material grows out of the Association's meetings. Certain editorial material must be prepared by the staff. These classes of material are rounded out and balanced by articles presenting new phases of education or old phases in new ways. Search for such articles involves continuous study and correspondence. The ideal is a perfectly written article on a timely and interesting topic by the one person who is best qualified to speak on that subject. But this ideal of author, subject, and style is rarely attainable. Many articles are outlined for whom authors cannot be obtained. Many articles are promised that are not delivered. Many are delivered that require revision. Some prove entirely unsatisfactory and must be returned. Out of the continuous search here described comes the mass of manuscripts which, supplemented by those that are voluntarily sent in, furnish the material for *The Journal* that monthly goes to the Association's membership.

PROCEEDINGS

The volume of Proceedings for 1922 is the largest in the history of the Association. The increase in size is due to the addition of material describing the official activities of the Association, including matter once published in the Association's Yearbook, and to the increased activities of the departments. Because of other publications recently established, which are sent to five-dollar members, it is now necessary to reduce the size of the Proceedings. Eleven hundred pages has been set as a desirable standard for 1923. The Executive Committee at its Cleveland meeting adopted a schedule for the various departments distributing this space and instructed the Division of Publications to follow these allotments of space, making due allowance for exceptional situations.

Under this plan of space allotment the officers of the departments have been asked to decide so far as feasible the selection and arrangement of material for their respective departments. From experience with the Cleveland meetings it appears that this plan will work admirably. The official report of the Department of Superintendence, the work on which was done largely by the Secretary of the Department, Mr. S. D. Shankland, has been printed and distributed in advance to members of the Department. The proceedings of the Cleveland meetings of the National Council of Education, Departments of Rural Education, Elementary School Principals, Vocational Education, and Deans of Women are already in type.

The Proceedings for 1923 will be volume sixty-one of a series which began in 1857. No other single set of books on education is so voluminous, so rich, and so varied in content as this eight-foot shelf of addresses and proceedings that for sixty-six years has recorded the thousands of addresses that have been made by leaders in education before the National Education Association and its departments. Its use by students of education throughout the world is testimony of the worth of the Association's meetings as aids to educational progress.

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OTHER PUBLICATIONS

The publications other than *The Journal* and Proceedings have increased greatly. The table on the next page shows a summary of the Association's publishing activities for the year. The total number of pages published during 1922-23 was nearly 111,000,000—an increase of over 46,000,000 pages. These figures do not include the *Journal of the Department of Rural Education* and certain other material published outside the headquarters office.

Although the editorial work on some of these publications is done largely in the divisions where the material originates, the increase in amount of material handled by the Division of Publications has been much greater than the increase in staff. Attention should be especially called to the establishment of certain new bulletins which will greatly strengthen the work of the Association. The *Research Bulletin* has been regularly entered as second-class matter to be published five times each year. This bulletin contains in attractive form the facts collected under the able direction of Mr. John K. Norton and demonstrates that such facts can be made available to educational workers much earlier than has been done heretofore. This bulletin is considered the most valuable thing of its kind in the educational field. The *Bulletin of the Department of Elementary School Principals* has also been entered as second-class matter and is now in volume two. During the present year it has been under the editorship of Mr. W. T. Longshore, principal of the Greenwood School, Kansas City, Missouri, who has made it a great force in developing the professional consciousness of principals throughout the Nation. Under the guidance of its secretary, Mr. S. D. Shankland, the Department of Superintendence has issued a yearbook and an official report of its Cleveland meeting. Next year these publications are to be issued as second-class matter in a series of quarterly bulletins.

PUBLICITY

The Association's publicity activities have included (1) general publicity extending throughout the year, (2) special publicity in connection with annual meetings, and (3) American Education Week.

To encourage newspapers and magazines to feature education on their own initiative as the common responsibility of all citizens has been the primary aim in this work. The most that the Association can do is little indeed as compared with what it can get others to do as their share of the common task. The Association should lead the way and keep educational publicity on a high plane. The Division has had extensive correspondence and personal conferences with editors of newspapers and magazines. It has endeavored to furnish them suitable material and advice or to put them in touch with others who would do so. The series of articles in the *Ladies Home Journal* did much to stimulate interest in education. The

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Title	When published	Number of pages in each	Number of copies	Total number of pages
Journal of the National Education Association	September, 1922-June, 1923	68	1,280,000	87,040,000
Addresses and Proceedings	Jan., 1922	1,511	7,500	11,332,500
Research Bulletin No. 2	Nov., 1922	40	25,000	1,000,000
Research Bulletin, Vol. 1, No. 1	Jan., 1923	64	8,000	512,000
Research Bulletin, Vol. 1, No. 2	March, 1923	72	10,000	720,000
Research Bulletin, Vol. 1, No. 3	May, 1923	32	10,000	320,000
N. E. A. Press Service	July, 1922	52	2,500	130,000
N. E. A. Press Service	Feb., 1923	40	2,000	80,000
Press Reprints for Journal	.....	..	.....	23,330
Program of Boston Meeting	July, 1922	80	14,000	1,120,000
Report on Salaries, Tenure, and Pensions	July, 1922	8	2,000	16,000
Report of the Tenure Division	July, 1922	10	2,000	20,000
Report on Rural Education	July, 1922	8	2,500	20,000
Report on County Superintendents' Problems	June, 1922	12	2,000	24,000
Report of Legislative Commission	July, 1922	16	3,000	48,000
Report of Legislative Commission (Reprint)	.....	8	2,000	16,000
Report on Coördination of Research Agencies	July, 1922	8	2,000	16,000
Report on Health Problems in Education	July, 1922	8	2,000	16,000
Report on Revision of Elementary Education for 1921-1922	July, 1922	12	2,000	24,000
Report on Financing Delegates to the Representative Assembly	July, 1922	4	2,000	8,000
Report of the Executive Committee for the Board of Directors	July, 1922	8	2,000	16,000
Reports of the Treasurer and Board of Trustees	June, 1922	16	2,000	32,000
Program of the Cleveland Meeting	March, 1923	48	10,000	480,000
Department of Superintendence Yearbook	Feb., 1923	212	3,400	720,800
Official Report	June, 1923	144	2,500	360,000
Elementary School Principals' Bulletin, Vol. 2, No. 1	Oct., 1922	40	4,500	180,000
Elementary School Principals' Bulletin, Vol. 2, No. 2	Jan., 1923	40	4,000	160,000
Elementary School Principals' Bulletin, Vol. 2, No. 3	April, 1923	64	4,000	256,000
Department of Elementary School Principals Yearbook, Vol. 2, No. 4	July, 1923	336	3,000	1,008,000
Report of Special Committee on Education (Chamber of Commerce)	Nov., 1922	80	6,000	480,000
Report of Committee on Teaching of Democracy	June, 1923	40	1,000	40,000
Why Support the Towner-Sterling Bill?	Jan., 1923	6	23,300	139,800
Our Association	Nov., 1922	16	13,100	209,600
American Education Week — Program, 1922	Oct., 1922	6	150,000	900,000
American Education Week — Program, 1923	May, 1923	6	150,000	900,000
Membership Literature and Circulars	.....	..	.....	2,500,000
Reprints from Proceedings	.....	..	.....	11,400
Total				110,879,430

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work of *Collier's* in this field is well known. Other magazines of like influence are planning to feature education extensively. More and more newspapers are assigning educational news as a special field to some competent member of their editorial staffs.

The country is now flooded with regular news releases sent out weekly from thousands of propaganda organizations. Publicity departments have been created which feel that they must send out this material even if no real news exists. The inevitable result has been to fill newspaper offices with material which quickly finds its way into waste baskets. The best practice is now to avoid the word "publicity," using instead the phrase "information service," and to exercise unusual care to send out only material of genuine news value. The directors of other divisions of the headquarters staff are encouraged to turn in news material to be distributed through regular channels. By the addition of other help as indicated elsewhere an assistant editor can be assigned for intensive publicity work on the Education Bill and American Education Week.

Publicity for meetings—The publicity in connection with the Boston and Cleveland meetings was unusually satisfactory. The Boston papers reported meetings more fully than they have ever before been covered. The work of the *Christian Science Monitor,* which issued special editions, was particularly noteworthy.

The publicity for the Cleveland meeting was greatly strengthened by the addition to the staff of Dr. W. Carson Ryan, professor of education at Swarthmore College and associate editor of *School and Society*. Dr. Ryan practically took charge of the publicity staff during the meeting, leaving the director of the Division free for the many personal conferences and official meetings that are increasingly necessary if the work of the Division is to be most effective. The liberal attitude of the newspapers of Cleveland and Boston in giving freely of their space to education shows what can be done in cities where newspapers are thoroughly alive to the basic importance of public education.

Much publicity has already been given to the Oakland-San Francisco meeting. Contacts have been made for publicity not only through newspapers and magazines but also through radio and motion pictures. Publicity thus obtained for the Association and its meetings if paid for at regular rates would cost hundreds of thousands of dollars.

American Education Week—American Education Week has rapidly extended its influence throughout the Nation. In addition to the material which the Association has issued through *The Journal* and through research bulletins, other organizations and agencies have been given help in their special publicity campaigns. From a publicity standpoint the earlier date that has been set for American Education Week in 1923 is most advantageous, and the fact that the program was available in May has enabled us to make plans for publicity through scores of other organizations. Educational journals are already planning special editions, which

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will feature educational needs and accomplishments in their respective States. American Education Week gives the people of the Nation an opportunity to pause in their busy lives to take stock of education and consider means to provide for its adequate development.

THE HEADQUARTERS LIBRARY

A special library was recommended in the report of the Division of Publications for last year. It has not been possible to develop this library as such, but much material has been collected by the Research and Publications Divisions. A committee was appointed by President Owen to report to the Executive Committee plans for a special library. This committee, which consisted of the Directors of the Divisions of Publications and Research and the Director of the Department of Superintendence, has submitted plans which recommend that the budget presented for adoption at Oakland provide $8000 for the development of this library. The existence in Washington of the Library of Congress and the admirable collection in the U. S. Bureau of Education will make unnecessary large expenditures by the Association for library purposes. Only those services and collections should be provided which are needed for immediate use and which cannot be otherwise secured effectively.

GROWTH OF THE DIVISION

The publishing activities of the Association have grown with surprising rapidity, and still greater growth may be expected during 1923-24. Because of the relatively small income of the Association and the demand for funds in other directions it has not been possible to make increases in the editorial staff to correspond with this growth in working load. The staff of the Division includes, in addition to the director, an assistant editor, Miss Jessie M. Robbins; a secretary, Miss Lillian Wheelock; and two editorial clerks, Mrs. Bertha M. Robbins and Miss Helen A. Moore. Additional help has been obtained from the stenographic section as needed. Miss Moore, who has been on the temporary roll, should be added to the list of permanent employes. Each member of the staff has done excellent work. There has been unusual growth in service and an appreciation of the significance of the daily task that has made the work of the year genuinely delightful.

There should be added to the staff of the Division next year a second assistant editor and at least one additional editorial clerk. One assistant should be an expert in adapting material for magazines and newspapers. This recommendation is in harmony with the policy of the Executive Committee to have the minimum force for adequate service and to do the maximum amount of work with the minimum expenditure.

CONCLUSION

This report merely suggests the basic importance and potential development of the Association's widening publishing activities. The Proceedings

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are monumental evidence of the power generated by threescore annual meetings and the reports of notable committees, which probably more than any other one factor have shaped the development of American education. The Research Bulletins have made available much information of priceless value. The publications of several of the departments are now as voluminous as were the publications of the entire Association during the first twenty years of its history. *The Journal* stands at the base of the Association's annual pyramid of over one hundred eleven million pages of publications—the one publication that reaches the entire membership regularly. This membership is now far beyond the point where it can be reached personally and through meetings. The future growth of the Association and the extension of its influence will depend largely upon the genuine merit and intrinsic appeal of its publications. It is the largest publisher in the world of literature on the problems of education. Upon its ability to make its publications a vital service to the rank and file of the Nation's teachers, spreading abroad their worthiest ideals and best practices, will depend in large measure its power to enlist the profession and influence the development of American education. America's vast material achievements have made it the dominating power in world affairs. From its pinnacle of influence it can to a remarkable degree shape the educational and spiritual affairs of the world. Sound and adequate education in America, properly sympathetic and coöperative with similar efforts in other countries, is the goal of the National Education Association. The publications of the Association are more and more helping to make this goal the common objective of all thinking citizens.

REPORT OF RESEARCH DIVISION

JOHN K. NORTON, DIRECTOR

I take pleasure in submitting a report covering the work of the Research Division during the past year.

THE RESEARCH BULLETIN

The following Research Bulletins have been issued since May 31, 1922:

Facts on the cost of public education and what they mean—A 64-page bulletin which (a) analyzed some of the factors resulting in the increase in the cost of public education, (b) gave data relative to teachers' salaries, and (c) presented facts concerning the professional status of the teacher.

Facts for American Education Week, 1922—A 40-page bulletin presenting information on outstanding educational questions now confronting the Nation.

Research Bulletin of the National Education Association, Vol. 1, No. 1, January, 1923—Facts on State Educational Needs, 64 pages. This bulletin, prepared with the sessions of the State legislatures in mind, ranked the States on a number of items closely connected with educational development. With this number the Research Bulletin became a regular publication of the Association to be issued five times each year—in January, March, May, September, and November. The Research Bulletin will be the vehicle by

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which the data resulting from the work of the Division will be presented in detail for use of Association members.

Research Bulletin of the National Education Association, Vol. 1, No. 2, March, 1923, 72 pages. This bulletin presented data relative to the Nation's ability to support education and contained the preliminary tabulation of the data secured by the inquiry conducted by the Salary Committee.

PREPARATION OF SPECIAL MATERIAL

The Division has prepared several pamphlets and articles for use in the Association's legislative program. Most of the statistical material appearing in "The Towner-Sterling Bill, Legislative Commission Series No. 3," was collected by the Division.

A series of articles "Prepared by the Research Division" have appeared in *The Journal* as well as other material, such as "With the State Legislatures." The preparation of readable articles based on exact data should be one of the important functions of the Division.

DEPARTMENTAL AND COMMITTEE WORK

The Division attempts to keep in close touch with the research activities of the departments, committees, and commissions of the Association. It has been able to prevent some duplication of effort and to aid in the coördination of the large amount of investigation carried on under Association auspices.

The Division has assisted the progress of the important work being carried on by Mr. Jesse H. Newlon and his Commission on the Coördination of Educational Research. This work is described in Teamwork in Educational Research, which appeared in the April *Journal*, page 160.

An inquiry prepared by I. G. Sargent, chairman of the Committee on Educational Progress of the Department of Elementary School Principals, was sent out and the results compiled by the Division. The rapid growth of this important Department will result in the Division being called upon frequently for this type of service.

A preliminary inquiry was sent to all local affiliated organizations for the Department of Classroom Teachers. This is the first step in a comprehensive program of investigation of subjects of vital interest to classroom teachers that the Executive Committee of this rapidly developing Department has outlined with the Director of Research. During the coming year the continuance of this important program of work will require a large amount of work by the Division.

The work of sending out and tabulating the results of the inquiry conducted by the Salary Committee of which Dr. E. S. Evenden is chairman, was performed by the Research Division, as was the preparation for the printer and final editing of the comprehensive report just issued by the Salary Committee.

The inquiry of the Salary Committee is representative of a type of endeavor that is becoming characteristic of the Association. The need

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for the inquiry was recognized by the President of the Association, who appointed a salary committee charged with the responsibility for making an investigation of the salary situation. This committee determined the scope and method of making the study and then turned over to the Research Division the actual work of collecting and tabulating data.

The advantages of this type of procedure are these: (a) Investigations of the Association are directed and formulated by school experts of vision and experience, (b) The valuable time of these experts is given wholly to the broader aspects of their studies rather than to the details of collecting and tabulating data, (c) Information collected becomes available promptly, in good form, for the use of school people in general, (d) Committee reports are based upon carefully collected data and concern themselves with the proper interpretation of these data, and (e) Duplication of effort by different committees can be prevented and better coördination effected.

It should be the policy of the Division to continue and extend its participation in this type of work as rapidly as facilities permit. Through it the Division should greatly increase the effectiveness of the work of the Association's numerous commissions and departments, as well as bring about a greater unity in their objectives, both of which will increase the Association's effectiveness as an instrument in advancing the cause of education for which it exists.

SPECIAL SERVICE

The Research Division is called upon to answer from ten to twenty requests each day from its members and other organizations calling for statistical information on educational subjects. Many of these letters cannot be answered as can most correspondence. They involve search through school reports, and may require a special inquiry to collect information not available.

This work should be developed as rapidly as facilities permit. Its emphasis should be guided in the direction of performing service of the type which is outlined in the March Research Bulletin on page 85 under "Special Salary Service."

The Research Division should be developed to the place where it will be recognized as the agency which above all others is capable of supplying prompt and exact information on a number of questions of vital importance to the welfare of the teachers of the Nation and their efficiency as public servants.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Commendation is due Miss Marguerite E. Smith and Mrs. Ada B. Boyd for their efficient work. The accuracy which has marked the Division's reports is due to the exactness of their work.

RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The Division's program of research thus far has dealt largely with questions of educational finance or with problems that have a general relation to this subject. It is believed that this policy should be continued during the

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coming year. Present indications are that the problems revolving about educational finance are to be more rather than less acute. There is especial need for exact work having as its objective the determination of how the school money available may be more effectively used. The method whereby State equalization funds may be distributed with the best educational results still has to be solved. How may teachers' salary schedules be administered so that the children may be best served? How may the money available for school buildings be made to go farthest and secure the best results in building equipment? These questions are of vital importance, and it is in this general field that the Research Division may render the greatest service.

BUDGET

The Budget recommended and approved at Boston for the Research Division for the year now ended called for an expenditure of $18,000. Other demands of the Association have necessitated a curtailment of this amount. The Division has cost approximately $15,000 of this sum. The saving was effected by not appointing the Research assistant recommended at a salary of $3000. This curtailment has been cheerfully accepted, because of other needs, in spite of the fact that it has necessitated postponing the development of several important lines of work.

The Division Budget recommended below for the next year includes the salary of a research assistant and a slight increase in other costs made necessary by the growth of the Division's work:

Salaries	$16,750
Printing	3,500
Postage	500
Traveling Expenses	750
Office Equipment	300
Office Supplies	250
Total	$22,050

This budget would cover the cost of transferring the Research Division to the third floor of the Association's building as contemplated in the report submitted relative to the development of the Association's library. This transfer is urged at the earliest practical moment in order that the quiet and protection from distracting influences especially desirable in the type of work performed by the Research Division may be obtained.

REPORT OF THE DIVISION OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL SERVICE

AGNES S. WINN, DIRECTOR

The following is a brief survey of the work of the Division of Elementary School Service from September 1, 1922, to July 1, 1923. This division was created last September for the purpose of giving assistance to the classroom teachers of the country either through their organizations or individually when such help is desired. This is in accord with that part of the Association's platform which pledges "active assistance to State and local affiliated associations."

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In the development of this division, as in that of all others at headquarters, its activities have reached out far more than could be anticipated. Furthermore, the work of the National Education Association, as carried on through the headquarters staff, is of such a nature that the activities of each division are interdependent upon those of the others, and it is impossible and undesirable to draw the lines closely between the duties of each. The outstanding objective of every duty performed in this division has been that of "service." With this in mind, the work might be conveniently summarized under the following heads: (1) Service to the Association (a) through secretarial work for a number of its departments and (b) through carrying out plans for the annual meeting; (2) service to affiliated organizations; (3) information service to individuals and institutions.

Service to the Association—It has been the privilege of the director to act as headquarters secretary for nine of the departments of the Association and a number of allied organizations The aim has been to keep their officers in touch with the activities at headquarters and to give them assistance, if they so desire, in preparing their summer programs. The Department of Classroom Teachers and the Department of Science Instruction have availed themselves of this service in carrying out plans for stimulating interest and growth of membership in their departments. A large number of questionnaires and letters have been sent out for them.

This division has been represented at the Executive Committee conferences of the Department of Classroom Teachers and has kept in close touch with its officers. These relations have done much toward strengthening the ties between this large group in the profession and the parent organization. For the strength and influence of the Association, like the strength of the Nation, depend upon unity of purpose and action, and upon holding the interests of the profession as a whole above any class or individual.

Much of the work of the Oakland-San Francisco meeting, including correspondence regarding the general program and the programs of the departments and allied organizations, thirty-six in number, has been done in this division. The assembling of these programs, their preparation for publication, and the handling of requests for information concerning the meeting have consumed a large share of the time of the division during the last four months.

Affiliated organizations—Early in the fall a letter was sent to forty-four large local affiliated organizations of classroom teachers asking for information concerning their professional, social, and civic activities, to be used for the purpose of assisting other organizations and answering concretely inquiries about organization work. Letters have been sent, at the request of the president of the Department of Classroom Teachers, to the officers of some seven hundred affiliated classroom organizations to find out the problems which they would like to see worked out. Assistance has been given to many of them in planning their professional programs for the year. In replying to letters from classroom teachers requesting

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help, every opportunity has been used to get the program of the Association before them. A message from the National Education Association has been sent to each of the local bulletins or magazines published by classroom teacher organizations. Help has been given to those who are planning to launch publications.

Letters have been sent to officers of local organizations concerning the status of the Towner-Sterling Bill. A beginning has been made in the organization of speakers' bureaus among the classroom teachers, and many are doing effective work for the Bill.

Information service—Inquiries from members and others requesting information extending in range from the present value of the German mark to facts about teacher training, schoolhouse planning, and free textbooks, indicate more and more that the people in the field are looking to the National Education Association for leadership and assistance in their problems. The most frequent requests pertain to membership in the Association, the curriculum, intelligence tests, rural schools, Americanization, vocational education, school costs, motion pictures, salaries, tenure, pensions, and the reorganization of city school systems. Many of the inquiries received can be answered by reference to the Association's files, but it is often necessary to draw upon other sources of information, fortunately so abundant in this city, including the National Geographic Society, the Library of Congress, U. S. Bureau of Education, Smithsonian Institution, and others. We wish to acknowledge the assistance so generously given by members of the Staff in our efforts to accede to these requests satisfactorily and promptly.

More than one hundred different subjects have been included in the general requests that have been handled in this office, exclusive of those concerning membership, the activities of the Association, and the annual meeting. A careful record has been kept of the requests for service so that we may know what information is in demand. This should help to determine the future needs of the Association. We are looking forward to the day when the Association has its own library.

Occasionally opportunities for wider publicity than can come through individuals present themselves. This division has prepared, for various publications, articles on the Association and its work, including one which is to be published in the Yearbook of the New Americana Encyclopedia. In response to many inquiries which reach headquarters concerning the history and professional program of the Association, early in the fall, a booklet of information on its history, organization, and program of service was compiled and widely distributed. The director has worked with the Division of Publications in preparing articles for *The Journal*.

The following recommendations are submitted for your consideration:

1. Inasmuch as the service work of this division extends beyond the needs of those interested in elementary education to educators of every rank, including high school teachers, principals, superintendents, supervisors, officers of other National organizations, and publishers, the name might well be changed to School Service.

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2. In consultation with the director of the Business Division, a more comprehensive filing system should be worked out in order to handle requests for information and material more expeditiously. Much time and energy could be saved by having more space for material.

3. The second assistant in the division to be placed on the permanent list of employes at a suitable salary.

4. The plan of assigning the different members of the headquarters staff to act as headquarters secretary for the different departments of the Association, as recommended in the Secretary's report last year, has been followed and has worked out fairly well. However, experience has shown that it will be more convenient and more economical if this work is concentrated in one, or at most two, of the divisions, rather than to have it scattered among several. I recommend, therefore, that those departments and organizations holding sessions at the time of the winter meeting be assigned to the executive secretary of the Department of Superintendence, and all others to some one division.

In conclusion, I wish to express my appreciation of the valuable assistance I have received from you and the other members of the Executive Staff in developing the information service. The weekly conferences of the directors of divisions have given us all a more sympathetic understanding of the work of each division and the program of the Association. I wish to heartily commend the faithful and efficient services of my secretary, Elizabeth Hand, and my stenographic assistant, Gladys Cockerille, both of whom have shown remarkable growth in responsibility and initiative. Miss Cockerille has been in the office only since March 1, but through her accuracy and reliability she has already proved her value to the Association. I recommend that she be placed on the permanent roll next fall. I am looking forward with great anticipation to the further development of this division along the lines of service to the members of the Association.

REPORT OF FIELD SECRETARY, FIELD DIVISION

J. O. ENGLEMAN, FIELD SECRETARY, FIELD DIVISION

It pleases me to submit the following report of my work, showing my aims and objectives.

My present duties began October 1, but I have already traveled nearly forty thousand miles; gone six times to Washington to the headquarters' office; spent a minimum of time in interviewing members of Congress in behalf of the Association's legislative program; sent several thousand letters to legislative workers throughout the country in behalf of the Towner-Sterling Bill; addressed a dozen State associations or big divisions of State associations of teachers; the Inland Empire Teachers Associations, representing the States of Washington, Oregon, Idaho, and Montana; sixteen normal schools, teachers' colleges and universities in half as many States, and scores of smaller groups of teachers, city and county, parent-teacher associations, and civic bodies, such as Chambers of Commerce, Civic Leagues,

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Advertising, Rotary, Kiwanis, Optimist, and other clubs, high schools, commencements, and various other organizations in smaller numbers.

The unusual amount of traveling and the great amount of speaking involved in the program of work as I have conceived and carried it out, have been trying at times. Indeed, I found my throat unequal to the demands upon it for weeks, and as a result I had to cancel a number of important engagements in April and May.

I have been inspired and buoyed up by the challenge of a task so great and a cause so worthy, and I have been heartened and encouraged by the numerous expressions of appreciation that numbers have sent me concerning the Association's service to the schools and the teachers of America.

The heavy traveling expense involved in keeping a secretary in the field most of the time has been met by honorariums from the organizations served. Itemized statements of my daily receipts and expenditures from November 1, 1922, to May 24, 1923, are in your hands.

Indeed, I need only to say here that while a very few individuals and organizations have assumed and sometimes stated that the National Education Association should supply the service of its representatives without any obligation upon the recipient of such service, nearly all organizations and institutions served have recognized that the least they can do is to bear the traveling and local expense involved in such service. This they have done in most cases freely and voluntarily. The generosity of some organizations has offset and balanced the unwillingness or inability of a few others, so that the National Education Association treasury has thus far been called upon to bear my salary but not a dollar of other expense incurred in rendering field service.

The more specific aims I have formulated and kept in mind in my work as Field Secretary include the following, which may be taken to indicate the objectives for the Field Division.

1. To inform teachers of the great contribution the National Education Association has long made in educational leadership; to make it known that not only through its two big annual meetings, but through the work of its various committees, valuable coöperative studies have been made that have raised teachers' salaries, modified organizations of school systems, formulated statements of aims and objectives, improved courses of study, developed a technique of tests and measurements, raised standards of teacher-training, changed out-worn methods, developed and popularized standards of school building and equipment, and in other ways made every teacher in America debtor to it, whether a member of the organization or not. It is in the light of a clear understanding of this service in the past that we justify our appeal to teachers for membership at present.

2. To show what the National Education Association is doing now through it varied departments at headquarters—*The Journal*, the Department of Research, the Department of Classroom Service, the Department of Legislation and Field Work—all given direction and coördination by the Executive Secretary.

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3. To address groups of business men and civic bodies with talks that set forth the real work and worth of their public schools, and point out the dangers arising from policies of retrenchment that would cripple the schools.

4. To reduce the misunderstandings and friction, where they are found, between groups that need each other even though they become more conscious of clashing interests than of mutual bonds.

5. To speak before students in normal schools and teachers' colleges as widely as possible, thus sowing the seed that will result in an earlier harvest of professionally minded teachers, ready to do group work when they enter the profession.

6. To speak often in churches and to parent-teacher associations, to knit more closely the influence of church, school, and home in their joint task of training children for lives of happy useful service.

7. To mature and promote interest in the Association's Education Bill, and to secure for it the *active* support it must have when the way is clear, or the time is propitious for clearing it, for its further consideration in Congress.

8. To render any other educational service possible in the light of my own background when asked to appear on programs with addresses not compassed by the foregoing.

9. To advise headquarters of such tendencies, movements, papers, and studies discovered in the field as might be of value to *The Journal*, the Research Department, or other activity of the office.

10. To go to Washington often enough to keep in touch with the work at headquarters and to be able, as a result, to represent it adequately and intelligently in the field.

11. To coöperate with the Executive Secretary, State directors, and superintendents of schools in promoting campaigns for membership.

12. To work definitely and specifically for the promotion of the Towner-Sterling Bill whenever and wherever it has been feasible to do so.

13. To inspire the teachers of America with my own deepest conviction that our responsibility is one for shaping the ideals and modifying the social and moral attitude of the generation we are training. It is not a responsibility that is ours alone, but it does need to be felt keenly by us if we discharge the large part that belongs to us. We need the dynamics of a conviction that knowledge, intelligence, and skill must be supplemented by personal integrity, ethical conduct, and wholesome social attitudes and relations to be of real worth today. If the National Education Association can popularize this truth to which teachers give ready intellectual assent; if it can energize it and make it *felt* as well as *thought*, its greatest work is done.

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REPORT OF FIELD SECRETARY, LEGISLATIVE DIVISION

CHARL O. WILLIAMS, FIELD SECRETARY, LEGISLATIVE DIVISION

I am pleased to submit a brief summary of my activities from November 1, 1922, to June 30, 1923. They include 25 field trips made in 16 States; 8,530 form letters and 4,240 personal letters sent out; 15,661 pieces of literature distributed, and approximately 700 conferences held both in and out of Washington. The expenses of these field trips, together with some honorariums, have been paid in nearly every instance by the localities which I have visited. These have been turned into the treasury of the Association. They have amounted to more than my total traveling expenses for this period of time.

I am deeply indebted to Mr. Crabtree for his sympathetic understanding and for his untiring interest in all that pertains to our division and to every member of the headquarters staff for the painstaking advice and generous assistance they have cheerfully given me whenever it was sought. Coöperation is the guiding principle of that faithful group of men and women at the National office, and without it the above report could not have been made.

Intelligent, conscientious, and faithful service has been rendered by Miss Callie Waldran and Miss Martha Lavisson who have done the secretarial and stenographic work of the office. Their responsibilities will increase as the work grows, but they are fully capable of assuming such responsibilities as are assigned to them and of discharging them with credit to the Association. The vast correspondence, the careful filing, and accurate tabulation which should be a part of this division will necessitate the addition of another clerical worker to our force in September.

It has been a pleasure to be associated with Mr. Engleman in this great undertaking, and we have coöperated to the extent that his work almost wholly in the field and my work in the office have made possible. Mr. Engleman stands ready at all times to transfer his activities now in the field to the National Capital whenever it may seem to be for the best interests of the Education Bill. We shall at all times be glad to share with him the responsibilities and the privileges connected with this great enterprise.

The Chairman of the Legislative Commission will give in detail the status of the Towner-Sterling Bill, which will be reintroduced in the Sixty-eighth Congress, and known as the Education Bill, and we need not review the situation here. Our one task is to maintain an unflagging interest in the two main provisions of the Bill to which we have pledged our unswerving support not only among the members of our own profession but among the hundreds of thousands of men and women who have enlisted their interest in behalf of public education in America. The progress which we shall be able to make in the next Congress will be determined by the extent of our own active interest in this measure and by the progress which the Reorganization Committee of Congress may be able to make with its program for the Reorganization of the Executive Departments of the Government. If we should not be able to obtain action

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on the Bill in the next Congress, it is none the less our duty to go straight forward in our campaign for it with unimpaired faith and redoubled zeal, for a cause which has for its ultimate object the welfare of the childhood of America, and the making of better citizens for this great Republic of ours can have but one outcome.

Conforming to the wishes of the Executive Committee I have in my efforts "to develop lay support for the program of the National Education Association" established friendly and coöperative relations with the National organizations that are behind our program and others whose assistance we hope to obtain. Among these are the women's organizations whose membership totals millions. The representatives in Washington of sixteen of these organizations have united to form the Women's Joint Congressional Committee, a clearing-house for their work, detailed information concerning which was sent recently to all of the officers of the National Education Association. In brief it establishes a definite time and place for meeting the National representatives of the organizations who are favorable to our Education Bill, and it affords an opportunity likewise to meet in friendly fashion those whose support we would like to enlist. Eight of these organizations have endorsed the Bill and we hope to secure in the near future the endorsement of at least two others. Each member organization agrees to contribute at least $10 a year to defray the incidental expenses of the Committee. After giving the matter due consideration the Secretary, upon my request, applied for membership for the National Education Association and appointed me as its representative and Miss Winn as alternate. We hope that this step will have the approval of the Executive Committee. I have already met the State and National leaders of three of these groups in their National conventions and I shall attend two other conventions immediately following this meeting. The consideration which has been accorded your representative in these conventions and other meetings is a symbol of the high regard and esteem in which they hold the National Education Association and an evidence of their confidence and faith in the leadership of our organization.

The interest in our legislative program is growing daily as attested by the numerous requests for information concerning it which come to us from every point in the United States and from people in every walk of life. We have met these demands to the best of our ability, but we believe that information should be made easily available to the people in the towns and cities and even in remote districts, and furthermore that when possible it should be given to them by word of mouth. In order to accomplish this next big task we must have the hearty coöperation of several hundred of the most enthusiastic and interested members of the Association. With this idea in mind a speakers' bureau is being organized and patriotic, public-spirited men and women representing every phase of activity in the profession are daily coming forward and pledging their best services as "educational crusaders" in the most significant movement that has as yet engaged the imagination and energy of the teachers of this country. This list of

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speakers will be printed in pamphlet form and distributed widely among our supporting organizations and among those who need and ought to have our help.

In order to further interest the teaching profession in the work for the Bill we are asking every summer school in America to have at least one speech about the Association's legislative program, and whenever possible to organize groups for discussion of its principles, and the means by which it may be enacted into law. A sufficient number of letters from directors of summer schools have already come to me to warrant the prediction that at least 200,000 teachers in America during July and August will be so instructed and inspired that they will join hands enthusiastically with the Educational Crusaders in the effort to enlist Nation-wide support for our cause. The strength and value of this service cannot be overestimated.

Requests for articles and editorials and opportunities to place them in magazines, newspapers, and educational journals have been so numerous, oftentimes urgent, that it would be well worth while, if the finances of the Association will permit, to employ such a writer on our force who, in addition to this work, will prepare attractive, purposeful pamphlets, leaflets, and bulletins for use in our own organization and among those who work with us. There are 433 congressional districts in the 48 States, and there the battle will be largely, if not wholly won. We need to enlist by every legitimate means the active support of every member of every organization that has endorsed the Education Bill.

So great an epoch in the life of our Association is the work for a Department of Education with a Secretary in the Cabinet of the President and Federal aid for the promotion of education within the States that we have thought it wise to preserve for future use the record of the work of the Association in this field, and to date we have compiled two large loose-leaf volumes containing valuable and interesting material bearing upon it. The work of *The Journal* in the promotion of our legislative program is of inestimable value, and every article and every editorial directly relating to the Bill has been carefully preserved.

No report of mine as Field Secretary would be complete without recognition to the fullest extent of the masterful piece of work, as speaker, writer, organizer, and director of legislation, which was done by our first Field Secretary, Mr. Magill. Beginning with the foundation which he so painstakingly laid we have gone forward with the work and have followed in his footsteps wherever it was possible to go. His loyalty to the National Education Association and his devotion to the Education Bill have made it possible for me to call upon him frequently for advice and assistance, which he has given in the conscientious, unbiased, generous fashion so characteristic of him. We cannot raise the ideals of the Association higher than did Mr. Magill; we shall do well if we live up to them.

The National Education Association has not yet extended its frontiers to their farthest limit, even in the States, notwithstanding the fact that

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Hawaii has the largest proportional membership and that the ties are being rapidly developed in Porto Rico and Alaska. Nearly one half of the Nation's children are being taught in rural schools today and a regrettably small percentage of those teachers hold membership in the National Association. There are definite reasons for this condition. Many of those teachers are immature, inexperienced, and untrained; their salaries are low, and the school term of short duration. Unfortunately the county and district superintendents have not been able to furnish the leadership in this field. Elected under political conditions in most States and working also with low salaries and uncertain tenure without the clerical and supervisory assistants necessary where the activities cover so wide a range, these brave men and women have "carried on" with courage and optimism and have a record of achievement that deserves the recognition and support of the entire profession. We need to enlist more of our rural teachers and rural leaders in the National Education Association so that we may put 100 per cent of our strength behind the legislative program, which is the beginning of the solution of many of the complex problems in rural education.

We need to bear in mind that a great movement such as we have initiated is not the work of a day or of a year. History points to notable instances where great causes have been won only after many trials and tribulations which extended over long periods of time. Those who are familiar with the history of equal suffrage in America ought to take heart at the progress already made in our cause no less worthy. The courage and fortitude and determination of those brave leaders not to yield to their enemies in the face of almost insurmountable obstacles will furnish for all time inspiration to those who are struggling in behalf of right and justice. When we shall have secured for education the recognition which its fundamental purpose in a democracy demands, and when the full history of America shall have been written, the courage and tenacity and vision of our own leaders will form a striking parallel to those pioneers in this other movement whose names are written in imperishable glory.

I wish I were ten people. I could keep them all busy. The invitations which come from the field are so alluring and the opportunities for real service so many and so great that the times have been numerous when it was exceedingly difficult to make the best and wisest choice of activity. In the main I have devoted my efforts largely to the promotion of the Education Bill, and henceforth this work will have to take precedence over all other lines of endeavor. I desire above all things to record my full appreciation of the whole-hearted and timely assistance which has been extended to me from hundreds of our members all over the country through correspondence and through conferences. To this kind of coöperation the success of our cause will be due more than to any other single factor.

The responsibility for the Education Bill is ours. We cannot and dare not shift it to other shoulders than our own. If we do we shall forfeit the confidence and esteem among our supporting organizations which we

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now hold in such generous measure. The cause for which we strive is sane enough, sound enough, and forward-looking enough to challenge the active support of all the teachers of the States. I have faith in them, 700,000 strong, and in their earnest desire and ability to move onward to the next great milestone in the educational history of America.

REPORT OF EXECUTIVE SECRETARY OF THE DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE

S. D. SHANKLAND, EXECUTIVE SECRETARY

I have pleasure in submitting herewith a report of my work since September 1, 1922.

The Department of Superintendence—The National Association of School Superintendents, organized at Harrisburg, Pennsylvania, in August, 1865, became the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association at a convention held in Cleveland, Ohio, August, 1870. The Des Moines convention of the National Education Association made certain amendments to the by-laws to facilitate plans for enlarging the activities of the Department of Superintendence, which were put into full effect at Chicago, in February, 1922, when the Department adopted its constitution under the new plan of organization. The full text of this constitution, together with the formal reports of the Department of Superintendence for the calendar year 1922, were published in the first Yearbook, which was distributed at the winter meeting in Cleveland. It is appropriate here to refer to certain matters presented therein.

The financial statement for the year ended December 31, 1922, showed receipts of $13,617.56 and expenditures of $13,175.84. The Chicago convention cost $6,566.50. All other expenses were $6,609.34. The Cleveland convention cost less than $5,000. The saving thus effected made it possible to print the convention addresses in an official report of 144 pages. By strict economy the president and executive committee hope to meet all obligations and close the year without a deficit.

By action of the Boston convention, which was approved by the executive committee of the Department of Superintendence, the profits from the commercial exhibit at Cleveland were divided equally between the Department and the parent Association, each organization thus deriving funds for convention expenses.

The principal source of revenue, however, is the membership fee of $5. Funds already received will pay all fixed charges and leave a modest sum for printing. Every new membership means better service for all members. A vigorous campaign will be prosecuted to secure a material increase in enrolment.

The principal subject matter of the First Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence was the report on The Status of the Superintendent. A committee to study this subject was authorized at the convention in 1920 and appointed by President Calvin N. Kendall. Replies to a ques-

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tionnaire prepared by the committee were received from 1181 superintendents. The task of tabulation and interpretation was efficiently done by Professor B. C. Douglass, of the University of Vermont. The first published list of members of the Department was included in the Yearbook. The Official Report of the Cleveland convention was made possible by the coöperation of the National Education Association in allowing the use of the type prepared for the Volume of Proceedings. A new departure will be the publication of a Quarterly of the Department of Superintendence. The first issue will be ready in September and will feature an article on school buildings by Superintendent Randall J. Condon, of Cincinnati.

Other departments and associations—Pursuant to the policy adopted by the Boston convention, a member of the headquarters staff at Washington is assigned to care for the interests of each of the allied departments and associations. It has been my pleasure and duty thus to represent seventeen groups. Some of them require help in convention plans only, while others with special projects under way need considerable attention.

Department of Elementary School Principals—One of the assignments given to me was the Department of Elementary School Principals. This department was first recognized at Des Moines in 1921, and since that time has made remarkable progress. It now enrolls over two thousand members. It publishes a quarterly bulletin, of which Mr. W. T. Longshore, Greenwood School, Kansas City, is editor. The articles in the Bulletin deal helpfully with the problems of elementary school principals. The First Yearbook of the Department of Elementary School Principals, entitled The Technique of Supervision, was issued in June, 1922. This volume, which was edited by Mr. Worth McClure, of Seattle, Washington, was in immediate demand, and the entire edition was exhausted early in November. The subject of the Second Yearbook, just published, is The Problem of the Elementary School Principal in the Light of the Testing Movement. The editor, Mr. John L. Bracken, of the U. S. Grant School, Duluth, Minnesota, has brought together contributions which have direct practical value in the elementary schools.

Few, if any, groups have greater possibilities of usefulness in the development and administration of wise and helpful educational policies than have the principals of the elementary schools. Their direct contacts reach teachers, parents, children, and administrative officials. My connection with the Department of Elementary School Principals has been notably happy.

An appreciation—This is a suitable opportunity to express my sincere thanks for the friendly and helpful attitude of the officers of the National Education Association in the work of organizing the Department of Superintendence under the new plan and with its greater program. Special appreciation is due the members of the headquarters staff who have been constantly ready to help, and cordial and sympathetic in attitude. Without their coöperation the task would have been difficult, if not impossible. My assistant, Miss Anna C. Somdal, has served the Department with marked efficiency.

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Education in America is again approaching one of those crises when courage and broad vision are especially essential. There are forces at work to reduce the financial support and to weaken the moral fibre of American schools. The united strength and wisdom of all branches of our profession will be none too great to meet these new attacks and insure continued progress. To these ends may I pledge you my personal support and the coöperation of the Department of Superintendence.

DIVISION OF RECORDS AND ACCOUNTS

HELEN T. HIXSON, DIRECTOR

Owing to the late date at which the Association's accounts are audited the report of this Division will be published with the Treasurer's report which is printed later. Mrs. Hixson is assistant treasurer.

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ACTIVE MEMBERSHIP FOR LIFE

At the Des Moines meeting in 1921, the plan of having life memberships in the National Education Association was adopted. Upon the payment of $100, the person granted a life membership receives throughout his lifetime the *Journal of the National Education Association,* the volume of Proceedings and other important publications. The list of life members to date is as follows:

LIFE MEMBERS FOR 1922-23

Abbott, Amanda, Grafton, West Virginia.
Anderson, Marie, Specialist in School Organization, Chicago, Illinois.
Aydelotte, Frank, President, Swarthmore College, Swarthmore, Pennsylvania.
Bagley, William Chandler, Teachers College, New York City.
Bingham, Robert W., President and Publisher, *Courier Journal, The Louisville Times,* Louisville, Kentucky.
Burke, Marguerette R., Public Schools, Omaha, Nebraska.
Canine, E. N., Superintendent of Schools, East Chicago, Indiana.
Carlson, Philip E., Principal, Roosevelt High School, Minneapolis, Minnesota.
Carpenter, Estelle, Director of Music, San Francisco, California.
Chapman, Ira T., Superintendent of Schools, New Brunswick, New Jersey.
Clark, M. G., Superintendent of Schools, Sioux City, Iowa.
Clerk, Frederick E., Superintendent of Schools, Winchester, Virginia.
Cook, William Adelbert, Department of Education, Vermillion, South Dakota.
Cort, Ambrose, Principal, William J. Morrison School, New York City.
Crabtree, J. W., Secretary, National Education Association, Washington, D. C.
Cromwell, Agnes, New York City.
Cunningham, James D., Principal, Newtown High School, Elmhurst, Long Island, New York.
du Pont, Pierre Samuel, President, du Pont Powder Plant, Wilmington, Delaware.
English, Harry, Secretary Board of Examiners, Washington, D. C.
Fuller, George W., Principal, Meriweather Louis School, Ivy, Virginia.
Grayson, John D., Fairmont College, Wichita, Kansas.
Haas, Francis B., Bureau of Administration, Department of Public Instruction, Harrisburg, Pennsylvania.
Hart, Nellie C., Elementary School, New York City.
Hewett, Elizabeth, Public Schools, Omaha, Nebraska.
Hines, Linnaeus Neal, President, Indiana State Normal School, Terre Haute, Indiana.
Hosman, Everett M., Secretary, Nebraska State Teachers Association, Lincoln, Nebraska.
Jensen, Ida Christine, Primary Teacher, Los Angeles, California.
Keesecker, Thomas E., State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Lansing, Michigan.
Kern, Olive M., Principal of Public School No. 120, New York City.
Keyser, James Herbert, Secretary, Pennsylvania State Education Association, Harrisburg, Pennsylvania.
Landrum, Robert E., Superintendent of Schools, Altoona, Pennsylvania.
Leonard, Abby Porter, Principal, Public School No. 1, Bronx, New York City.
Lindeberg, Arthur E., Assistant Director of Education, St. Croix, Virgin Islands.
MacCracken, John Henry, President, Lafayette College, Easton, Pennsylvania.
McCormick, Elizabeth R., Principal, Franklin School, Superior, Wisconsin.

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Magill, Hugh Stewart, International Sunday School Council of Religious Education, Chicago, Illinois.
Morgan, Joy E., Managing Editor, *Journal of the National Education Association*, Washington, D. C.
Muir, James N., Superintendent of Schools, Bethlehem, Pennsylvania.
Newlon, Jesse H., Superintendent of Schools, Denver, Colorado.
Nichols, Walter H., Principal, Palo Alto Union High School, Palo Alto, California.
Oberholtzer, E. E., Superintendent of Schools, Tulsa, Oklahoma.
Patterson, Mrs. Edith McClure, Home Economics Division, General Federation of Women's Clubs, Dayton, Ohio.
Sealey, R. M., State Inspector of High Schools, Tallahassee, Florida.
Seerley, Homer Horatio, President, Iowa State Teachers' College, Cedar Falls, Iowa.
Sims, John Francis, State Normal School, Stevens Point, Wisconsin.
Smith, Henry Lester, Dean, School of Education, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana.
Strayer, Mrs. George D., Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.
Swan, Natalie, New York City.
Thalman, John W., Superintendent of Schools, St. Joseph, Missouri.
Thalman, Joseph Luther, Principal, Proviso Township High School, Maywood, Illinois.
Walters, Rolland J. D., Superintendent of Schools, Rocky Ford, Colorado.
Webber, Elmer H., Superintendent of Schools, Mapleton, Maine.
Williston, Edith Holmes, Department of Modern Languages, Providence Technical High School, Providence, Rhode Island.
Wilson, Harry Bruce, Superintendent of Schools, Berkeley, California.
Woodward, Annie Carleton, High School, Somerville, Massachusetts.
York, Lewis E., Superintendent of Schools, Massillon, Ohio.

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GENERAL SESSIONS

OAKLAND–SAN FRANCISCO

THE IDEALS OF THE AMERICAN PUBLIC SCHOOL

HARRISON S. ROBINSON, PRESIDENT, CHAMBER OF COMMERCE
OAKLAND, CALIFORNIA

I speak not only as a friend and advocate of the men and women who constitute the teaching force of our community, but also as a critic—not always a satisfied one—of their methods, results, and sometimes of their aims. I shall try to present what I conceive to be the state of mind of a significant portion of our people on the subject of education—people who are not professionally interested or technically informed, but who do care about it tremendously. I shall attempt to deal only in fundamentals.

Education has two purposes: First, to help the youth to acquire a knowledge of the true values of life and a determination to live his life in terms of those values. Second, to help the youth to acquire such general and special fact information and such ability to use the faculties and the knowledge he possesses that in the environment and conditions of his generation he may succeed in living a life of real value to himself and to his fellowmen. The relative importance of the first is greater than that of the second. Right thinking and right living are more important than merely skillful or brilliant thinking or living.

More and more will the teacher in the public schools take a place with relation to children which was once held only by the clergyman and the parent. Not that there is or will be in those schools the teaching of sectarianism, but increasingly will the public-school teacher seek to implant in the youthful student the sturdy seeds of high ideals and sound principles of life not religious history nor sectarian doctrine, but those truths which ten thousand years of human experience have made articulate—such truths as we find in the ten commandments and in the Sermon on the Mount.

The teachers, who for the greater part of all of a youth's waking hours, during the most plastic period of his life, have the opportunity to implant sound ideals of living are the greatest potential power for good in this country.

The parents have the children for meals and a little while in the evening. The clergyman *may* have them a part of the Sabbath and on special occasions but the teachers have them for most of the daylight hours, five days a week. From whom will they get their most complete impressions of what life is all about?

I have spoken of the goal of education—that set of things we want to achieve by it. But before the product can come forth there must be the process of education and the machinery by which the process is carried on.

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Some people have a belief, and we say it kindly, that the process phase of education is in a disturbing—even painful—state of evolution.

We believe that the incomparable way to learn is to live, that fact information acquired in the process of living is ours to keep and to use as no other information is, and we at least sense the enormous difficulty of applying this principle generally in our schools.

But we do want improvement in the processes of education and we wish you would from time to time tell the public about your accomplishments in that regard.

Another thing. The men who have to take and work with the products of the public schools want to see the young men and young women give more evidences of disciplined faculties. We want them to be able to do something accurately and well. We are offered too many sloppy products of the public schools—sloppy in bearing, in raiment (I am thinking of boys), in mind, in action. We business men ask you for more evidences of discipline in your work.

And now we come to the machinery of education, that machinery by which the processes of education are carried on—and the goal lost or won. It is here that the school administrator, the school teacher, and the citizen of the school district meet and agree—or disagree. The machinery phase is expressed in land, buildings, equipment and supplies; in superintendents, principals, teachers, and janitors—money, jobs, the exercise of power, and the performance of duty.

It is around the machinery phase of education that ninety per cent of all public discussions of education revolve. We started talking about ideals—and that is not ideal. With almost no public attention to the processes or the results of education, we have been filling the air with clamor about its machinery.

It is the least difficult phase of education. Locally, our people have already insisted that the matters of physical plant, salaries, and personnel be periodically settled on a clearly stated, business-like basis. That our school department shall be an educational institution wherein the superintendent, his assistants, the principals, and the teachers shall throw all the ability, the force, the devotion, the imagination, and the love of their lives into the development of our growing generation, year by year making the methods and conditions of education better and better, the products of our schools finer and abler.

Our people have come to a realization, publicly and emphatically expressed, that the machinery of education—even the splendid human part of it—is a means and not an end. They have demanded, and they will not be denied, that the administrative and teaching staffs be allowed to devote themselves primarily to the processes and results of education.

The public, usually through its school board, will express its decision as to policies—how much we shall spend for education, in a general way what it shall consist of, what shall be its goal. But those policies being

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determined, they want politicians and even Board members to keep their hands off the administrations of the public schools.

Our country's greatest growth and achievement in the last fifty years has been in industry. For the next fifty years the greatest needs and possibilities of our country are in education—education as I have defined it—which includes the teaching of the essentials of life that underlie all true religions and philosophies, as well as information and the ability best to use our facts and our faculties.

If our ideals of education are achieved, our race will be dominated and perpetuated by men and women both good and able, and the achievement will have been that of our public schools.

THE PAN-PACIFIC UNION AND EDUCATION—ABSTRACT

FRANK F. BUNKER, EXECUTIVE SECRETARY OF THE PAN-PACIFIC UNION
HONOLULU, TERRITORY OF HAWAII

Youth should no longer be taught that the world is made up of a loose aggregation of parts, but that it is an organic whole with all of its parts knit together in vital relationship. They must be taught to think in terms of the whole world and not in terms of one of the lesser parts. We must also insist that the old belief is erroneous that when God made the races He made some races superior and other races inferior and that He intended that this status should remain unchanged throughout all time.

The Pan-Pacific Union, while recognizing that there are biological differences among races, believes that the thing that most emphatically declares that a man is a Japanese, a Chinese, an Englishman, or an American is not primarily the color of his skin, the shape of his head, or his stature, but the system of culture into which he has been born.

This distinction between our biological and cultural heritages is important. In it lies the hope of education as a method of drawing peoples together into harmonious adjustment. For, through education and through education alone can entrance be gained into that growing group of kindred spirits of whatever race, known as citizens of the world. The ignorant are occupied within the narrow limits of their own personal self or of their own state or nation. The ignorant live within a narrow circle of conscious relationships. They do not perceive that they are bound to their fellows and to their surroundings by myriads of invisible ties and that whatever benefits one or injures one, benefits or injures all. Education alone can break through the prison walls of ignorant men and set them free to be joined in a higher union which embraces the understanding spirits of all the world.

But this process of education must be grounded in love, for all too frequently educational methods touch only the intellect leaving the heart stone cold. Carlyle uttered a truth when he said that for right judgment of any man, it is essential to see his good qualities before pronouncing on his bad. One of the world's sages, with profound insight, has remarked that we

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can never gain a true view of man unless we love him. He made this statement because he recognized that man is essentially spiritual and that spiritual contact with another can be had only through love. But just as education without love is hard and cold, so love without knowledge is soft and sickly. A mere sentimental upwelling of emotion towards the people of the earth, of the universal, generalized, and sniffling type is worthless. On the other hand, that love and appreciation which comes from the knowledge of why one's neighbor, near or far, is what he is, is of the highest order.

Whether the stupendous readjustments which must be made as the earth grows smaller and smaller and our population grows larger and larger are to be effected without further resort to the ruthless method of the jungle, depends upon whether in the minds of men, education and love keep pace with scientific advance—and draw a circle big enough to include the whole of mankind.

ADDRESS OF WELCOME—ABSTRACT

MAYOR JOHN L. DAVIE, OAKLAND, CALIFORNIA

Mayor John L. Davie in extending this morning an address of welcome to the National Education Association, now meeting in Oakland-San Francisco, touched upon the rapid growth of Oakland, of which he is the head, and his pleasure in being given the opportunity of extending a welcome to a convention of this nature.

"The city of Oakland," said the Mayor, "has the present distinction of having one of the most progressive and best-known school systems in the United States of America. This is due in no small measure to the untiring efforts of our superintendent of schools, Mr. Fred M. Hunter, the former President of this great organization. I am indeed glad to welcome this Association to our city. It is a moment to which we have been looking forward for many months."

Mayor Davie then dwelt briefly upon the wonderful future which the city of Oakland faces, that Oakland is a natural gateway to the Orient, that California's most fertile agricultural lands comprise the "back country" from which the city receives its great support.

Mayor Davie also called attention to the fact that Oakland is rapidly becoming one of the leading industrial cities of the Nation. Articles of every description are manufactured in Oakland and find their way to market in ships built in Oakland. During the war twenty-five per cent of the steel ships built for the U. S. Government were launched in Oakland's harbor. "Oakland will soon be known as the Detroit of the West. There is over $1,000,000 annual value in the automotive products turned out of Oakland factories, and additional eastern motor vehicle and accessory manufacturers are continually coming to this city.

"Oakland as a city has such a wonderful future," said the Mayor, "that we of today must face the problems of a metropolis of the future to meet

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particularly the continual growth of our population. We have just completed a construction program involving the building of $5,000,000 worth of new schools. They are no more than complete than we find ourselves faced with the necessity of another bond issue to provide additional adequate facilities for the children of the people who are here and of the people who are coming here in ever-increasing numbers.

"We have an ideal climate; our city is one of the healthiest in the United States. That our city has achieved a National reputation as a city of homes is one of the features which makes it attractive to the manufacturer seeking a Western location."

In closing the Mayor extended a most cordial welcome to the delegates and again expressed his pleasure at the privilege of welcoming them to Oakland.

ADDRESS OF WELCOME

WILL C. WOOD, STATE SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION
SACRAMENTO, CALIFORNIA

Mr. President and Fellow Teachers: California greets the teachers of America! California bids you a hearty welcome in keeping with the hospitable traditions of the romantic West.

"Welcome" is a word peculiarly Californian. "Welcome" was the first word spoken by dusky natives when Juan Cabrillo, the discoverer of California, brought his storm-tossed galleys to anchor in the peaceful harbor of San Diego almost four hundred years ago. "Welcome" was the first word spoken by the Franciscan padres to the *gentilidad* of California when they came to the early missions to learn the meaning of the white man's cross. "Welcome, stranger" was the greeting of the hardy forty-niner to the lonely tenderfoot when he cast his lot with them,

> In the days of old,
> The days of gold
> The days of forty-nine.

It is "welcome" spoken to strangers from every land who come westward in never-ending caravans, that has changed California in less than seventy-five years from a wilderness into a great thriving commonwealth of four million souls.

Into the greeting I am commissioned to extend the members of this great organization who have honored us by their presence I put special heartiness because California believes firmly in education and in educators. California believes in education, because education is one of the chief sources of her greatness. Having read and heard much concerning the riches and glory of the Golden State, you have undoubtedly assumed that nature is responsible for all. Indeed, God has liberally blessed the State in which you have assembled. California has been endowed with wonderful natural resources—

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with soil of almost unbounded fertility; with climate enabling us to grow all things needful for the life of man; with oil and other mineral resources comparable with the richest resources of the earth; with beautiful mountain streams that serve for recreation, for electric power, and for the watering of our plains and valleys; with magnificent harbors inviting the trade of the seven seas; and with great trees so old that they might have been made into lumber when the Christ Child was cradled at Bethlehem.

But the people of California know that the real wealth of the State is not in natural resources, marvellous as they are. The substantial wealth of California is in the men and women who command the natural resources and bring them into the service of man. Before the coming of the white man, California was even richer in natural resources than it is today. The soil was quite as fertile; the climate quite as salubrious; the forests more extensive; the streams quite as rich in potential energy; the harbors quite as inviting and the rocks even richer in minerals and metals. But the wilderness that was California two hundred years ago might have been purchased from the Spanish king for a single nugget of gold. What has transformed California from a wilderness where a scanty Indian population struggled for a poor living into a great commonwealth alive with energy and teeming with wealth? It is intelligence applied to natural resources that has wrought the miracle. It is schools and colleges which have developed the minds of men and women enabling them to make the natural resources serve the purposes of civilization.

When the prospector, with pick and shovel, had worked out the pockets of gold; when the miner had taken from the smaller mountain streams their wealth, California turned to science for assistance in searching for the gaudy metal. She founded schools of mines wherein men were trained to explore the bowels of the earth for precious quartz. Success attended the enterprise—a fact attested by California's high place today in the field of mining. When drouth made farming precarious in our great valleys, California trained engineers to build vast impounding reservoirs and irrigation canals, converting millions of acres of parched lands into orchards and vineyards. When home and foreign markets made demands upon California for manufactured products, the Golden State did not hesitate because of lack of coal—the traditional basis of manufacturing power. The State began training electrical engineers to harness the mountain streams and bring to our cities electrical energy developed from torrents and cataracts. When our agricultural interests were threatened by the multiplication of native pests and the importation of hosts of pests from abroad, California trained its young men in agricultural schools and brought the pests under control. California is a great commonwealth largely because of the developed minds of its citizens. It is because California is so dependent upon trained minds for its material development and prosperity, as well as its social and spiritual well-being that the people of this State believe so thoroughly in education.

Being educators, you are interested in California's educational system. It is a system of which California is proud. It is a growing school system

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subject in the nature of things to growing pains of which we have had a recent transitory manifestation. California having invited the world finds it necessary to provide for the world's children. Each year we find it necessary to add more than three thousand classrooms to provide for the normal growth of our school family. Last year California expended a hundred millions of dollars for education, of which thirty-one millions went for the purchase of land and construction of buildings. California finds it necessary to spend half as much each year upon the construction of school buildings as upon the maintenance of the schools. Every city and town has its beautiful and substantial school buildings which you are invited to inspect.

As the capstone of our school system we have the University of California enrolling, in the parent institution and various branches, almost twenty thousand students. This great institution enrols students from every land bordering the mighty Pacific. It is, in fact, a continuous Pan-Pacific conference spreading the influence of California in the Orient, in the Spanish-American countries and in the great commonwealths of the southern seas. We invite you to visit our great university, to spend some hours on its lovely campus, or better yet, to study for a time in its summer session, now opening.

Next in order I would mention our teachers' colleges, which have had a remarkable development during recent years. They have completely recovered from the depression due to war conditions and are crowded with young people preparing for the work of teaching. In recognition of their increasing worth, the State has recently conferred upon them the degree-granting privilege. California demands better trained teachers and will support institutions whose purpose is the improvement of the teaching work. If you wish to spend the summer with us, we invite you to the summer session of any of our seven State teachers' colleges—at Mount Shasta, Huntington Lake, Humboldt, San Jose, San Francisco, Santa Barbara, or San Diego.

The secondary schools of California have attracted the interest of the world. No commonwealth in the whole world has a greater proportion of young people of high-school age enroled in high school. In 1922, the total secondary school enrolment in California was 227,000 students. The significance of these figures is apparent when we realize that the California high schools last year enroled 24,000 students more than all the public high schools of the United States enroled in 1890. To meet the demands of this great army of young people, we have been obliged to offer a wide range of courses—academic, commercial, agricultural, home-making, and industrial. You are invited to visit these institutions and become acquainted with the work they are doing—a work whose worth is attested by the vast number of students who are attracted to them.

We also invite your attention to the junior colleges of the State. These institutions are offering courses paralleling the first two years of university work and corresponding vocational courses. They are a natural outgrowth of the high-school system of California. Our high schools graduate more

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students than our colleges and universities can accommodate. The junior colleges, locally controlled but liberally aided by the State, enroled more than two thousand students last year. The junior college is no longer an experiment; it is a success if we may judge by the records made by junior college graduates when they transfer to the universities for the last two years of college work. The junior college invites your interest.

Our elementary schools are the pride of California. Back of them stands the entire State, morally and financially. The basis of their support is written in the Constitution which makes mandatory a State levy of thirty dollars per pupil and a county levy of thirty dollars per pupil, for the maintenance of the elementary schools. California believes that elementary education is fundamental in a State and has, therefore, written the basis of school support in the fundamental law. The poorest district in California is thereby guaranteed the maintenance of a decent American school.

California holds a premier place in the maintenance of kindergartens. Last year, the kindergartens of our State enroled 40,000 pupils. These classes have made their way to a place in the sun chiefly through the support of the California Congress of Mothers and Parent-Teacher Associations.

We welcome you as representatives of the school systems of sister States. We realize that our conference is held at a time when the American people are critical of their institutions. The schools which Americans everywhere regard as the foundation-stone of the Republic are not immune from the critical spirit. We have awakened to the cold truth of after-war reaction. When we entered the struggle, we assured one another that the world would be a better place to live in, after the enemy had tasted the dregs of defeat. Optimists forecast the coming of an era of good-feeling, international fellowship, and splendid opportunities for our children. The world was to be made safe for democracy in order that the children of our boys who fought in France and Flanders might live in a better world. In the cold gray dawn of an inconclusive peace, we realized that the world has in fact been made unsafe for democracy. Democracy is today struggling to maintain itself. Democracy is based upon the principle of equal opportunity. America has boasted from the beginning that this land furnishes a chance for merit to assert itself against obstacles that prevent its rise. Ten years ago anyone who would have raised his voice against the extension of popular education would have been challenged as opposed to democracy. The post-war period in which taxation must be high because war debts must be paid has afforded undemocratic elements an opportunity to make popular appeal against the extension of democracy's chief means for perpetuating itself—the public school. This conference should not adjourn without meeting this challenge openly and fearlessly.

In this connection we cannot overlook the recent discussion of public education by Dr. Henry S. Pritchett, as president of the Carnegie Foundation, alleged to be for the advancement of teaching. In his presidential report he expresses amazement at the expansion of the American education program, questioning whether our country can afford to give every American child

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much training as we are now giving him. Especially is he alarmed at the expansion of high school education. Rather frantically he asks "What is a school for?" His words have been quoted approvingly by every reactionary governor and legislator in their recent assaults upon public education. Dr. Pritchett is entitled to express his views on public education, but he must not be understood as being a life-long friend of public education. His life record as given in "Who's Who in America" does not show that he has ever been connected with the public schools as pupil teacher or administrator. All of his connections have been with private agencies. In his conduct of the affairs of the Carnegie Foundation, he has never shown any interest in the expansion and enrichment of the American school program. He is not a recent convert to undemocratic views; he has always been undemocratic in his attitude toward public education. It would seem to me that this Congress should not adjourn without asking and answering the question "What is a great Foundation for?" Certainly it should not be an agency for shattering the educational ideals of America nor an instrument for destroying opportunities for American boys and girls.

The teachers of America are trustees of America's destiny. I am convinced that in this line of crisis they will not be false to their sacred trusteeship. Being a human institution, the public school has its frailties and shortcomings. The leaders in education must find the weaknesses in the system and overcome them. But the extension of public education is not a weakness and we must stand like adamant against the attempts of men who would pay the debt of the war by discounting the educational opportunities of American boys and girls.

We realize that this is a working conference and that there is much work to be done. But between periods of work, we hope you will find time to play. And when the conference adjourns, our welcome will still hold good. We welcome you, but the streams, the mountains, and the seaside invite you. May your work be successful. May your stay among us be happy, and may you come again.

RESPONSE TO ADDRESS OF WELCOME

ALBERT E. WINSHIP, EDITOR, JOURNAL OF EDUCATION
BOSTON, MASSACHUSETTS

I keenly appreciate this opportunity and responsibility since no one who knows California as well has known the National Education Association so long.

Forty-eight years ago this week I crossed the Sierras for the first time, and that which impressed me most was the stability and solidity of everything and everybody. The Golden Gate meant more than a brilliant sunset for there was gold everywhere. The smallest coin was a twenty-five cent piece. There were many things for sale at 12½ cents but we had

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to buy two for twenty-five cents, hence the name "two-bits." This is the fifty-fifth time I have enjoyed a visit to the Pacific Coast and it has been a moving picture with a new film every time.

Wonderful as this country was in 1875 it is more wonderful today, has been more and more wonderful every time I have come down from the Sierras. This year the wonderful thing is the New National Education Association which we bring you. We are no more what we were eight years ago than Burbank's Santa Rosa is like the plains east of Winnemucca.

Then the chief concern of the management was to prevent anything or anybody new from disturbing the serenity of the management. Eight years ago a suggestion that we come back in 1923 with one-hundred thousand women-teacher voters would have given the management nervous prostration. Now the idea of "a management" is as much out of date as an Egyptian mummy. It is now "Headquarters' Service" of one-hundred twenty thousand members.

These eight years have seen greater changes in the interest of educational democracy than did the seventy preceding years. The enrolment in the high schools of the United States has increased more than one hundred per cent. If we were back in educational sentiment as when we were here in 1915 there would be half as many students in the high schools as there are today.

Then colleges and universities had experts scouring the country for recruits. Now they have installed barbed-wire protection to keep out the high-school crowd.

Then most colleges had a preparatory department, now a college would be ostracised if it had any non-standardized students.

Then no State required a boy or girl to be sixteen years of age or have an eighth-grade diploma before leaving school for work. Now two thirds of the children of the United States are under such a law. Then there was no State with teacher tenure. Now no State is respectable without it. Then no state had a minimum salary law. Now it is required by "good behavior." Then no State had a minimum professional attainment law. Now it is the only proper thing.

Then in only three States did the State normal schools have college courses and give college credit. Now more than ninety State normal schools are authorized to provide college work looking ultimately to a degree. Eight years ago a consolidated school was a curiosity. Now there are a thousand of them, the poorest of them palatial as compared with the best "little red school house" of 1915. Then there were a few teachers' homes in country districts. Now there are a thousand, some costing $50,000 and more.

Then most State superintendents were elected on a political party ticket. Now a State hangs its head in shame when a political overturn affects the State Department. Then every county superintendent was a political product. Now educational qualification often supercedes political affilia-

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tion and where politics is still effective both parties stress the educational qualification of the candidate.

Then there was no science of schoolhouse architecture and only one man built schoolhouses out of his State. Now schoolhouse architecture is high art and schoolhouse ventilation an exact science.

Any book on physics, electricity, or astronomy written eight years ago is out of date, any geography or history written eight years ago is spineless, any philosophy or pedagogy of eight years ago is nerveless, any book on physiology or psychology that is eight years old is a joke, any book on chemistry, biology, or sociology written eight years ago is comedy, and any book on economics, industry, or commerce written eight years ago is tragedy.

We bring California after eight years in the East a New World.

But the best is yet to be, the last for which the first was made. We are here with greater plans and nobler purpose than was dreamed of even when we adjourned in Boston last July.

THRIFT EDUCATION—ABSTRACT

EDITH McCLURE-PATTERSON, BUDGET SPECIALIST OF THE GENERAL FEDERATION OF WOMEN'S CLUBS, DAYTON, OHIO

Who are the great financiers of America? Immediately one thinks of Morgan and Rockefeller with their huge financial exchanges but I assert that the twenty-three million housewives, listed in the last census of the United States as of "no occupation" are our greatest financiers.

The pay envelope of our country for 1922 held $70,000,000,000. Of this vast sum more than $50,000,000,000 was dispensed by women in carrying on the most important business of the Nation—that of homemaking.

Our distinguished English visitor, Sir Auckland Geddes, dared to say recently, "The American man does not accept the American woman as his equal either in matters of politics or finance because she is ignorant."

We deny his statement in general but must acknowledge that hitherto the education and training of our women have not produced one hundred per cent efficiency in money spending.

Realizing this fact, the General Federation of Women's Clubs, the largest and most forceful organization of women in the world, with a membership of three million has appointed a Budget Specialist thus sponsoring a Nation-wide effort to establish a budget system of household finance in every American home. The work is progressing wonderfully. Already definite methods have been adopted and important results achieved. But we older housewives are not satisfied to have future generations repeat our ignorant blunders, and suffer their disastrous consequences. We beg that every girl of today and tomorrow shall be given a chance in the public schools to learn household budgeting and account keeping—*planned money spending*, in order to fit her for her *inevitable business career*, that of homemaker.

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This great Association must come to our aid. This splendid body of educators must coöperate with the General Federation of Women's Clubs all over the United States to save waste, worry, illness, broken homes, and child ruin caused by ignorant choices in money spending. The way to include this instruction in your curricula, you must devise.

Bankers, merchants, and captains of industry are vitally interested in this movement for reasons of their own. Mr. Frederick B. Patterson, president of The National Cash Register Company, has learned that both the quality and quantity of his output depends largely on the wife around the corner who spends his employee's wages. Mr. Patterson, when recently invited to contribute to the National Education Association gladly offered ten life memberships, one to each of its ten districts, for the best suggestions to revitalize this all important subject in public-school courses of study. Great and important results are expected from these suggestions.

EDUCATION FOR PARENTHOOD

ALMA L. BINZEL, ASSISTANT PROFESSOR, CHILD TRAINING, HOME ECONOMICS DEPARTMENT, UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA, MINNEAPOLIS, MINNESOTA

Our attitudes toward modern parents are curiously contradictory. Press, pulpit, platform, and politics harangue them because the behavior of the children of today does not conform to that of the children of yesteryear. The difference is ascribed to the disappearance of the old-fashioned parental virtues with which memory now endows very fulsomely all the homes of yore. A frank scrutiny of the facts reveals that parents of today are just what society has been allowing them to become.

Industry sits up days, nights, and Sundays to design and produce a constant stream of articles, activities, and amusements for the consumption of parents and children. Business sits up the same number of hours to originate new modes of crafts as well as subtle advertising, and high-pressure salesmanship to insure an increase in the number of consumers. In consequence plucked eyebrows, dangling earrings, cosmetics, candies, cigarettes, and joy riding assume the proportions of epidemics through persistent stimulations of the buying public. Low-heeled shoes, milk-drinking, vegetable-eating, saying-it-with-flowers, checkers and barnyard-golf also promise to become well-nigh universal because their sponsors know the relationship of regular, alluring, and varied stimulation to desired responses by the purchasing public.

He who criticises the modern parents and their children without taking this fundamental relation of stimulus and response into consideration advertises himself either as ignorant of the essential factor in the making of human behavior or as wilfully blind to it. In the latter case, he is not unlike the ostrich who, to escape the necessity of facing disagreeable realities, buries his head in the sand.

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To make up for what a clever friend of mine calls "systematic spanking of parents in public," we now and then dedicate to the father-son and mother-daughter relationships annual glorification weeks in which, over luncheon and dinner tables, many fine appreciations are rendered to parenthood.

But superficial criticisms and fine appreciations do not solve the problems of parents and the child of today. For the doctor and the dentist, the judge and the psychiatrist have been discovering during the first quarter of the twentieth century what some queer enthusiastic educators suspected during the last quarter of the nineteenth century, namely: the very close relationship between the quality of the individual's early life and that of his later years.

Doctor, dentist, judge, and psychiatrist were forced to make their investigations via the route of the diseased, the defective, the delinquent, and the deranged among adults. So often did the causes of physical, mental and social-moral ill-health lie in the early years that only one conclusion concerning the home where infancy and childhood are usually spent was possible. That conclusion is, that the home is pre-eminently the place which makes or mars the individual.

The basic findings of clinic, court, and school have been numerous and representative enough during the last twenty-five years to permit of the formulation of tentative standards of physical, mental, and social-moral well-being for various age levels. It is by these that we as educators so often judge the home from which the child comes, forgetful that the parents are scarcely aware that such standards exist and should be striven for.

Consider then the plight of the modern parents! Like all their predecessors they have assumed their responsibilities with collections of attitudes, knowledges, and skills haphazardly acquired from memories of how they were treated as children, from observations of how other folk deal with their youngsters, from efforts of the trial-and-error as well as those of trouble-and-success varieties to which new situations provoke them. The wonder to me has always been that some parents succeeded admirably under the handicap of unpreparedness such as society today permits for no other vital activity. The wonder grows that so many of them attain a fifty-fifty mixture of success and failure in the rearing of children and that comparatively few are complete failures.

These three groups of parents constitute, however, the challengers of education's neglect of their needs. It was at a banquet which closed the first Farmers and Home Maker's Week at the Minnesota College of Agriculture that a mother, commenting upon the series of talks on Child Management (given equal prominence for the first time with bee-keeping and poultry-raising) voiced the challenge in these words, "If such things are known at this University, why haven't we parents been told before?" Indeed, why had they not?

It was then that the successful parents drew from the practical discussions of the principles of psychology, the assurance that their procedures were

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fundamentally sound; that the uncertain parents learned which of their practices should be culled out in favor of better varieties and that the unsuccessful ones were given their first suggestions concerning positive measures in building up desirable behavior in children.

But the challenge to education comes not alone from these present parent groups. The student groups in the upper grades, the high school, and the university will be the parents of the oncoming generations. Must they, too, cry out later, "If such things were known by our teachers, why weren't we told before?"

I think not. For already there are many straws which show that a new wind is blowing, a new era dawning, in which family life is being seen as fit subject-matter for courses of study.

The American Association of University Women has already listened to and pondered over the pleas of some of its members. In consequence, its Committee on Educational Policies formulated a report several years ago containing these words:

> The first topic which we have to suggest, and the one which seems to us to hold greatest promise, needs some elaboration, because it may seem to some of you a radical departure from previous interests of this association. It is that the Education Secretary investigate the possibilities for college women to make a really scientific contribution to the education of the pre-school child—the child between the ages of two and five years. . . . . Modern psychology and psychiatry have convinced us that these early years are exceedingly important ones from the point of view of the formation of physical habits, mental habits, and elements of character and personality—far more important than we have been supposing. If so, our educational system, which makes no provision whatever for these years, is very faulty. Not only is there no provision in the system for the training of the children, but there is also no adequate provision for the training of future mothers in the care and management of small children. The *college-trained mother* approaches the task of providing a wise educational environment for her young children *with no more specific preparation* for it than *the mother whose education ended with the elementary school.*

But several years before this committee found this problem of the unpreparedness of college women for intelligent management of children, some interesting experiments were begun on a modest scale in a few home economics departments in this country. Mrs. Henry Clay Wood, now of Arizona, but formerly of the University of Minnesota, made it possible for all home economics seniors to top off their general courses in psychology with a special one in child-psychology as applied to home life; she introduced into the home-management houses the borrowed orphan, so that contacts of the night and day variety with a child of pre-school age might be the lot of every student who lived in the house; she coöperated with the pediatrists of the city so that additional experience with children via case-work with them and their parents was made available.

She advocated, but did not succeed in achieving, a nursery-kindergarten-school group for further study, care, and management of child life; she advocated, but did not succeed in achieving, graduate courses for leadership in education for parenthood. The success of the Minnesota ventures with the borrowed children has been duplicated in more than a dozen other home

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economics departments. Recently, I had the opportunity of reading the answers to a questionnaire on the child in home-management houses. They all point to the same conclusions: that this study of and experience with children is highly desirable, valuable and necessary if Home Economics is to train for home-making as well as house-keeping. The wise engineering of family relationships is the essential and central business of the home; house-keeping is the environment in which it occurs.

It is not surprising that the leaders in home economics departments have begun re-orientation of subject matter for secondary schools in the direction of child-care and management. I am told that here in Oakland, as doubtless in other California cities, the children of the nursery schools have become the centers of interest for the junior high school girls. In Cleveland, last February, Dr. Condon said that kindergartens for demonstration and observation were being placed in vocational high schools in Cincinnati. If the roll could be called this morning, I am certain that many other similar re-orientations of home-economics work would be mentioned.

This is also true of the extension work being done in the East and West. There are leaders of club work in Massachusetts who choose to have their girls learn to care for and manage wisely the little children in their own or a neighbor's home instead of concentrating on prize-winning animals and crops.

There are State supervisors of home economics who are coöperating with the directors of the State child welfare bureaus and superintendents of public-school systems to the end that mother-craft classes may become as universal as millinery, dressmaking, interior-decoration, cookery, and nutrition classes. An excellent illustration of this is in several cities in Oklahoma. At its capital this winter, when it was planned that mother-craft classes be established, Superintendent Parsons was assured that ten classes of a dozen women each would be forthcoming. Imagine his pleasant surprise when the response was 600 women all told, who completed the course. Who says mothers aren't willing to learn? Isn't the difficulty rather that we don't give them a chance?

Oklahoma extended this work by a series of lectures during May and June on the mental health of children as made or marred by management in home-life. It is already planning to build on these foundations a series of four institutes next September and probably a second series in January. In these institutes intensive training will be carried on during the daytime to develop local leadership in the problems concerning the physical and mental hygiene of childhood. In the evening lectures, designed especially for parents, will present the basic principles of child-management in family life.

And such is the faith of the educational leaders in Oklahoma in parents—in fathers and mothers—that the bigger plans are in the making. Who knows but that, that very new State may be the first to honor parenthood—as it deserves to be honored—by establishing a chair or a whole department of parenthood in a higher institution of learning, whose purpose will be to

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study earnestly the problems of the parent. When that time comes new varieties of topics for doctor's theses will be listed. I am quite certain that they will measure up well with some that have passed the censorship of learned doctors academically inclined. Life more abundant—it would seem to me—would flow more directly from research on The Minimum Essentials of Knowledge and Skills for Successful Parenthood than from research on The Fatty Tissues in the Wings of Insects. Yet it was the latter that won the coveted degree of Ph. D. for one whom Fate is likely to bless with marriage and parenthood.

The required fundamentals have already been suggested in a bill which was formulated in Colorado this last winter. It is entitled a "Proposed Bill for Compulsory Education for Parenthood." It lists as subject matter: Knowledge of physical defects; parental control and discipline in the home; fatigue and rest in childhood and adolescence; nutrition and causes of malnutrition; personal and sex hygiene; and such other subject-matter as time will reveal essential for the successful rearing of children.

The twentieth century is to go down in history as the century of the child. Before it was twenty-five years old we had celebrated it with a Children's Year that discovered childhood to many people. At the close of that period a fourth-grade teacher in Illinois asked her children to write an essay summarizing what they had learned. One boy wrote briefly this: "The Children's Year. It is everybody's duty to have a baby and to save it." To save a baby, to help it to become a healthy, happy child and then a worth-while adolescent involves insight, skill, and ideals on the part of parents. Because we are awakening to this truth, I am predicting that the second quarter of the twentieth century will see the discovery of parenthood. In this, may the National Education Association through its new Commission on American Education, lead the way.

THE CONSERVATION OF TALENT

LEWIS M. TERMAN, PROFESSOR OF PSYCHOLOGY
STANFORD UNIVERSITY, CALIFORNIA

Sir William Hamilton once said that the greatest thing in the world is man, and the greatest thing in man is mind. He might have added that except for character the greatest thing in the mind is intellect. Our instincts, our emotions, and our strivings have much in common with those of our infrahuman cousins of the forest and jungle; in our ability to think is found the mark of our kinship with the gods.

As a great psychologist once observed, civilization advances on two legs—invention and imitation. There are those who show the way and those who follow. Imitation is easy; but it takes the creative thinker to set new advances, whether in mechanics, science, commerce, literature, art, or religion. But for men and women of superior intelligence, society would be as helpless to advance as an automobile without a motor. A nation's intellec-

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tual assets are therefore the most precious it will ever have, and the principle of conservation will here find its most useful application.

Now there is reason for believing that a considerable part of the world's talent fails of fruition. That "genius will out" is but a dangerous half-truth, or less. Cattell has shown that Massachusetts in proportion to population produces 84 times as many men of science as Mississippi. That scientific ability is 84 times as prevalent in the germ plasm of Massachusetts as in the germ plasm of Mississippi seems entirely unreasonable. We prefer to believe that educational opportunity has helped to determine the relative output.

A research now in progress on the mental development of 300 of the most eminent men and women of the last few centuries reveals the fact that many of these geniuses owed their greatest opportunities to happy chance. Newton could never have made his scientific and mathematical discoveries without a university education, yet he owed his opportunity to enter Cambridge to the chance visit of an uncle. Liebig, the founder of physiological chemistry, was early withdrawn from school and apprenticed to a pharmacist. There, in a shed behind the apothecary's shop, he began the chemical experiments that later brought him his chance to enter a university. One wonders whether those experiments in chemistry would have been undertaken had he been apprenticed to a shoemaker or tailor instead of to a man who dealt in chemicals. So many instances of this kind have been uncovered as to raise the question whether in the case of many potential geniuses the happy accident may not have failed to happen. The phrase "unsung Miltons" is more than a poetic figure. Certainly it is true that children of superior ability are not always recognized in the schools. The defective child attracts attention by his inability to do the work and by his maladjustment to school discipline. The gifted child is likely to be submerged with the masses because of his very adaptability to the school environment.

Another circumstance that has blocked the educational progress of gifted children is the superstition, given currency by Lombroso and others, that intellectual precocity is pathological; that bright children are prone to die young, become insane, or develop post-adolescent stupidity. So thoroughly has this superstition become imbedded in popular thought that even prominent educators are likely to assume that the child of high intelligence quotient must, *ipso facto*, be anæmic, nervous, conceited, eccentric, non-social, and a stranger to play.

So often have I seen this view expressed in perfectly good print that for a time I was myself inclined to suppose it must be true. Then followed a decade of experimental work in which I tested large numbers of children and studied their personal characteristics in the light of their intelligence quotients. It did not take long to discover that the facts were not in line with traditional theory. My subjects of high I. Q. simply did not answer to the book descriptions of typical Wunderkinder. As a rule they were physically well developed, active in play, normal in their social adjustments, and

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mentally well-balanced. Such was the evidence from more than a hundred cases that we had studied before 1921.

The data, however, were hardly adequate to warrant conclusions. It could be argued that our subjects were too few, that they were not typical, and that our objective measurements were not sufficiently extensive.

Fortunately, a searching investigation of the entire problem was made possible by two grants from the Commonwealth Fund of New York City, supplemented by appropriations from Stanford University. The total sum made available was about $45,000. The purpose of the investigation was to locate 1000 representative gifted children, to secure for each a large amount of objective data along anthropometric, medical, educational, social, and psychological lines, and then to follow the later histories of these children as far as possible into adult life.

The subjects have been located. Nearly 100 pages of data, mostly of test nature, have been collected for each. Follow-up work is under way. A brief statement of some of the results to date may be of interest.

1. *Locating the subjects*—Six field assistants devoted an entire school year to the search in Los Angeles, San Francisco, Oakland, and the other Bay cities. Nearly a quarter of a million school children were sifted. First, each teacher was asked to name the brightest child in her room, the second brightest, the third brightest, and in addition, the youngest. These nominees were then given a National Intelligence test, and all who scored high in the National were given a Stanford-Binet. Only those who earned an I. Q. of 140 or higher were included in the study.

As this standard is not reached by more than 4 or 5 pupils in a thousand, it might be supposed that with four nominations from each classroom of 30 or 40 pupils no gifted children would have been missed. However, check-up of the method of search indicated that between 10 per cent and 20 per cent had been overlooked. There were cases in which the brightest pupil in the entire school of 500 was not named even as third brightest in his class of 35. Nevertheless, with a loss of less than 20 per cent, our subjects may be considered as reasonably representative of their kind. Whatever is true of them will be true, in general, of children having I. Q.'s between 140 and 200.

2. *Sex-frequency*—The first thing we note here is that the number of boys and girls in the gifted group is nearly equal. There is a slight excess of boys—about 10 per cent—but on the other hand the three highest cases are girls. Mental tests are beginning to render the old question of sex difference in intelligence about as obsolete as the question whether the earth is round or flat.

3. *Health and physical traits*—Our data include, for each subject, 22 anthropometric measurements (made with the assistance of Professor Bird T. Baldwin), a one-hour medical examination by a trained specialist in children's diseases, and extensive information furnished by parents and teachers. Not all of these data have been worked up, but the main facts are unmistakable. At all ages these children are taller, heavier, better nourished,

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and physically stronger than unselected children. They were above normal weight at birth, and showed noticeable precocity in walking, talking, and dentition. They are freer from organic disease and have a clearer disease history than the average child. Nervousness, stuttering, chorea, habit spasms, and other neurotic symptoms occur with no more than normal frequency. Their sleep records at the different ages are from 30 to 60 minutes a day above the norms for 3000 unselected children. They come from families with less than average infant mortality and of more than average longevity. Our data would seem to dispose once and for all of the ancient superstition as to the supposed connection between genius and degeneracy.

4. *Educational progress*—The typical gifted child enters school at 6¼ years and enrols at once in the high first grade, although some enrol at once in the second or third grade. The average progress quotient for our entire group is 115, which means that the typical gifted child is accelerated 15 per cent of his age beyond the normal. In mental age, however, he is 45 per cent beyond the normal. The difference between 45 per cent and 15 per cent is 30 per cent; so the typical gifted child is under-promoted to the extent of 30 per cent of his age. Whether this retardation is warranted is a hotly debated question. The opponents of rapid progress have rested their case on two arguments: (1) that skipping grades means permanent gaps leading to weak work later on; (2) that rapid promotion jeopardizes the child's social development.

The first of these arguments has been answered for good and all by our extensive achievement tests covering the all-important subject-matter of grades 2 to 8. The average educational quotients in the different school subjects and at the different ages ranged from 130 to 145. The average of the averages is above 135. That is, the typical gifted child *has already mastered the subject matter 35 per cent beyond the norm for his age.* As we have seen, he is actually accelerated only 15 per cent. The difference between 35 per cent and 15 per cent is 20 per cent. Therefore, the typical gifted child is being held 20 per cent of his age below the level to which he is already mastered his work. I think this is a rather momentous fact.

As to the alleged social injury from rapid promotion, I am convinced that this danger is more imaginary than real. The injury done by having a child study and recite a few hours each day with children who are a few years older but of his own mental level, is probably very slight when compared with the intellectual and moral injury which is wrought by keeping him always at tasks too easy to command his serious efforts.

Another fact brought out by the achievement tests is that the mental development of the gifted child is rarely one-sided. Generally speaking, however, the gifted child does his best work in the difficult subjects where success depends most upon the higher thought processes. In all-round information the 8-year-old gifted child is on a level with the average child of 12.

These results have not been attained by the use of hot-house methods. No more than a handful of our cases have been subjected to such treatment.

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Most of the parents have either kept hands off, or have tried to hold the child to a slower developmental pace.

In the main, our subjects have educated themselves. They have made astonishing progress in learning because of their intellectual initiative and insatiable curiosity. 45 per cent of them learned to read before starting to school, for the most part without instruction; 20 per cent read before 5; 5 per cent before 4; and in 9 cases before 3. Many of them develop strange affinities for such impossible books as dictionaries, atlases, and encyclopedias.

5. *Social development*—The widespread belief that gifted children are likely to be socially queer, sissified, and ignorant of play, was considered important enough to justify extensive investigation by the test method. Time is not available for a description of the tests used, and I shall have to ask you to believe me when I say that their validity and reliability have been statistically established. One of these test batteries had to do with interest in, and knowledge of plays, games, and amusements. By first standardizing this test on 800 unselected children, age and sex norms were established for play information, for the maturity of play life, and for the masculinity or femininity of play interests. In comparison with these norms the scores of our gifted group showed a large excess of play information, noticeable excess maturity of play interests, and normal masculinity indices. That gifted boys tend to be more effeminate in their play interests than unselected boys of the same age has no foundation in fact.

Another test, involving a modification of the Jung-Kent-Rosanoff word association method measured the relative strength of interests in intellectual, social, and activity fields. Its purpose was to determine whether in the gifted child intellectual interests have been developed at the expense of social and active tendencies. The results of this test are not yet out of the statistical mill, but the indications are that the usual fears along this line have little if any foundation.

Ratings of the children by parents and teachers on such traits as intellectual conceit, social adaptability, popularity, and leadership, fully confirm the test scores. There *are* gifted children who are eccentric, socially defective, and unpopular; but the proportion of such cases is apparently even less than among children in general.

6. *Character traits*—One of the most significant batteries of tests used was designed to measure certain traits of moral character likely to be associated with delinquency and incorrigibility. It yields objective scores on honesty of report, honesty in following instructions when there is temptation to cheat, tendency to overstate one's knowledge or ability, moral judgment, and interest in types of reading and activity common among delinquents. By comparing the scores of 300 reform school inmates, 300 exceptionally "good" public-school boys, 300 exceptionally "bad" public-school boys, and 600 unselected school children, the value of the test has been sufficiently established. The fact that concerns us here is that in the traits measured by this test our gifted children rank high. As compared

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with unselected children, they are more conscientious, more honest, less wasteful, and less absorbed in questionable interests. Ratings by teachers and parents on these and other moral traits confirm the test scores. The conclusion is inescapable that here as elsewhere gifted children are superior to the common run.

7. *Heredity*—Children of so many superiorities could hardly have acquired them all through environmental influences. Nor have they, for their heredity, too, is demonstrably superior. More than 50 per cent of our group have sprung from the top 4 per cent of the vocational hierarchy. The professional and semi-professional classes together account for more than 50 per cent. The unskilled labor classes furnish but a paltry 1 or 2 per cent. One fourth of our children have at least one parent who is a college graduate. The average schooling for parents is about 12 grades completed as compared with 6 for the general population.

The list of eminent relatives reads like a roster of American genius. For example, 23 per cent of the members of the Hall of Fame are known to have relatives in our gifted group, and the number of high officials, generals, statesmen, writers, and other notables is astonishing. One boy of 200 I. Q. has 34 known relatives listed either in *Who's Who* or Appleton's *Cyclopædia of American Biography*.

In this connection two facts of serious portent should be mentioned. (1) The racial stocks most prolific of gifted children are from northern and western Europe, and the Jewish. The least prolific are the Mediterranean races, the Mexicans, and the Negroes. (2) The fecundity of the family stocks from which our gifted children come appears to be definitely on the wane. This is an example of the differential birth rate which is rapidly becoming evident in all civilized countries. It has been figured that if the present differential birth rate continues, 1000 Harvard graduates will at the end of 200 years have but 50 descendants, while in the same period 1000 South Italians will have multiplied to 100,000.

The differential birth rate is doubtless a social rather than a biological phenomenon, and it is one that threatens the very existence of civilization. In the face of this threat the importance of discovering, conserving, and using the most of our resources of genius is self-evident. Yet the pedagogy of gifted children is the "Darkest Africa" of education. We have been too much swayed by the all-American feeling for the fellow at the foot. We have too long taken as our motto the adage that if we look out for the foremost the foremost will look out for himself.

I have emphasized the desirability of more rapid advancement of the gifted child. This is important. But grade skipping is far from an ideal or complete solution of the problem. The real need is for a *differentiation of curriculum and of methods* such as will give to every child the type of educational diet from which he can derive the maximum nourishment.

No one would claim that in the education of gifted children we are yet within sight of any such goal. Nevertheless, interesting and promising experiments are under way. I predict that within a decade or two something like the three-track plan of Oakland, Berkeley, and Detroit, supplemented

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by opportunity classes for the defectives and for the very gifted, will become the standard. Then, for the first time, will children above or below the average have what every child is entitled to: the opportunity to make the most of whatever ability he possesses. I have no patience with those who condemn this plan as undemocratic. The abandonment of the single-track pre-high school curriculum is in fact the first necessary step toward educational democracy. The single-track is a straight jacket which dwarfs the mental development of the inferior as well as the gifted. The educational sentimentalists who defend it, who fear mental tests and ignore or deny individual differences, are of a class with those who stake their life on a Coué formula, fear doctors, and deny the actuality of disease.

THE FINANCING OF THE AMERICAN SCHOOLS

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It has been suggested during the last year that we cannot afford, in the United States, to finance our present generous program of public education. Those who fear that we must retrench base their belief upon the large expenditures that are now being made. The contrast between the number of dollars spent in 1890 with the amount spent in 1920 is submitted as evidence.

To understand the situation, it is necessary to contrast not simply the 140 million dollars spent for public education in 1890 with the thousand million dollars spent in 1920 for public schools, but we must also inquire concerning the number of days of schooling provided and the type of educational program which prevailed then and now. It is only during the last generation that we have begun to enforce compulsory education. The increase in days of attendance in our public schools was 139 per cent from 1890 to 1920. Still more remarkable was the increase in high-school attendance from 200,000 to 2,000,000. It does not seem probable that we will rest satisfied with our present inadequate enforcement of compulsory education. We must look forward not only to an increase in attendance due to increase in population, but also to the increase in attendance which will come from the acceptance of compulsory education as essential to the well-being of the Nation.

A large part of the increase in the amount of money spent for public education is clearly due to increase in attendance. An even larger factor is the decreased purchasing power of the dollar. If we may trust the index figures which have been derived, $1.00 in 1890 would purchase as much as $2.90 in 1920. The increase therefore in dollars spent does not mean an increase in support. If we measure support in terms of cost per pupil per day of atendance, and if we correct for the changed purchasing power of the dollar, it appears that the actual support provided for public education was less than one tenth more on a per capita basis in 1920 than in 1890.

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But we cannot compare the cost of education in 1920 with the cost in 1890 without calling attention to the fact that a different sort of educational opportunity was provided in 1920 from that offered in 1890. It was during this period of 30 years that our modern school system was developed. In the elementary school, we have added music, drawing, the household and industrial arts. It is during this period that our work in physical education and health service has been developed. Practically all of the cost of special classes for the defective and delinquent have been added since 1890. During the latter part of this period, the junior high school has been developed and only during the past 20 years has the comprehensive senior high school come into being. During this same period, continuation schools have been established, classes for the foreign-born and for the illiterates have been introduced, better training for teachers have been provided and buildings and equipment have been improved.

One who proposes that we spend less for public education must at the same time suggest the part of our modern program which is to be omitted. There are those who speak of the subjects more recently introduced to our elementary school curriculum: music, drawing, household arts, and industrial arts, as if we can maintain an adequate school system with these newer subjects omitted. It does not seem probable that our public, which has insisted upon the introduction of these subjects, will be satisfied to see them taken out of the curriculum. It is certain that their inclusion is the result of a careful consideration of the needs of boys and girls in our modern society. In the older subjects, sometimes referred to as the fundamentals, there is much that we can teach that has little or no reference to the needs of children in the twentieth century.

It may well be argued, too, that music and art are quite as certainly required if we would have children make proper use of their leisure time as are reading, writing, and arithmetic. The household and the industrial arts are essential in a world in which these fundamental processes can be made available for children only through the opportunities provided through schools.

One who would argue against the program of physical education and health service must base his case upon the assumption that we do not receive an adequate return for the money invested in this field. It will be hard to make such a case, since whether we measure the work in physical education and health service, in terms of happiness of individuals, in terms of increased intellectual achievement, or in terms of economic efficiency, the answer is overwhelming in favor of the work that the schools are doing.

The argument against expenditures will certainly not find easier ground if the cost of education for the defective and delinquent is attacked, or if retrenchment is suggested in connection with classes for the foreign-born or for the illiterate. We of the profession, and the public who support our schools, are proud of the great opportunities which have come to boys and girls through the development of junior high schools and comprehensive senior high schools. Surely we are not willing to return to the type of

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secondary education which provided opportunity only for those going to college. Whether the problem be considered locally, or in the State, or in the Nation, those who argue for retrenchment must make their case against some part of the school system as it is now developed. If the public is fully informed, it does not seem probable that they will be willing to dispense with any of the educational opportunities now provided.

If this expansion of the educational program is justified, and I, for one, believe that it is, then the increase in support per pupil per day in attendance is remarkably small. If this kind of educational program is to be carried forward throughout the country, it is perfectly clear that the thousand million dollars spent for public education in 1920 must be very greatly increased during the years which lie immediately ahead.

But it is only fair that we inquire concerning the burden imposed upon our people through the support that is provided for public education. We spent in 1920, as a people, approximately one and one half per cent of our income for education. In 31 out of 48 States, less than 2 per cent of the income of the people of the several States was devoted to public education. In 17 States, more than 2 per cent of the income of the people was spent for this purpose. It is interesting to note that in the very wealthy and thickly populated States, the per cent of the income spent for public education was relatively low. For example, in New York, it was 1.18 per cent, in Massachusetts 1.22 per cent, in Illinois 1.36 per cent, Ohio 1.65 per cent, and in California 1.84 per cent. The larger percentages of the income of the people devoted to public education were found in the sparsely settled parts of the country, particularly in the Northwest. The percentage of the income of the people devoted to public education was 4.41 per cent in Montana, 4.02 per cent in North Dakota, 3.76 per cent in Utah, 3.43 per cent in Idaho, and 3.13 per cent in Arizona. There were no other States in which the percentage of the income of the people devoted to public education exceeded 3 per cent.

We are working in a period of increasing expenditures for all Governmental purposes. Not only must we have more money for schools, but practically every other Governmental service requires more money if it is to be adequately maintained. Something of the change that has come about is indicated by the fact that in 1910 the per capita total State and local expenditures in the State spending the most money was $47.30; while in 1920, the per capita State and local expenditures for Governmental purposes reached $102.26 in one State. In like manner, the median State spent for all Governmental purposes in 1910 $18.86 per capita and in 1920 $39.98, while the State spending the least for Governmental purposes spent $5.45 per capita in 1910 and $2.13 in 1920.

Expressed in percentage of the income of the people of the several States, those States spending the largest percentage of their incomes for all Governmental expenses may be listed as follows: Montana, 12.45 per cent; Utah, 11 per cent; Nevada, 10.92 per cent; Oregon, 10.69 per cent; Idaho, 10.59 per cent.

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The States spending the smallest percentages of their income for all governmental purposes are as follows. Alabama, 3.22 per cent; Georgia, 3.29 per cent; Texas, 3.30 per cent; Virginia, 3.87 per cent; North Carolina, 4.22 per cent.

Among the wealthy States, the percentages fall in between these extremes. These States spend for all Governmental purposes as follows: Illinois, 4.77 per cent; New York, 6.12 per cent; California, 6.89 per cent; Massachusetts, 7.99 per cent; Ohio, 7.58 per cent.

Much of the anxiety concerning Governmental expenditures has been due to our antiquated revenue system. In meeting the cost of education, we need to consider the possibility of developing a revenue system which will equitably distribute the burden to be borne. The present practice of deriving the greater part of our revenues for education from taxation upon real estate must be changed. It has been pointed out by students of taxation for many years that the ownership of real estate is not an adequate measure of the ability of the individual to pay taxes. In their report on a model tax system the Committee of the National Tax Association proposed, in addition to the property tax, that every person having taxable ability should pay some sort of direct personal tax to the government under which he is domiciled, and from which he receives the personal benefits that government confers. They proposed, as well, that business carried on for profit in any locality should be taxed for the benefits which it receives. The personal income tax has been accepted by 17 States. There is a constantly increasing number of individuals who enjoy relatively large incomes who can be reached in no other way so satisfactorily as by the income tax. Many doctors, lawyers, architects, and other professional men and women and many wealthy persons having large holdings of intangible property, escape taxation where the income tax is not imposed.

This same committee proposes that personal exemptions be small—for a single person, $600; for husband and wife, $1,200; and $200 for dependents; with a maximum family exemption of $1,800. It is proposed, as well, in this report of the Committee of the National Tax Association, that the rates should be moderate and progress from not less than 1 per cent to a maximum of 6 per cent. This form of taxation will undoubtedly be accepted sooner or later by all of the States. It is most desirable that this personal tax, which cannot be shifted, and which brings home to the taxpayer his personal obligation for the support of the government under which he lives, be utilized as a means of increasing the revenue necessary to maintain governmental enterprises.

The business tax has been levied in one form or another over a long period of years. Licenses and fees have been exacted, and more recently a tax on net income derived from business has been found effective and equitable. The Committee of the National Tax Association proposes that business taxes be levied on the net income derived from business carried on within the State levying the tax, and that it be proportional and not progressive.

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The States which have made the greatest progress in the development of their revenue systems have created permanent tax commissions. No system of taxation will prove satisfactory unless the States place in the hands of some permanent central authority the administration of taxes. This State tax commission should administer the income and inheritance taxes and should have supervisory authority with respect to the assessment of all property subject to local taxation. The National Committee proposes: (1) that local assessment districts be made large enough to justify the employment of at least one permanent official in each such district; (2) that assessors be appointed, rather than elected; (3) that assessors serve for at least four years; (4) that assessors be subject to removal by the State tax commission.

If reforms, such as have been proposed, are carried out, we shall be able to finance our schools. As a people, we do not lack economic resources. The difficulty is rather with our faulty tax system. The problem is not one of finding new sources of revenue, for there are none. It is rather one of devising suitable methods for tapping the resources that exist.

Another factor in the development of an adequate system of financing the schools centers around the problem of the unit of school support. With the most equitable revenue system that it is possible to develop, we will still have within a single State, local communities, whether school districts, townships or counties, that are relatively very wealthy and other localities that will be very poor. It is only through State support based upon a sound revenue system that it will be possible, within the State, to equalize both the opportunity for education and the burden of taxation to be borne. In like manner, if we admit that the well-being of the whole country is determined by the education which is provided in every part of it, we cannot ignore the wide variation which exists among the several States in their ability to support public education.

We have known for a long time from the estimates of wealth available, that the States vary greatly in their per capita wealth. A recent publication of the Bureau of Economic Research estimates most carefully the income of the people of the several States. From this report we find that the per capita income in the States showing the lowest income per capita are as follows: Alabama, $345; Mississippi, $352; Tennessee, $365; Arkansas, $379; North Carolina, $383; Kentucky, $392. Contrasted with these figures are those for the States in which the people enjoy a large income. These States show the following incomes per capita: Massachusetts, $788; Ohio, $789; Delaware, $792; New York, $874; California, $820; Nevada, $850.

If education is essential to the well-being of the Nation and if we propose to make good the promise of equality of opportunity, we shall be compelled to provide a larger measure of National support. To deny National support is to propose that some States spend twice as large a proportion of their income for education than do other States. To lay upon the people of one State double the burden which must be borne by those living in

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another State for the accomplishment of a great national purpose involves the grossest injustices. Many of the poorer States are today carrying a heavier burden than the wealthier, in order that they may prepare boys and girls for citizenship in our common country. Four out of the six States, the smallest per capita income—Alabama, Mississippi, Tennessee, and North Carolina—spend a percentage of their income for education equal to or larger than the wealthier State of New York devotes to this purpose.

While we ask for the support of our public schools with the increased revenues which must be provided, we are under the obligation to examine carefully our procedures in the administration of schools. Efficient administration requires that in many of our States we organize large units of administration. Then an argument for local self-government, which originally brought into being the school district and school township unit no longer has weight. With the development of good roads and the coming of the automobile it is easier for the people of a county to act as a unit than it was originally for them to coöperate in the school district or township. We find today in the smaller school districts the highest cost and the lowest efficiency. If economy is to be effected, there should be no unit too small to employ a competent professional administrator.

We need in all of our school systems in the United States more adequate accounting and budgetary procedure. It is only as we develop accounting which enables us to discover the variations in costs which exist among the several units of a single school system that we may hope to effect the economies which are possible. In those communities in which adequate cost accounting has been introduced it has been found possible to effect savings in school supplies, in the coal bill, in the cost of buildings, and the like.

It is just as important that we adopt more commonly than is now the case adequate budgetary procedure. With unit cost on the one hand and a careful definition of the program of work to be carried on on the other, it should be possible to propose a budget and to indicate clearly to the community just why the amount of money proposed is required to carry on the school system. It is only when such adequate information is available that the tax payer has an opportunity to vote intelligently with respect to the fiscal administration of his school.

None of us would claim that the present program of education is perfectly adapted to the needs of our society. We shall continue to inquire concerning the curriculum and we shall just as certainly make progress in the organization of our schools. It is possible that we may save time and that we shall effect economies.

Expenditures for public education are properly thought of as operating to replace capital which is being constantly used up. If no schools were maintained over a period of a single generation, the effect on the economic life of a people would be most disastrous. In the modern industrial society in which we live, it is quite as important that we should provide capital in terms of educated men and women as it is that we should build railroads and factories.

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The question of spending a larger percentage of our income for education is, in the last analysis, one of our scale of values. If the people of the United States believe that education is of greater importance than the other purposes for which they spend money, either through the Government or privately, then we can expect relatively larger expenditures for education to be voted by the people.

If we believe that the American ideal which suggests that every individual should have an opportunity for making the most of himself is more important than amassing wealth, more important than any other Governmental enterprise, then we shall certainly support our schools. It is the obligation of our profession to hold before the people of the United States this ideal of the founders of our Republic. We must seek to develop that standard of values which places opportunity for individual growth and development above any other good which can be secured. We must help our public to stand fast and to work, yes, even to sacrifice, in order that the day may come in America when there shall be guaranteed to all "a fair start and an equal chance in the race of life."

THE TEACHER AS A STUDENT

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A profession, according to Palmer, is an occupation upon which one enters only after a long period of rigorous preparation. Judged by this standard teaching in America is still, for the majority of those employed in the common schools, only a job. By comparison medicine is a long way in advance.

The average physician is said to be about 37 years of age. He completed five years of college work. He earns over four thousand dollars a year. He has had eleven years of practical experience. Even the humblest of his colleagues was required to pursue a college course for at least one year before beginning his professional study, to say nothing of the professional training itself. The chances are at least equal that he is a member of the American Medical Association and he is certain to be a subscriber to one or more journals of medicine.

Comparison with teaching is not complimentary. The majority of the teachers in our public schools entered upon their work with no professional training at all other than that acquired by being themselves pupils in the schools. The average salary earned by them is between six and seven hundred dollars. The average practical experience is less than five years. At least one teacher in nine is a beginner. Only a minor fraction of our teachers belong to the National Education Association or subscribe to a professional journal.

The fact that it is the teaching population of the rural schools that brings the average down to such figures but serves to emphasize the gravity of the

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situation. The inference to be drawn is obvious. A vast army of young persons enter upon the work of teaching year by year who are inadequately equipped for their task. If the lack is ever to be made up, it must be while they are in the service.

But the necessity of study and improvement is not confined to the raw recruits. America is not a land where "custom slowly broadens down from precedent to precedent," but rather a country wherein "nothing constant is but ever change." The pace is rapid. Scientific investigation and experiment, together with the transformation of social conditions, is ever ushering in the New Education. The new school demands the new schoolmaster. The teacher and the school officer alike must invest new capital, no matter what degree he holds nor from what alma mater, each must still play the student. He can not justly say, "I have completed my preparation. Behold the finished educator!"

This is now generally recognized. Since the turning of the century an amazing development has taken place. Summer schools are now as common as blackberries and enormous in attendance. During the school term whole school systems are organized into study classes. Extension departments rival residence apartments in enrolments. Lecturers go everywhere. Meetings multiply. There is a very fever of activity. The era of training in service need no longer be prayed for. It is here.

The problem of the hour is not to induce teachers to seek improvement; it is rather to provide more effective means.

Continuity—Programs of improvement are at present too spasmodic and too fragmentary. We live from day to day. We hold revivals. We run after the most advertised nostrums and lose balance and perspective. There is confusion of values and cynicism sometimes follows upon a naive enthusiasm.

Leaders must plan ahead. Instead of mass meetings, with miscellaneous programs, each chairman vying with his predecessor in the brilliance and variety of imported "talent" which he secures, carefully unified programs should be prepared in sequence from year to year. Serious study of educational problems and policies should replace the all too common annual brain-storm and periodical miscellany.

This reform is needed at each stage, from the individual teacher's own plan of self-improvement to the work of the National Association itself. I will venture but one definite suggestion—namely, how the State educational association might function. Assuming that there is a central body of representatives, I would urge that these representatives with the help of experts and the coöperation of the State school officers, lay out a program of study and improvement for the year. This should be fully set forth and interpreted in the State educational journal. Here the specialists should write. A systematic follow-up should be instituted through district meeting and local circles. The State secretary and editor of the State journal has in such a scheme an opportunity of leadership unlimited in its possibilities, as some have already demonstrated.

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Orientation—We must strive to see education steadily and see it whole. In our eagerness for a technique which shall have a scientific sanction we must not neglect to cultivate an educational philosophy a central viewpoint, to which all details may be related and subordinated. Are children living or only preparing for life? If they have *now* the right to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness, how shall that life be characterized? How shall it be controlled? And is the ideal of democracy so clear and so settled in the minds of all teachers that it needs no exposition? We can not honestly say yes to all of those questions. Better orientation is everywhere needed, more emphasis on foundation principles, wider knowledge of the steps by which we have come out of the past into the present.

Such knowledge can not be grasped early. It is "years that give the philosophic mind." Even in the more favored centers the normal colleges can hope to make only a beginning of orientation. The nature and purpose of education require life-long study.

The newer educational psychology is comparatively simple, objective, and verifiable. Familiarity with it is, however, by no means universal, and even if it were, the application of it to the actual life of the school requires a long period of constant effort and experiment.

Upon these two, philosophy and psychology, the theory of method must mainly rest. Without them method is but rule of thumb, unanalyzed habit, imitation, or a mere set of devices and procedures whose real value is unknown.

Recently, moreover, the educational laboratories have developed a very considerable body of objective measures of ability and attainment. Their use is rapidly becoming general. What place should they in fact occupy? What use should the classroom teacher make of them? Precisely what significance should be attached to the results obtained by them. These are current questions. They grow more troublesome every day; soon every teacher will feel obliged to face them.

Add to all of this the ferment over the selection of subject matter and its embodiment in courses, books, and material which is always among us, as well as a constantly growing insistence on extra-curricular activities, and you have a truly serious and imposing task, which only such continuous policies as have been already suggested can cope with.

Differentiation—But we must also differentiate; more and more the teacher becomes a specialist. Side by side with the opportunity to master principles capable of general application must be created opportunity to gain a firmer grasp of the problems peculiar to pupils of different ages, different capacities, different interests, different environments.

Nor should all teachers be lumped together as in need of the same instruction, assistance, and opportunity for improvement. Recognition, as several have proposed, of ranks through which teachers might pass is at least worthy of trial. The beginner would thus be distinguished from the experienced worker. The master teacher or expert would rank still higher and might become an expert trainer of those less competent. Many school systems,

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many supervisors, and a few summer schools observe these distinctions, but there is still too much herding in flocks regardless of actual needs.

Balance of academic and professional study—In general, teachers are quite as much in need of more scholarship as of better aims and better technique. The tendency on the part of teachers in service is clearly away from subject matter courses. They want to study education, particularly method. Obviously a person of limited experience with life is in no position to lead others into a deep and rich experience with it.

American teachers in general are undoubtedly clever and superficial rather than scholarly. Now that the need of professional training is widely felt and is rapidly becoming required, we can afford to stimulate renewed attention to subject matter. Failure to do this will certainly result in a harmful reaction against the study of the processes of education. Indeed, proper attention to the processes which the student himself employs in the study of history, geography, science, and the arts will often afford a better grasp of method than a more direct but isolated attack.

Caution in commending the results of scientific investigation—Research is the hope of the future. It alone can give us a science of education. But the way of science is long. Experiments must be tried again and again before we can be sure of their significance. Too many investigators in education forget this. They rush into print at the first opportunity, not in a sober, scientific way, but with the zeal of reformers. Instead of reporting tentative conclusions for other scientists, they write propaganda for teachers.

The effect is bad. Teachers are urged one year to teach no silent reading in the primary grades, while the next year they are advised to the contrary. Some of our young savants are too cocksure. If they had more practical experience, they would be more cautious.

Those concerned with the improvement of teachers in service, however much they may favor research, must help to check some of these young enthusiasts. Otherwise there will be confusion, waste, and reaction. Teaching will always be an art, and art requires imagination, sympathy, and skill born of long practice. It can never be reduced to a formula.

Supervision, the chief agency—Of the numerous agencies for the improvement of teachers now in action supervision is far the most important. Indeed, upon it depends in large measure the effectiveness of all the others. For the supervision is closest to the situation. He can best decide what help is most needed. He can best provide for continuity and for individual needs. Above all, he can harmonize academic with professional interests and insure the putting of new equipment to good use.

Fortunately supervision is becoming recognized as a separate and distinct function. Its importance is generally conceded. It is becoming a profession and definite qualifications are required for it. The technique demanded is of the same type and rests upon the same principles as the best of modern teaching—namely, the technique of group management.

The true supervisor is a leader. He arouses enthusiasm for the goal. He inspires and directs the search for the sure and direct road toward it.

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The continued growth and well-being of his colleagues is his constant care, nor does he ever forget that example is more powerful than precept. Hence he is always himself the judicious student.

Coöperation between teachers and supervisors and the wise use by them of books and periodicals, summer schools, extension classes, opportunities for travel and observation, conference, and investigation, these are the means by which the too general lack of maturity, scholarship, and professional training among teachers of which we are all so conscious, shall be made up. The principal and supervisor are pivotal. The immediate future of teaching is largely in their hands. And even if we had all the training schools we could wish for, their work would needs go on.

The question of academic degrees—Recently many administrators have thought it wise to reward the attainment of academic degrees by salary increases. The practice involves grave perils, especially where degrees are given undue weight in determining the teacher's desert. Already we hear of young things from college going upon the schedule far in advance of mature teachers whose efficiency is unquestioned. This reflects a childlike faith in the value of college training as a preparation for teaching. At the least it passes on to the college the responsibility for judging the merit of the teacher. It certainly places the principal outside of the picture.

Let us at least invoke the saving grace of the phrase, "other things being equal." It will certainly prove as unwise to rate teachers according to their academic standing as to classify wholly by an intelligence test. All existing factors must be taken into account.

All the teacher's study will be vain if it does not deepen his devotion. Professor Palmer declared that he could afford to pay Harvard College for the privilege of teaching in it. Such loyalty alone can make the greatest teachers possible. Somehow we must commend our profession to the ablest in every community as a career. We must induce the choicest spirits among us to dedicate their lives to the work of education. And we must all of us year by year renew our vows. We must study to serve.

EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH AND THE AMERICAN SCHOOL PROGRAM

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Educational research has exhibited in recent years in the United States a most phenomenal development. Universities and colleges vie with one another in setting up departments and schools devoted to the cultivation and dissemination of the science of education. City school systems are coming to regard a department of reference and research as indispensable to their complete equipment. The Federal Bureau of Education and many of the State departments of education are preparing and publishing bodies of exact information on educational practices and results which exhibit a

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...gh degree of perfection of the technique of scientific inquiry. The National Education Association has contributed to the movement by devoting a part of its resources to the erection of a department of educational research.

There are some observers who look upon all of these efforts as distinct and separate from the practical business of conducting schools. The teacher and the principal charged with the responsibility of dealing directly with the complex personal problems that arise day by day in the classroom are sometimes impatient of the remote generalizations of the research student. The member of the board of education and the taxpayer who feel the stress of public opinion are often doubtful about the expenditure of public funds for any purpose other than direct practical handling of routine problems. The tendency to stigmatize all research as mere theory is sometimes strong, especially when the results of investigation seem to demand the abandonment of traditional modes of procedure.

The antithesis between theory and practice often becomes acute, and in not a few cases theory has ultimately found itself in the wrong. This paper is in no sense of the word a plea for the infallibility of educational research. Educational research, like every other American institution, is the product of American genius, and as such exhibits the vigor and energy of an ardent civilization pushing forward by every means at hand to the new and more hopeful solution of social problems.

One cannot overemphasize the fact that educational research, whatever its shortcomings and whatever its failure in the past to coördinate its efforts with those of practical school officers, is the typical American method of solving the problem of school control. In the long run, American communities are willing to be guided by reason. They will not submit to dictation from persons, but they will be guided by facts. The most impressive characteristic of our democracy is its substitution of the authority of scientifically verifiable findings for the authority of arbitrary powers.

I am sure that there can be no offense to our European neighbors if I use as the means of showing the reason for the rapid development of the science of education in the United States two incidents which illustrate the contrast between ourselves and the older civilizations across the water.

In 1913 I had the opportunity of spending some time in the schools of England and Germany. As I went about among the schools of England, I became aware that a strong hand reaching down from above was putting into the British schools a new system of physical education. Not a little agitation was resulting. I was much interested in the pursuit of my study of educational organization to secure ultimately in London an interview with the member of the central staff of the English Board of Education who was responsible for the vigorous introduction into the schools of this new program of physical education. I asked him, without making reference to my observations, what his plans were and how they were succeeding. He told me in perfectly clear terms what his plans were. He had been taken from the army and told to make the nation a people physically fit to bear arms, and he was doing it.

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To my obtuse American mind in 1913, the motives for such a procedure were not altogether obvious. After discussing some details of his plans and procedure, I asked the question which my mind naturally raised in terms of my American habits of thinking, "How do you know that the work is going well in the schools?" This question brought the immediate response, "My inspectors make reports to me." "But," I pointed out, "inspectors sometimes misestimate situations. Have you no tables of results, no charts or diagrams with which to check up the reports?" This question seemed a little hazy to the head of physical education of England so I put the question bluntly: "How do you know that the inspectors are right?" Now the question was understood and the answer was clear. He said: "Sometimes I go down myself."

The authority which is reflected in that remark is truly exhilarating. How satisfying it would be if we could at times descend from the center upon some recalcitrant peripheral school and tell that school what to do next. No one can fail to see that the immediate effect would be decidedly wholesome. Suppose, for example, one of us could go to some city where the board of education is quarreling with the superintendent or is issuing wasteful building contracts and could say what ought to be done. The immediate result would, I am sure, be improvement. The impressive fact is, however, that in America there is no such possibility. American communities have the inalienable right to do very much what their wisdom or ignorance dictates. They may have physical education or physical stupidity as they prefer. The American way is the local way.

Slowly and inevitably there must emerge from our crude American way a new method of guidance. We have blundered often and are blundering today. We cannot appeal to authority. The time comes, however, and this is the reason for the American program of educational research when there will be a table of measurements prepared by somebody showing what is the result here of a good program in physical education and the result there of the absence of such a program and that table will assume sovereign control. America has been favorable soil for the growth of the science of education. No other civilized nation is so ill-equipped with central authorities in school matters as are we. No other nation has realized as we have the needs and possibilities of a science of education. We have borrowed methods from Europe and have studied the older social sciences as models for our science of education, but it has remained for us and for this newest civilization to give lavish support to this newest of the sciences. We have built up the science of education because it is the central authority and the source of controlling power in a democratic school system.

I have a like incident reflecting the contrast between European thinking and American thinking. An inspector of German schools who was at the same time head of a teacher-training institution exhibited some curiosity about our crude methods of supervising the curriculum and methods of teaching. "I am told," he said, "that you change superintendents every few years and sometimes very suddenly." Mindful of some of the kaleido-

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scopic changes I have observed, I admitted that the statement was no overstatement of American flexibility of organization. "Does this not seriously affect the stability of the schools?" asked the German inspector. The best I could do was to try to reflect in carefully chosen phrases some of our American enthusiasm for that unstable equilibrium which is favorable to forward movement.

Converts though we may be to a rough-and-ready disregard for traditions, I am sure that you and I must recognize that the throwing away of a stability based on past practices makes inevitable the cultivation of a science which shall guide practice into more productive channels. There are two ways of avoiding social chaos; one is to adhere tenaciously to those traditions which have made survival thus far possible; the other is to find new ways through the exercise of intelligence.

The American school system is unique in its decentralized control and its mobility. The American school system is unique in the energy which it has put into the cultivation of the science of education. The two statements belong together. He who thinks of educational research as a thing apart, as divorced from practice, as unfriendly to the daily routine of school life, fails to see that in the fundamental character of our school system is imbedded that seed of scientific control which is growing so rapidly into marvelous fruition.

There is no possibility on an occasion like this of adequately reviewing the progress of American educational research. One may think of some of the early attempts at intelligent democratic control which in the light of modern methods must be denied the title "scientific." Horace Mann and Henry Barnard made school surveys at a time when the term "survey" had not been applied to social situations. The frank and ruthlessly honest criticisms of these early surveyors were resented as have been later revelations of evil; but these pioneers were true exponents of the American idea that school control must come through a full knowledge of results.

Later came that historic effort to interest teachers and parents in a study of children, the child-study movement led by G. Stanley Hall. Crudity of method and inadequacy of observation on the part of those who attempted to exploit this movement led to its early collapse. The enthusiasm that the movement generated and its disruption of traditions are, however, substantial contributions to the history of American educational research.

The brilliant statistical analyses of Thorndike and Ayres, the measurement of results initiated by Rice and carried forward by a host of workers, the arduous applications of tests to the organization of the work of public school systems by Courtis and others, the study of exceptional children by Terman, Whipple, and others, the newer work on the curriculum by Bobbitt and Charters, the laboratory analyses of handwriting and reading by Thorndike and colleagues, and other lines of work, ought to be discussed at greater length than this occasion permits if they are to be adequately evaluated.

There are two forms which educational research has taken on in this country which must be made subjects of special comment even if our cursory

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review omits the mention of many workers of prominence and of many of their notable achievements. These two forms are the school survey and tests of general intelligence.

The early school surveys grew out of conditions of stress. One thinks of the New York survey and of the surveys of Portland and Springfield. In these cases school costs had been soaring, and the taxpayers or their representatives asked for evidence that they were receiving value for the money which they were expending. The surveys utilized such methods of scientific investigation as were at hand and attempted to supply the grounds for impartial and impersonal judgments on the situations. The results of these early surveys were not always happy. Controversies arose as to the adequacy and impartiality of the methods of investigation employed; and such adverse judgments regarding the school systems as the surveyors felt obliged to express were bitterly resented as personal attacks on the school officials.

The early surveys rendered, however, a great service in furnishing an opportunity to refine scientific method. They gave opportunity to try out rapidly on a large scale and under the fire of direct practical criticism, scientific methods in education which could not have been matured in a generation under the conditions of ordinary routine.

What Hanus and Cubberley and Ayres accomplished in New York, Portland, and Springfield was much more than to show these respective cities how to evaluate their school systems; they contributed to the development of methods of scientific investigation, which have come to be recognized as having universal application.

The survey movement in its early days was ambitious in the most unlimited degree. It attracted the services of the ablest students of the science of education and it made sweeping recommendations.

The movement reached its climax in the Cleveland survey. Since the completion of that survey there has been an obvious tendency to carry on these undertakings more as a part of the ordinary routine. The conduct of surveys has been referred increasingly to such constituted public organizations as the Bureau of Education, the General Education Board, State departments of education, and the like. Furthermore, there has appeared a tendency to break up the general survey into surveys of particular aspects of school situations as illustrated by Strayer's work on school buildings. The advantage of the special survey of a particular aspect of school work is that it is much easier to assimilate a few direct recommendations relating to a limited phase of the educational program than it is to try to accomplish a wholesale reform on the basis of a hundred sweeping criticisms.

To summarize, the survey movement began about a decade and a half ago and with astonishing rapidity matured to the point where any community which wishes to avail itself of the services of experts can arrange to do so and can through these experts have the advantages of a body of scientific methods which a generation ago were hardly dreamed of.

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The tests of general intelligence have been prominently before the reading public during the last twelve months. The science of psychology has been hard at work for three quarters of a century trying to devise ways of securing an exact and useful measure of human traits and human abilities. The organization of the American army in 1917 furnished an opportunity for the psychologists to apply on a vast scale the methods which the laboratory has produced.

Since the war the problem of carrying over the lessons of the army tests into peace conditions has absorbed much attention and given rise to many disagreements. Some there are who have recklessly asserted for tests possibilities which every careful student of human nature knows to be preposterous. There is an intoxication of enthusiasm which is sometimes as inconvenient for the public as other forms of unbalanced irrationality. That tests have been advertised for purposes to which they were and are inadequate is certainly true. The time is coming rapidly, however, when tests will be understood, when their limitations and their virtues will be equally known, and when schools will find that general intelligence tests are indeed no panacea for all ills but useful additions to the ordinary devices used in classifying students and organizing school work.

Up to this point I have attempted to sketch in the barest outline the history of a great movement. In a period so short that the memory of many of us reaches back to its beginnings, the science of education has developed as the natural expression by a democratic people of their determination to be guided by reason and by reason alone.

No one can forget that just a few years ago there was doubt in our midst about the possibility of directing school procedure through the measurement of results. Full well do we recall that historic occasion when the National Council spent a session listening to the attack of conservatives against the progress of educational science.

The details of our science are by no means worked out, but the major victory is won. There can be no doubt that universities and colleges will go on developing the resources of departments of education, that State and National governments will go on supporting research in this field, and that city systems will increasingly organize bureaus of investigation.

The time has now come when this movement must define itself with sufficient clearness to attract to its support adequate resources. Industrial concerns no longer begrudge to chemistry and physics the funds necessary for the maintenance of elaborate investigations, because industry has learned that research is the source of all its new masteries of physical materials. Communities no longer begrudge to those who provide sanitary water and public utilities the funds necessary to perfect on a vast scale the engineering equipment necessary for these sources of human well-being. It is our task and our opportunity to show the public of the United States and of the world that education can be organized in such a way that it will make abundant returns on all of the investments which are made in carrying it forward.

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There may at first sight seem to be inconsistency between the optimistic statements which have been made about the successes achieved by the science of education and the plea for increase in resources which is voiced in the foregoing paragraph. Success, however, has brought its problems and they are grave.

It is no longer possible, through the isolated efforts of individuals or through the uncoördinated efforts of institutions and school systems, to carry on the extensive researches which are required in order to direct the next steps to be taken in American education. We are living in a period when the eight-year elementary school and the four-year high school and the four-year college need to be welded into a single continuous educational unit. How shall this be done? No individual, however generously endowed with genius, can supply the formula for this new organization. No single school system can try out the necessary experiments and test the devices which must be perfected before reconstruction is completed. What we need at this time is coöperation and the best possible methods of scientific evaluation of many experiments. The successes of the past have brought us to the point where only vast resources will make possible the complex investigations that will result in clear vision as to the next steps to be taken.

Again, there is need of a new conception of the duty of the community toward its individual members. It was the belief of the older aristocratic States that knowledge and its attendant power were the exclusive property of the upper class. The educational program of the schools was constructed with a view to supplying that which the single class most needed. We are coming to recognize that in a democratic State it is advantageous to prepare all those who share in the duties of citizenship for their manifold and diverse duties. Education must undertake the dissemination of types of intellectual material which formerly were not included in the work of the school. It must cultivate skills which were formerly left to the chance imitations of ordinary life.

The reorganization of the content of instruction thus demanded cannot be worked out on any petty scale. It must not be worked out in the spirit of partisan preference for industrial education on the one side and literary education on the other. The science of education, with its impartial view of the needs of the pupils, must devise methods of critical evaluation of educational content and educational methods and must solve the problem of a new curriculum for American schools. Again it is apparent that this is not the task of isolated individuals or uncoördinated institutions.

Other problems could be described which are maturing at this time and involve readjustments of a magnitude which call for large extensions of the science of education if it is to fulfill its mission of supplying America with reasoned control of public education. We are led, therefore, to the question: How are provisions to be made for the proper development of a science of education to present-day demands. The answer is to be found, first, in a union of all of the educational forces of this country and, secondly, in an enlistment of the power of the Federal Government in the pursuit of educational research.

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This National Education Association should be convinced by its own history that it can be a real power in America only as it becomes a source of sound and scientific pronouncements on educational policy. There are those who have attempted to dominate this organization by political methods, and from time to time they have succeeded for a period. There have been days when it looked as though the boss system, so well known in American life, were to be the form of control of this Association. Each time that bossism has appeared, however, it has demonstrated its inadequacy and has thus lent powerful aid to the cause of educational science. There will ultimately be only one way to secure leadership in this Association. That will be through appeal to reason. The National Education Association is able to organize educational research on an enormous scale if it will direct its efforts to constructive scientific studies rather than petty politics. In the past it has been impotent whenever it has failed to develop as its chief product clear thinking and scientific foundations for its recommendations; it has been strong when it has sought facts and dealt critically with its findings.

It is true of American education in general that science is its only true control, and the one legitimate end of this organization is the production of broad educational policies through impartial scientific inquiry.

The Association can indeed become a greater power in directing the development of American education if it will hold to a program of scientific leadership, but this Association must have the coöperation of the Federal departments. Our government has been learning in recent years the same lesson that we have learned in education. Governmental power of the true American type springs, not from arbitrary central exercise of authority, but from informing leadership. The Department of Agriculture is a great leader of the American people, because it develops knowledge that no other agency is extensive enough in its reach to secure. The Department of Commerce is a guide to industry, not because it can boss the activities of commerce, but because it is supplying out of its laboratories knowledge which is absolutely indispensable to the guidance of modern undertakings.

There is urgent need of a great National center in our Federal Government for the cultivation of scientific information about schools. Many of us do not realize it, but our U. S. Bureau of Education supplies by far the most elaborate and reliable reports on schools that are to be found anywhere in the world. The reports of our Bureau are the envy of European students of education. The Bureau thus exhibits today the beginnings of the kind of Federal support for investigation which needs to be cultivated on a much larger scale. What we ought to seek is an immediate extension of the range of Federal support for educational researches and reports. For one, I favor a research department of education after the pattern of agriculture and commerce. We urgently need a central consolidating agency in the Federal government, able, as the U. S. Bureau of Education never has been, to support and foster Nation-wide scientific investigations.

My plea to this Association is that it make itself the center for the promotion of the one type of control that can find a permanent home on this continent—namely, control through research. My plea is for a union of

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forces in the careful study of our school problems, for a formulation of principles of organization and methods of work through coöperative inquiry, for the presentation of a solid front to Congress and to the people of the United States in the request for a Federal department equipped to make scientific studies and to supply that coördination and reinforcement which are the greatest needs of our present-day science of education.

PARENT POWER—A SCHOOL AUXILIARY

MRS. A. H. REEVE, PRESIDENT, NATIONAL CONGRESS OF MOTHERS AND PARENT-TEACHER ASSOCIATIONS, PHILADELPHIA, PENNSYLVANIA

The idea of the Parent-Teacher Association has been on the market for twenty-seven years, but it has not yet been sold to the average educator, while only five hundred and fifty thousand of the average parents have recognized its National importance and its sound business value.

Among the many marvels developed during the last half century, by no means the least remarkable has been the evolution of education. Two thousand years ago there were educators second to none who have followed them, but to few is granted contact with such master-minds, and in America today we are dealing with the average millions rather than with the favored few.

In a day not too far distant to be touched by the other end of the lives of many of us, the three R's were not only the basis but also the superstructure of public instruction. To them were first added the three H's—the training of the head, the hand, and the heart, and they were extended as time went on to include the three C's—conduct, character, and citizenship, in the school curriculum, while today the overburdened teacher feels that to all these have been added the three B's—body, brains, and bringing-up.

We are dealing in averages now. While there are many high marks of encouragement, it must be admitted that according to the general report, when the average mother—the average father is only just beginning to count as a factor in education—has brought her children through the early years, has fed and clothed and "done for" them according to her knowledge and ability, she welcomes the approach of school age with a feeling that now "teacher" will work out a magical solution of the small problems which have somehow eluded the parental comprehension and that she will return the children to the home fitted to become new and harmonious fractions of the family life.

It is just here that a particular phase of the evolution of education is making itself felt. The Italians, with their language so closely akin to the unerring accuracy of the Latin, have expressed it better than we who are more easily satisfied with broad sweeping effects and are more careless of detail in speech as in other matters, when they class as "instructed," the child who is sent to school and is taught the wisdom of books, and reserve the term "educated" for those who have also had the social training and the broad preparation which would fit them for the contacts of life.

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In the past twenty-five years we have been awakening to a general consciousness that after all, a fraction is a part of a unit, and must always be so, else it would cease to be a fraction at all, and that it is necessary to know what kind of a fraction it is and from what sort of unit it came if it is to be dealt with intelligently and successfully worked into new combinations. So the unit that was formerly the family had developed into the unit that is in the community, and the child of today—even the average child—is being considered less and less as the personal property of its parents, and more and more as belonging to the State, and it is being recognized that bad home training and environment result not only in a family failure but also in an undesirable citizen, who will not contribute to civic improvement.

A quarter of a century ago and more, the new idea took root, in what was considered at the time as a beautiful sentiment, admirable in its place, but only in its place, which was defined as the home. And there the idea did belong, until it should gain strength to spread. It was necessary to awaken in the average parent a sense of responsibility, a recognition of the fact that parents are made, not born, and that the profession of parenthood, second to none in importance in the progress of mankind, is an all-the-year round job which takes no vacation, and in which the mistakes cannot be buried as in the medical profession. As a business proposition it did not exist. The mother who went out of her home even to a Mothers' Club was a contradiction. She was neglecting her job, in which knowledge was supposed to come by doing. We dealt solely with mothers in those days, for children then were administratively half-orphaned, and it was necessary to demonstrate that children were as worthy of study and as interesting, as were the pigs and calves and chickens whose breeding and feeding commanded and received the best care and thought of the specialists who devoted their lives to securing the survival of the fittest live stock. When the vision of a possible intelligent parenthood began to dawn upon the maternal parent, with it came the realization that her child was none the less her child because the door of the schoolhouse had closed behind it, but that new tests and pressures applied to it only increased the need to study and understand the more complicated problem it presented. She learned a great truth—that home is where the child is—in the sense that its care and guidance are not confined to the four walls once supposedly limiting home influence, but must follow the child beyond them to the school, and then to that still more powerful educational institution, the school of the street.

The idea of bringing the organized forces of home, school, and community to bear upon the child as a whole and not in sections, broke out in several places almost simultaneously, and today has reached perhaps its most satisfactory expression in the Parent-Teacher Association, an absolutely non-political, non-sectarian, democratic body, meeting in that civic forum, the public school, and from it reaching forward into the relationships of the community and backward into the life of the home. Like all great movements, it is still subject to improvement, but the fact that more than half a million parents, teachers, and lovers of children are united in an

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effort to reach a higher standard of efficiency, and that many thousands more, detached and floating, are pointed in the same direction, would seem fair proof that they at least have realized the opportunities and advantages of coöperation between home and school.

As the doctor who prescribes for a patient without knowledge of conditions is no true physician, so the educator today who applies education with a one-sided knowledge of the pupil is no true educator; he is merely an instructor, while the parent who shifts to the shoulders of the teacher the burden of the mental and moral development of the child is shirking the responsibility undertaken with the founding of a home. In all well-balanced programs the advantages should be, and in this case they are, about evenly divided. The parental debit account stands somewhat thus:

First, a better perspective. In the home we have too many close-ups. The child looms very large; its background is limited; its contacts are very few and there is an exaggerated perception of both faults and virtues, with a strong tendency not only to tolerate but to intensify personal peculiarities as the inevitable consequences of the law of heredity. In times past, the domestic tyrant was sent forth into the unknown world of the school, and, returning with tales of injustice and oppression, was met by maternal sympathy or by paternal indifference to the common lot of boyhood. It was necessary for the parents to follow the child to school in order to realize that he was being rounded and polished, not crushed, by the friction of public opinion as represented by teachers and fellow pupils. To thousands of parents the first visit to school has been a distinct shock, somewhat akin to that which they would experience on seeing their boy plunge into deep water when they had not known that he could swim. The great machine of which he has become a part, the system, the routine, the large groups, the life so remote from their own, seem to have made their child a citizen of another world in which they, the father and mother, are aliens.

The parent owes much to the open schoolhouse for the opportunity to see their child as others see him, to be able to recognize the differing relationships, the fresh impressions, the wider range of thought and interest which are enriching his life, and in this new life to study him with the frank admission that never again can he be the same, but that he is still their child, and that in order to stay with him, they must go forward also, educating themselves in this new science of parenthood.

To this movement the parent owes a knowledge of the teacher. Now there is as much variety in teachers as there is in parents and in children; one and all we are like the famous "little girl that had a little curl." There are teachers who teach because they have to; there are some who teach until they can find "something better to do," and there is, fortunately, a vast army of devoted men and women who teach because they love their work and must do it in spite of every obstacle. These educators are welcoming more and more cordially the coöperation of school patrons, as the patrons themselves are becoming educated to the realization that they are in the school to make the most of an opportunity to observe their children from a new angle, to see that they have every advantage obtainable, and to profit by conference

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with those who see a side of them which seldom, if ever, appears in the home. Through this contact the parent learns the fundamental requirements of a pupil, and awakens to the fact that the greatest result to be secured by home and school coöperation is the scholar who goes to school prepared to be taught. Obedience, thoroughness, concentration, observation, a good vocabulary—the child bearing these gifts to his teacher ceases to become a problem and has himself become an opportunity.

The wise educator will grasp with both hands this opportunity to train the parents of his pupils to be efficient collaborators. In these school groups he will find a ready soil in which to plant the seed of understanding of the school and its needs, its system, its demands upon the scholar, its curriculum, and his aims and hopes for its future, and in which to cultivate that fine flower of friendship. He will realize that when parents and teachers are friends, before and after the children enter school, the problems of succeeding years will be met and solved as between friends instead of between rival workmen, and will become matters of coöperation rather than of contention. No health program however complete is working on more than two cylinders when it takes hold of a child over six years of age and has to correct as well as construct, in a few hours a week, a system which is out of commission all the rest of the time. Character education which begins in the school begins six years too late. It was a wise teacher who said "Give me the child until he is seven years of age, and I care not who has him afterwards." Character education must go back farther even than the child in the home; it must begin with the parent. If the home teacher has not the same ideals of honor, justice, truth, and civic righteousness as the school teacher, what kind of ideal can we expect in the child who is being educated by such double standards? The taxpayer in the home is wasting his money when he cultivates defects for the school to eradicate.

In these classes of student-parents—as the Parent-Teacher Associations may well be termed—will be found also the most potent factor in the solution of the problem, "Why do boys and girls leave school?" Perhaps no phase of the educational situation today is causing more anxiety, outside of a few large centers, than the deplorable falling off between the eighth grade and the high school. The idea in the mind of young America seems to be to escape with the minimum, rather than to acquire the maximum, amount of knowledge. While it is admitted that there is much room for improvement in the curriculum of high schools and colleges, an improvement foreshadowed by the increasing variety and scope of electives, yet we cannot do without higher education until it has attained our ideal, and our children should be brought up to ask "How much can I get in the way of training," instead of "How little can I get away with?" When going without the full course of education is felt to be as great a deprivation as going without the usual supply of food and sleep, when parents have been brought to a realization that an undernourished mind is as much a sign of neglect as an undernourished body, then, and then only, will the lamentably small per cent at present those who fail to go through the high school instead of those who graduate from it.

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Parent-power is an advantage which school men and women all over the country have been slow to appreciate. Your work is absorbing, intensive; you have dwelt in a world of your own; your duty has been the serious one of educating America's youth, and you have performed your task with a whole-hearted devotion that is beyond praise. But in your very absorption in your work, in your fear lest outside contacts should interfere with it you have been unconsciously "killing the goose that lays the golden egg." You are striving for greater advantages for the children, for modern buildings, larger appropriations, higher salaries for better teachers. But whence come all these necessities? *From the people!* And we Americans, who spend lavishly, even recklessly, for the things we want, must want a thing before we will buy it. Education has never been properly sold to the public. In order to appreciate it, the people must understand it, must see it in operation, must know its cost, and its value as compared to other attractions such as luxuries and amusements on which we squander millions gladly every year. At these great conventions of educators, the value of learning is eloquently set forth, but the hearers are largely those who are already convinced. Only in those gatherings of laymen and women, the meetings of Parent-Teacher Associations, is it possible to reach the minds and hearts and pocketbook of the American citizen, who alone can pay the bill, and who will do it cheerfully if he can be made to see the value of his purchase.

The Parent-Teacher Association is no longer a group of idle critics seeking out the faults of a system, no longer a body of philanthropists supplying to the schools those advantages of equipment which they cannot or will not otherwise procure. It is the greatest known asset of the Department of Public Instruction, in the village and the city, in the State, and in the Nation.

The voice of the people says where and how the public money shall be spent, and when intelligent parents and citizens both demand and supply the best education for the children of the community, then may we look for the dawn of a tomorrow when all Americans shall not only be born free and equal, but when all shall be equally equipped to secure their inalienable right to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness.

THE AMERICAN SCHOOL PROGRAM FROM THE STANDPOINT OF THE NATION

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The first of the National educational problems that I shall select for brief presentation, then, is the need for our developing much better educational machinery than we now have for the assimilation of our foreign-born peoples, and those additional immigrants who may in the future come to live among us. While there are many forces in our National life that help in this process of assimilation, it is after all largely a problem of education

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and one that our schools must take the lead in solving. New peoples coming among us must be initiated into the language, traditions, hopes, and aspirations of our people if we are to preserve our National character.

Between 1820 and 1914 over thirty-two millions of foreign-born peoples came to our shores to find new homes, and eleven and three quarter millions came during the four years preceding the World War. Had not the outbreak of this conflict checked the foreign flood it is hard to conjecture where we might have been today. No such vast movement of peoples has ever been known before in history. Since 1900 foreign peoples of widely diverse National stocks have come to this country so fast that we could not assimilate them. Our National digestive organs broke down, and when the World War began we realized, all too painfully, how vast was the number of foreign-born peoples who had settled in our midst but had not become one with us in language or thought or spirit. When we called the young men of these peoples to our military camps for preparation for foreign service, we had first to put them to school to teach them to understand the English speech. About one in ten of our people still profess no allegiance to the land of their adoption, and a large percentage of this number cannot read or write in English. The problem which still faces the United States is that of assimilating into our National life and citizenship these millions of foreign-born and foreign-thinking peoples.

The new immigration laws, enacted since the close of the World War, which limit those who may come to certain small quotas of those already here, and thus place a selective premium on northern and western Europeans and those of Teutonic and Anglo-Saxon stocks, if they can be maintained in the face of the demands of industry for a flood of cheap labor, promise to give us a breathing spell. This is an opportunity which we should improve by the development of a carefully supervised system of day and evening schools and citizenship classes, National in spirit and English in language, which will reach the homes and supplement the work of the day school with the children of these peoples, and which shall aim to produce a literate and an English-speaking Nation, American in thought and spirit. The work is large and needs doing and will cost much money, but I place it first in the American school program for the decade that lies ahead. The difficulties in the way are large but they are not insurmountable, though they have recently been materially increased by the almost incomprehensible decision of the United States Supreme Court, declaring unconstitutional the laws of the different States requiring all schools to be taught in the English language. How the Court could conclude that such an important nationalizing requirement interfered with the guaranteed individual and family freedom in religious worship passes my understanding.

A second National problem of large significance for the future of our National stock is the general provision of a good system of health education for our people. While this problem has awakened somewhat general interest recently, many societies have been organized for different forms of health-work propaganda, and much good work has been done by school systems here

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and there, much important work still remains to be done and the whole needs better integration and direction than has up to now been given it. We of today possess a wealth of knowledge as to disease and remedial procedure which former generations did not have, and this should be made the common property of our people. Every year we lose by death, from purely preventable diseases, five times as many of our people as our entire losses due to our participation in the World War, while the preventable loss in industry of time and earnings from largely preventable illness would pay for a National health service beyond our fondest dreams.

Our problem, then, is to train our children in good health habits; to disseminate sound ideas as to child hygiene and physical welfare among our people; to train our adults to recognize the importance of remedial procedures and to give early attention to danger signals; to expand the play activities of children into a well-organized plan for physical development; and to connect all such instruction with the daily life of our people as expressed in nutrition, sanitation, ventilation, physical care, food, clothing, sleep, and health habits generally. What we need, as a Nation, is better and more intelligent care for the children we have, rather than an unrestricted and an unintelligent increase in the population. The problem involves the changing of life habits and the uprooting of prejudices, and because of this it is well to include health education among important National educational problems.

A third large problem, or rather a group of problems, that is National in character and promises to call for much close thinking in the decade that lies ahead, is that group of problems involving a material reorganization and redirection of our school curricula, both urban and rural, that we may the better adapt our schools to the changing conditions and needs of our National life. I often think that the problems surrounding curriculum reorganization promise to be the great problems of the coming decade, displacing pedagogical tests, mental tests, and statistical procedure as the important new thing in our educational work. I haven't time tonight to do more than merely enumerate what probably the more important lines of this curriculum reorganization will be, but perhaps a mere enumeration will be sufficient to indicate to you something as to the importance and National scope of the problem.

In the first place, we shall still further overhaul our courses of study and revise our textbooks, with a view to the elimination of all that does not serve to prepare our young people for useful living in the years that are to come. The needs of the home and the shop will figure larger in our instruction in the future than they have in the past. The present absurd emphasis upon uniform courses of study and textbooks will be replaced by a more intelligent procedure that will make the unit of supervision the unit for course of study and textbook control. Health instruction and play activities will be organized as integral parts of our regular school work. The value of money and the intelligent use of leisure will need to be taught better than at present. A new emphasis will be placed on studies that train

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in definiteness in thinking and accuracy in work, with a view to correcting something of the present wide-spread inaccuracy and inattention to details on the part of an astonishingly large percentage of our young people.

New forms of citizenship training to develop a larger personal sense of responsibility in both individual and civic matters are much needed. These will call for a combination of forms of training that will both develop individual initiative and impose a personal discipline that at times will take precedence over personal initiative and liberty of action.

We need also to so reshape our school training as to more deeply influence and direct the deeper sources of the life of our people, that the best of our National characteristics will be brought out in their daily lives because our schools have instilled into every child the National traditions and conceptions and attitudes that it is desired to see shine forth. We must train our people to assume new burdens, to shoulder new tasks, and to subordinate National jingoism and personal and sordid motives to the greater ideas of international right and justice, peace and good-will, sterling National worth, and service to mankind.

This redirection of our instruction will call for many changes in emphasis, for the organization and introduction of new social studies, and for a reorganization and redirection of the history instruction in our schools. Especially in the high schools do we need to replace the usual instruction in National and political history by instruction that emphasizes civic institutions, questions in economics and government, and the organization and interrelations of modern political and industrial society.

It is important, too, that our young people should know more concerning the physical world in which they live, and this calls for an increasing emphasis on science and its applications to the occupations and trades and welfare and happiness of people in a modern industrial world.

So much for some of the main lines of course of study reorganization; let me now turn to another phase of the same problem.

A decade and a half ago we were surprised by results then published which showed the large amount of retardation and elimination among pupils in our elementary schools, and within recent years the new studies of the intelligence of our school children have revealed nothing of more fundamental importance to us as a people than the tremendous waste we now make of the ability of our gifted children. Taught in classes along with slow and average children, following the same single-track course of study, given few opportunities to show what they are capable of doing, held back in school when they ought to be pushed ahead, and never learning what work to industry means, we are today training our brightest and most capable children for personal inefficiency when we ought to be training them, in dozens of cases, for leadership in our democratic life.

So far as intelligence testing has, within recent years, led us to adapt our instruction to the needs of any class in our school population, it has been largely for those at the lower end of the intelligence scale. Yet one bright child may easily be worth more to the National life than thousands of those

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of low mentality upon whom we have up to now bestowed our chief attention and our largest per capita expenditure. If the results of intelligence testing means anything to us when applied to school organization and administration, they mean larger school units and differentiated classroom instruction, that the slow, the average, and the gifted may each find classes in our schools adapted to their needs and intended to bring out their full capacities for usefulness and service. The differentiation of our courses of study, then, into different type courses, suited to the needs of children of differing intellectual capacities, is another phase of curriculum reorganization that should enlist our serious attention.

Another important educational problem is the reorganization of rural education to fit the rural school to minister better to the needs of rural life and rural people. Tied up closely as the rural-school problem is with the great rural-life problem, the provision of a better type of instruction for the children in the rural districts of this Nation is one of fundamental importance for the future of life on our farms. Despite all that special laws, farm land banks, irrigation projects, coöperative marketing associations, the church, the grange, the similar undertakings and organizations may do to improve life on the farm, the problem after all is primarily an educational problem, and its solution will rest largely with the school. If we are to prevent the development in America of a stratified peasantry on our farms, we must reorganize and redirect our rural education so as to make our rural schools such as to satisfy the demands of the more intelligent classes of country people. If we do not they will leave the country and go to town to secure better educational advantages for their children.

This problem I have traced at length elsewhere, and I have no time now to detail the remedies needed further than to say that we must apply to the rural educational problem the same methods that have proved so successful in the administration of our city schools—namely, large units of organization, graded and differentiated instruction, expert professional supervision and the substitution of professional competency for politics in the selection of those who are to organize and direct our rural schools. This calls for the gradual subordination and elimination of the district system of school organization and administration; the substitution therefor of some larger unit, preferably the county, except possibly in the Northeastern section of the country; and the placing of the supervision of rural education on as high a professional basis as is the best of our city school administration today. As it is now, the district system of school organization and administration, except in sparsely settled regions; the popular election of county superintendents, always from among the local electorate; uniform State courses of study and textbooks, selected with the needs of the city child primarily in view; and the support of rural schools largely by local taxation—these are the best of possible devices for keeping rural schools poor and for preventing the children of rural people from ever sharing in those larger opportunities and advantages which city children today enjoy.

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Closely connected with the problem of rural educational reorganization is another National problem of yearly increasing importance—that of a much more general equalization of both the advantages and the burdens of a good education than is now enjoyed by the people of this Nation. Public education has today become a more important State and National interest than have forest supervision, concrete highways, fish propagation, game preserves, or the control of cattle tick or bovine tuberculosis, all of which we today accept as proper State and National functions. We also generally accept today the principle of an equalization of advantages and burdens throughout wide areas by ordering common railway rates; common charges for electric light and power, water, gas, and telephone services; common costs for health and agricultural services, and in many other ways that need not be mentioned here. If each city, to cite but one example, paid only the cost to it of telephone or electric light or gas service within its corporate limits, and no more, the cost for such services to small towns and to rural districts would be prohibitive. It is only by a pooling of costs on a large scale, as expressed in a common service rate, that common and universal service can be provided. All of these new services have come recently, after better ideas as to equalization have come to prevail, and we accept an equalization of costs for them as perfectly proper. Education began much earlier, and in the days of little things and local effort, and we often fail today to see that the same principle of equalization should apply.

Every struggle for common county or State taxation for schools has been a struggle toward better equalization of both the burdens and the advantages of education. In many of our States but little in this direction has as yet been accomplished, though all recent studies have shown the great importance of as large and as wide a pooling of costs as is possible in providing what is for the common good of all. The tax rate of a few is increased; the burdens of many are reduced. If one may judge by the present activity of tax-payers' associations, and the attitude of a few reactionary governors and custodians of wealth, the next great battle in American education is likely to be fought out on this question of equalization, and with about the same line-up of conservatives and reactionaries on the one side and the advocates of better public education on the other, as in the days of Stowe and Lewis, Galloway and Pierce, Carter and Stevens, Mills and Swett, and Mann and Barnard.

We cannot consider this question of better equalization, either wholly or from a State point of view. The far-reaching National changes of the last two decades, the new National needs that have today come to be felt, the general breakdown of the property tax as a means for governmental support, and the new consciousness that education has become the great constructive tool of modern nations, have all alike contributed to evolve the problem of equalization into a truly National problem, and sooner or later it must be faced by our people as such. There is no hope that certain of our States will ever be able, unaided, to provide a good educational system for their children. What Minnesota or California can do with ease, Missis-

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sippi or Colorado cannot do at all. The same is true of other pairs of States that might be cited. We have clearly recognized the responsibility of the National Government for aid in the establishment of the Appalachian Forest Reserve, in the drainage of our rivers, and in the building of highways, in the harbor and lighthouse service, in the creation of irrigation projects, in the promotion of agriculture, and in many other ways that do not need to be mentioned now. Important as these services may be to the States, none are more important than the education of our people, and one item in any American school program of today ought to be that of making the Congress of these United States so see it.

Another point in a National educational program that ought to be included here is that of securing a better educated and trained teaching force for the schools of this Nation. With education expanding so rapidly in scope and importance and changing so thoroughly in character as it has done during the past decade, with the many new problems of National importance that our schools are today being called upon to aid the Nation in solving, and with the curriculum reorganizations I have previously indicated as ahead of us and the changes in educational procedure they will entail, the demand for both better educated and better trained teachers for our schools was never so great in all our history as it is at present. We cannot do the work that is to be done in this Nation with the type of poorly educated and often totally untrained teacher that we still have far too often to employ. In some of our States conditions are pitiable, and largely inexcusable. Any strong National consciousness as to the importance of public education in such a democratic type of government as ours would not permit such conditions to continue to exist.

What we need, as a Nation, is a well-educated and well-trained teacher in every school room in this broad land. This can be had if we once decide to make such provision. It is almost wholly an economic question. Proper salary schedules and working conditions will produce the needed supply for teacher training, and an adequate number of adequately supported teacher-training institutions in our States will in time give us the properly educated and professionally trained teaching body our schools need today. That public education will then cost much more than we now spend for it goes almost without saying. We are now spending approximately one billion of dollars per year for the schools we now maintain, and recent studies seem to indicate that the general provision of the type of teacher needed in the school rooms of this Nation may cause our schools to cost twice this sum, or even more. It is wholly a question for our people to decide as to how soon they desire to provide properly educated and trained teachers for their children; that such a type of teacher can be produced in training institutions we know.

The six most important items in any forward-looking American school program, covering at least the next decade of work and service, are: (1) A comprehensive educational program to aid in the assimilation of the foreign-born we have among us; (2) the general provision of a good system

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health and development education; (3) such a reorganization of our school curricula as will adapt our schools better to new conditions and needs in our National life; (4) the reorganization and redirection of rual education; (5) a much more general equalization of both the advantages and the burdens of education than we now enjoy; and (6) provision for the placing of an adequately educated and an adequately trained teacher in every classroom in the United States. Five of these six are at bottom economic problems in that the necessary additional funds must be provided by our people before much can be done by educational workers to give effect to the proposals; only one—that of curricula reorganization—is primarily an educational problem. All of the six are primarily National in scope and importance, and call for National coöperation in their solution. In closing, let me add one more, and one which may easily become the major problem of them all.

We have slowly changed education, in the conceptions of the people of the Nation, from a local and a personal affair to a State affair, in which all have a common interest. During the last half century this idea has been built up in the minds of our people, and today we conceive of education, in theory at least, as something maintained by the State and as maintained as an exercise of the State's inherent right to preservation and improvement. The problem of the next quarter of a century, perhaps, will be similarly to establish public education in the minds of our people as a great National undertaking, in which the States coöperate to provide something of fundamental importance for the welfare of the Nation as a whole. I cannot state the new position that the Nation should assume toward public education better than to quote from a recent address by one of our foremost opponents of the specific provisions of the Smith-Towner and Sterling-Towner bills. Speaking on the question of National participation, at a Harvard Teachers' Association conference, Professor Judd said:

"We have reached the state in the evolution of our American school system when narrow local control and support, and even centralized State control and support, must be supplemented by a broader National participation in educational organization. A National educational agency should be created which can both encourage and compel progressive improvement in rural schools. To this end a National Department (of education) should be created and endowed with supervisory powers, and the obligation of each State as a party to the National educational policy should be made clear."

Education today has become the great constructive tool of modern civilization. A hundred years ago the school was of but small importance in the life of the State; today its proper maintenance has become the prime essential to good government and National progress. In this hundred years the school has been transformed from a little district institution for the teaching of the simplest tools of learning into a great State undertaking for the conservation and advancement of the intelligence of the people and the protection of the welfare of the Nation. Under a democratic form of government such as ours, with the many new problems—internal and external—

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confronting it, the education of the people in a series of State schools, animated and directed by a National purpose, becomes the greatest of all constructive undertakings for the promotion of the National welfare, and it is from this broad National point of view that our people must next be made to see the school.

Adding, then, to the six items I have previously enumerated, the nationalization of education in the minds of our people as a seventh, with some intelligent form of National aid in school support to stimulate the States to greater activity and to insure a better equalization of burdens and advantages, these seven constitute what seem to me to be the most important items in my forward-looking American school program covering at least the coming decade.

THE AMERICAN SCHOOL PROGRAM FROM THE STANDPOINT OF THE STATE

THOMAS E. FINEGAN, FORMER STATE SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION FOR PENNSYLVANIA

There is not an important problem in public education under consideration in any part of the country today which is not a leading educational issue in nearly every one of the forty-eight States in the Union. The problems in State education administration therefore are the educational problems of the Nation itself.

Under the practices inherent, however, in our form of government and under the accepted policy of American education the State is the governmental agency which is primarily responsible for the administration of public education.

Each of the forty-eight States in the Union has from its very beginning not only accepted this responsibility but has under the authority of constitutional mandates and legislative enactments organized and established a *State system* of public education. Under the initiative of the State, educational programs have been formulated, general directory and administrative powers over educational affairs have been exercised, facilities for education as the country has grown and expanded have been increased and the benefits accruing from education have been made available to all the children of the land.

The American policy in public education may therefore be stated to be "that the educational affairs of the country shall be controlled and administered by the respective States of the Union." Speaking tonight from an experience of more than thirty years' association in the direction and administration of education in the two leading States of the Union, I desire to express the unqualified opinion that our National education policy not only has been, but still is a sound one.

Furthermore, I wish to express the judgment that it is desirable that the entire country should be made to understand that the educational workers of the Nation stand squarely upon this platform and that no action by them

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contemplated which shall destroy it. The educational atmosphere of the entire country will be clarified if this Association shall again set forth in unmistakable terms in its declaration of policies its irrevocable belief in and adherence to this sound fundamental policy that public education is a function of government reserved to and to be exercised by the respective States of the Union.

No issue now before the country should be misrepresented or obscured through false or misleading propaganda upon the attitude which this great association has taken toward the continuance of the policy of *State control* and *State administration* of public education.

In measuring the effectiveness of an educational system or in promulgating plans which contemplate its modification or expansion it is necessary to visualize the State as an economic and social organization and to understand its contributions to our progress and prosperity through its social and historical development. Looking at my own State from this viewpoint I see it as one dotted throughout with great industrial centers, with extensive and valuable mining sections, with rich agricultural regions thickly populated, and with vast mountainous stretches of waste and barren land.

I also see a State rich in historical achievement in the development of the advancing civilization of mankind; a State which has made significant contributions to the field of art, music, literature, architecture, invention, science, philosophy, religion, and government; and a State which has exercised a commanding leadership in the commercial and industrial affairs of the country. Within its boundaries are nine million people, two million of whom are of school age. These people represent every Nation of the earth. Among these is an army of four hundred thousand adults who are not able to read or write the language and this number does not include the vast throng of near illiterates. These people are here because of their belief that larger opportunities will be afforded them and their children in this free land than in any other country of the world. They have made a great contribution to the progress and development of the country and have generally become law-abiding, industrious and patriotic citizens. Notwithstanding all this they have added the customs and traditions, the hatreds and jealousies, and the racial and political prejudices of all peoples to the social and political problems of our national life.

Conditions similar to these described as prevailing in the State which I represent could be presented here tonight by a representative of each of the forty-eight States of the Union. All of the elements which I have described are a vital bearing upon the power, influence, and life of the State and must therefore be considered in measuring or determining the needs, and ambitions, the visions and the aspirations of its people. These factors are the foundations upon which an educational system must be constructed.

In the expansion and development of educational programs we must think and plan in terms of present-day advancement and progress, and of our present philosophy of life and government. We are living today in a new world of thought, philosophy, and political action. The adoption of prohibi-

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tion in this country was no mere accident. Its enactment represents a new day in the social order of American life—a movement to raise mankind from a self-debased condition to a self-respecting and self-controlled status. Every schoolroom in the land and every teacher employed therein will in the discharge of their obligations strengthen the conviction and determination of the American people that one of the first requirements of good citizenship is respect for and obedience to the laws of the land.

The extension of the right of suffrage to women is another example of the advanced political thought and philosophy of our times. It is not to be regarded as a clever piece of strategy in the game of practical politics but rather as the enlarged outlook in life and the firm conviction of the American people that justice and equality under the law shall be accorded all citizens.

These two examples of our advanced philosophy of life and of political thought and action are in harmony with the general advanced ideas and methods in all departments of life and human endeavor. The old forms of practice and procedure in all social, industrial, and political affairs have been superseded by the modern methods introduced through the forces revealed by the inventive, electrical, and industrial revolution which has swept over the civilized world during the last quarter of a century. Great trunk lines belt the continent and penetrate every community while extensive modern steamship routes traverse all the great water highways. Through these modern agencies all sections of our own country have been bound together and the whole world has been brought into cordial relations and intimate contact. The achievements in scientific research and experimentations in physics, chemistry, and biology have also moved our progress along by leaps and bounds.

With this background of our social and industrial status, with the clear understanding that the great aim and purpose of education is to train men and women for service for citizenship and with our knowledge of the educational situation in the country today from the standpoint of the interest, obligation, and responsibility which the State has therein, is it not pertinent to inquire: Are the public schools rendering fully and squarely the service which our economic and political necessities require? Are they furnishing that training and affording those opportunities which are essential for the preparation of the great majority of the Nations' twenty-five million boys and girls for the service of citizenship in our democracy?

Speaking from my own experience I wish to record my testimony in support of the declaration that the public schools of the Nation are rendering a finer, better, more efficient and patriotic service to America today than at any previous time in the history of the Republic. The teaching force of the Nation represents a higher standard of qualification and devotion to duty. The programs of study conform more adequately to the needs of our present social order. The practices in classroom work and in general administration policies are meeting more nearly the principles which experience and scientific investigation and research have shown to be wise and sound. The potency of education in building character, in developing initiative in individuals as well

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as in expressing group responsibility, and in effectively influencing great moral, social, and political questions is manifest upon every hand.

At no time has the returns in dividends on each dollar invested in public education been so large as in the year 1923. I have no sympathy whatever with the thoughtless but constant criticism of the young people of the present day. They possess their faults as did each preceding generation, but America never before possessed a generation of boys and girls so well prepared to face the battle of life, so responsive to the moral and spiritual needs of the hour, so full of hope and courage and so promising in successful achievement. It is our obligation, fellow-teachers, to repel these wicked assaults upon our boys and girls and give them the encouragement that comes from an expression of confidence in their character and power.

While conditions generally are gratifying and encouraging every leader and student of educational administration recognizes the limitations in educational facilities and opportunities which are available for the boys and girls of today and which are essential to the future peace and prosperity of our country and the perpetuation of the ideals and institutions of our National life.

This association has set forth in its platform the minimum standards of educational facilities which should prevail throughout the Nation. These standards have been accepted as the goal toward which I have endeavored to direct educational system of a great State, but there is not a State in the Union which has provided these clear necessities in educational opportunity. In enlarging and expanding our educational programs to enable us to discharge our obligations to the children of the Nation a great fundamental principle of democracy must be observed. Equal justice must be accorded every child in the land. Opportunities should not be provided for some which are denied others. In a free democratic State education must be administered on a plane and in a spirit which shall open to all the children of each State the door of opportunity upon an equal footing.

The great majority of children of America leave before they are fourteen years of age. We are annually sending into industrial slavery a million of these helpless victims because our social and economic conditions are not organized upon a basis which gives them the opportunity to prepare for a larger and more efficient service. School terms must be lengthened and equalized. Every child in the land must be given the opportunity to attend school for a full day during the entire school period. Sanitary and comfortable buildings which are found in large numbers all over the country should become the accepted type of building wherever a public school is maintained. Modern supplies, equipment, and tools should be as common in the classroom as are such essentials in the factory or upon the farm. Training children to practice the simple rules of right living which develops the physical and moral powers, increases the mental alertness and brings joy and sunshine into every soul should be regarded as essential as teaching English, history, or any other subject. Through the development and extension of

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the junior high school all children must be held in school for longer periods and afforded the opportunity through an enriched and varied curriculum of educational activity to discover their individual development and aptitudes. The school should be an agency in every community which challenges the low resorts and places of amusements for young people by providing those forms of recreation and amusements which young people desire and will obtain. These may be provided through playgrounds, gymnasiums, reading-rooms, libraries, and other agencies. Through the public school a swift blow should be struck at illiteracy with a determination that within a decade the population of America should become literate.

Notwithstanding all the skillful and scientific planning that is given to the administration of public education there is one great factor upon which its success depends and that factor is the teacher. The slogan of this Association has been for years a " trained teacher in every classroom." The public must be enlisted in the fight to improve the teaching force. The teacher is the real power of a school system. She should possess a liberal education, she should have opportunity to develop her cultural and uplifting powers in order that she may influence properly the developing character and the ambitions of those whom she instructs. She must feel secure in her tenure, receive adequate compensation, and be able to make those contacts in life which increase her human sympathies and her power of inspiration.

I like the expression of Dr. H. A. L. Fisher, Great Britian's great minister of education, who said that a teacher receiving a " sweated wage " and carrying the " illiberal cares of life " could not do satisfactory teaching. The teacher must be contented, happy, free from distressing cares and able to enjoy life if she is to render that service in the classroom which she desires to perform.

The teacher-training institutions of a State are the backbone of a public-school system. The standards of these institutions are an index to the standards of a school system. I know of no State in the country which possesses adequate teacher-training facilities. There is not a State in America which is providing adequate financial support for its teacher-training institutions. A legislative body, a legislative leader, or an executive who seeks to cripple these institutions by withholding or decreasing appropriations for their support is striking a vital blow at the very heart of a public-school system. There is need of a great National campaign for the development of adequate support for State normal schools and other teacher-training institutions.

Time will not permit me to consider all of the great problems which a State administrator must face. The solution of these problems requires a greater public appreciation of the value and power of education and of the service which good modern schools render.

Communities have an appreciation generally of the value and service rendered by a modern improved highway extending through it. The public must be led to realize that modern schools afford their boys and girls opportunities for the preparation for life which are of even greater value and service

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to the community than modern highways. The modern highway serves the comfort, the convenience, and the physical needs—administers to the material things of life; while a modern school serves not only the material but the moral and intellectual needs—administers to the spiritual affairs of life.

The whole country needs leadership in education. The masses need the same type of leadership in educational affairs which the National Education Association has given in recent years to the teachers and superintendents of the Nation. There is not an administrative officer or a classroom teacher in the land whose burden has not been lightened, whose heart has not been cheered, whose courage has not been strengthened, and whose success has not been enlarged because he has been conscious that the ideals in education for which he has been striving has the professional support of the Association.

Similar leadership which shall be bold and courageous is needed in every State, county, city, and school unit of administration. Such leadership must be provided in these divisions by the responsible leader of education therein. State administrators, city and county superintendents, principals and teachers generally must be students of our great social, economic and industrial problems, must possess clear conceptions of the aims and purposes of education and must be familiar with the needs, practices and procedure in modern educational policies, and thus be able to develop public sentiment favorable to education which will guarantee that financial support and favorable action essential to the advancement of progressive modern schools.

I predicated this discussion with a brief statement of the American policy of education to be that educational affairs are to be controlled and administered by the *State*. Thus far I have presented one viewpoint which every State administrator must possess. That has been the viewpoint within the State. We must of course view this problem from the needs, conditions, and social and historical development of each State. The State must understand, appreciate and discharge its obligations in these affairs. This viewpoint is the narrow outlook which we are bound to possess. There is however a larger, broader viewpoint which the State administrator must obtain if he is to attain the great achievements which must prevail in this land. He must look out of his State and survey the needs and obligations of the entire Nation. Traveling across the continent from one ocean to the other; passing through fifteen or twenty of these great American commonwealths; observing the material development of the country, ascertaining the thought, the aims the ideals of the people; and in fact looking at our American problems through the eyes of forty-eight States will give to us a vision of the real, great outstanding objective which must be reached through the work of the public schools of the Nation. When we have this vision of education we shall possess a more accurate appreciation of our responsibilities in such leadership as the schools possess. We shall also then have that larger vision of the relations of this Republic to other nations of our obligation to the great world problems and the power and influence which education is capable of rendering in the establishment of world peace and the honorable and humane adjustment of all world problems.

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My position must not therefore be interpreted to mean that the National Government has no concern in public education. While the *States* must *control* and *administer* educational affairs, the National Government must express its interest in public education. The ends to be attained in America through educational processes can never be accomplished until the Federal government extends to educational leadership the weight of its power and influence and until it supplies financial support to aid in the equalization of educational opportunity. The country needs the influence and benefit which would accrue to education through a great clearing-house in educational enterprises at the seat of the National Government. I know of no more potent influence or effective service that could be rendered education in all parts of the country than the enactment by Congress of a measure similar to the Towner-Sterling Bill. A department of education in the National Government would afford a unifying influence throughout the land which would stabilize and promote educational activities in every State in the Union and would in no way interfere with well-established State or local rights and privileges or decrease or minimize the influence of a single State in its educational affairs.

Time after time when I have endeavored to promote some educational reform within my official province within a State, or to effect legislative results which would improve the opportunities of boys and girls, I have felt the need of the power and influence which can be supplied through a Federal department of education. Having a viewpoint of the State administrator, as I have worked in such capacity all my life, I have no fears whatever of a National department of education interfering with the prerogatives of a State office responsible for the supervision of education in a State or of decreasing the influence of such officer with his State constituents. On the other hand, I believe such a department would increase greatly the dignity, the power for usefulness and the prestige in every way of an official responsible for the leadership of education in one of our American States. As the National Education Association itself has influenced the professional side of education in every section and corner of the land so would a National Department of Education influence the legal, the constitutional, the financial, the official side of public education not only in every State and school district of the country, but also in the eyes of the world. Each State and the Nation itself must join in giving to every boy and every girl in the land the opportunity of obtaining the education which will best fit them for the service of the Republic.

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THE AMERICAN SCHOOL PROGRAM FROM THE STANDPOINT OF THE CITY

WILLIAM L. ETTINGER, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS
NEW YORK CITY

The leading cities of our country are remarkable not only for their rapid growth but also for their political and social influence. As distinct from rural communities they may be called the ganglia of our vast body politic. They are highly energized and unstable centers of human energy, receiving, transforming, and sending afar stimuli that determine the character of our National life.

The city which I have the honor to represent is perhaps the most striking exemplification of such truths. Within a space of little more than three hundred years the island with its adjacent lands, where lurked the redman and the surrounding waters where glided his birchbark canoe, have become the home of approximately six million people who wield tremendous power in the field of industry, commerce, and finance. The Leviathan has replaced the canoe and aeroplanes soar high over that marvelous cathedral of commerce, the Woolworth Building, the golden spires of which are emblematic not only of present accomplishments but of our aspirations for the future.

Cities, whether they be New York, Chicago, St. Louis, or San Francisco, are proved to be a striking feature of our National growth. By the close of the Civil War pioneer life, symbolized by the covered wagon, had blazed the way for rural communities and while they, in turn, have not been superseded, they have been affected by the growth of our great cities. The introduction of coal, petroleum, steel, concrete, and steam power, the invention of the steamboat, the railroad, and various types of labor-saving machinery, supplemented by the influence of a policy of protective tariff, led to the rapid development of cities after 1825. Since that time our cities have been constantly growing at the expense of the suburban or rural areas, so that today, of our vast National population of approximately 105,000,000 people, one quarter of the entire population lives in 68 cities, of 100,000 inhabitants or more. This constant drainage of rural areas by cities is still progressing, as evidenced by the fact that during the last decade in the northeast and the northcentral States, the increase of urban population has exceeded the growth of rural population by 27 per cent. In short, the great migratory movement westward, that has hitherto characterized the growth of our country, has ceased and because of the potent attractiveness of our cities, those vast centers of industry and culture, of degradation and refinement, of gross materialism, as well as inspiring spirituality, the theoretical center of population which ever since colonial days has been shifting westward, has begun to swing eastward as an index of the massing of population in such great manufacturing centers as New York, Pennsylvania, Ohio, and Illinois.

These facts have a direct relevancy to the discussion of the part that our cities have played and still play in the development of educational policies. The cities, as well as the Federal and the State government, have been strong,

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persistent, beneficial influences in the development of educational service, and as the cities grow in number, in wealth, and in power, they will inevitably exert an influence and a control over the development of our school program that will be as beneficial and as stimulating in the future as it has been in the past. The crowding of people into industrial centers, which began during Jackson's administration, immediately thrust to the front the problem of the proper education not only of the poor and of those affiliated with religious agencies, but of all, irrespective of wealth, religion, or social status. The need of education for the masses, which was readily ignored when the population was thinly and widely scattered over rural areas, became a problem of paramount importance in relation to intelligent, decent, honest living, as soon as our people began to live under conditions such as ordinarily exist in great industrial centers.

The evils incident to the herding of our cities in industrial communities led to the rapid displacement of the conception of education as a religious or philanthropic activity, to be carried on by private enterprise and endowment for the benefit of the indigent by the sounder modern conception of a free, tax-supported, compulsory education as the chief means adopted by the Nation, the State, and the municipality, to insure not only the development of the individual, but also the type of social and political life and service necessary for the maintenance and the advancement of the State. The excellent work of the various public school societies after 1806, operating the Lancastrian system of instruction in the growing cities of the East, eventually prepared the way for the education of large groups of children, in graded classes, in specially constructed buildings, with trained teachers, at a reasonable per capita cost. In other words, the proverbial little red schoolhouse, well fitted to serve the rural community of its day, was supplemented by the more complex type of school organization developed to meet the needs of city conditions.

In like manner, the city environment not only determined the elimination of the small ungraded school, with its narrow three-R curriculum, but also compelled a reconstruction of the entire life of the school. The denial of experiences in the woods, meadows, hayloft, barnyard, kitchen, the blacksmith's shop or the grist-mill, led finally to the enrichment of the curriculum by the introduction of such subjects as physical training, nature study, manual training, and domestic science, subjects unknown in the older type of country school. The denial of play space to the child of the tenements led to the introduction of playgrounds, both within and without the school. Moreover, in order properly to house our vast army of pupils and to afford facilities for such liberalized education, a special type of school architecture consistent with the high ideals of beauty, sanitation, and safety, was rapidly devised.

The pressure of public opinion and criticism born of intimate knowledge of the type of education to which their children were subjected, led the public to demand that teachers be trained for their work and that they be paid salaries adequate to attract and to hold competent men and women. Just

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as cities have been a vital influence in relation to the industrial, the commercial, and the political life of the Nation, so also have they exerted a continuous, stimulating, and constructive influence in the development of our schools.

In suggesting typical present-day problems in our large cities I will touch briefly upon certain city school problems the solution of which is fraught with much difficulty, but which, when effected, will represent additional contributions made by our large cities to the cause of education. Perhaps one of the most important and most perplexing problems is the determination of the relation of the board of education to the municipality on the one hand, and to the State on the other. While the generally accepted legal theory, as expressed in statutes and decisions, is to the effect that education is a State function, carried on chiefly by means of funds provided by the city, the fact remains, as evidenced by controversies countrywide, that arise over the attempts of well-intentioned municipal authorities to treat and to control educational funds, educational policies, and educational administration as identical with those of city departments, that there is a wide zone of disputed authority that should be made the subject of professional study and statutory regulation.

As long as States make but meagre contributions to the funds required for current expenditures for educational service within the municipalities, it is more than difficult to meet the well-sustained arguments of advocates of home rule and particularly to withstand the demand of members of succeeding political administrations responsible for rising tax rates, for a controlling voice with reference to school funds raised by tax levy. State supervision and control of education in large cities are a legislative theory rather than an actuality.

A related problem resulting in wide divergence of opinion is the method of creating boards of education. Some communities adopt the method of direct appointment by the mayor; others, the antithetical method of direct election by the people; and others, a middle ground method of appointment by a representative commission. All plans are being tried with varying degrees of success, but we have still to develop a formula or a method which will create boards of education which will recognize their joint responsibility both to the State and to the municipality. Identical plans of organization are found successful in some communities and wanting in others.

A similar problem arises in relation to the size and the powers of the board of education when created. The general tendency countrywide in large cities is toward the creation of small boards, preferably of seven or more members, empowered to formulate but not to administer educational policies. The success of a board of any size, however, is conditioned not so much by the number as by the personality of its members. Increasingly we find men and women of fine attainments, rich experience, and splendid civic ideals accepting appointment to boards of education not to fatten on patronage or to don a mantle of brief authority, but to render to the city and to the State the noblest

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type of public service possible—namely, vigilant guardianship and inspiring guidance of our richest inheritance, the children of today, the citizenship of tomorrow.

The problem of financing educational service is one of ever-increasing and ever-recurring difficulty. Constitutional tax and debt limits binding upon the administrative officers of the municipality and therefore limiting the financial support that may be extended to the schools, tend to place the schools in severe competition with city departments, in the attempt to secure the moneys necessary for efficient management and healthy growth. The situation becomes dangerously acute when the State aid is inadequate, as it is in most instances, despite the accepted theory of education as a State function.

Perhaps an extreme illustration may give additional significance to my remarks. Greater New York—like Athens of old—is really a city-state containing 54 per cent of the population of the entire State. The wonder city of the East has a population of approximately 5,000,000 and a school population of 922,000 pupils. This school population is approximately equal to the combined total population of Arizona, Wyoming, Nevada, and New Mexico; or, to use a different illustration, is approximately equal to the combined school population of Philadelphia, Baltimore, Cleveland, Cincinnati, Detroit, and St. Louis. For the current expenditures of such a gigantic system the city spends approximately $90,000,000, out of a total tax levy of $353,350,000, which, according to the U. S. Bureau of Education, equals the total amount of money expended for educational purposes by sixteen States during the year 1920.

In other words, New York City expends annually, with little aid from either the State or the Federal government, a sum equal to the aggregate educational expenditures of Alabama, Arizona, Arkansas, Delaware, Florida, Georgia, Idaho, Maine, Mississippi, New Hampshire, New Mexico, Nevada, Rhode Island, South Carolina, Vermont, and Wyoming.

The enormous expenditures for education might be made an excuse for a learned discussion of the erroneous conclusions recently reached by President Pritchett, of the Carnegie Foundation. Such reactionary conclusions are as firebrands in the hands of the demagogue who seeks to destroy the institutional life for which we have sacrificed untold lives and treasures. A Nation dedicated to the development of a cosmopolitan civilization founded upon self-government cannot afford to place the almighty dollar above the interests of the child. Is it not a conviction of our people that the race between civilization and political catastrophe is being waged not only during the halcyon days of peace but also during the turbulent days of war and that education alone will determine the issue, when, as in 1920, of a total National income of 56 billion dollars the Nation spend approximately $1,192,000,000, or 2.13 per cent of the National income for school purposes, is it debatable that we should advocate in the interests of childhood, not retrenchment, but more liberal expenditures?

Scrap your navies, disestablish your military organizations, if you will, but such actions constitute a National peril unless the moneys thus saved

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...e expended in the promotion of an educational service which will make ...ery son and daughter of our Republic an intelligent and reverent guardian ... our noble heritage. The World War was for naught if it did not prove ... at the moral and intellectual fibre of a nation is more significant than any ...egree of material prosperity, and that its quality is the fruitage of a sound ...nd adequate educational system. Not the last line, but rather the first line ... defense, is our public-school system, for the battles of tomorrow are being ...on in the schools of today.

However, the financial problem in our great cities in which constitutional ...x and debt limits exist, which place the city school system in competition ...th city departments, has become acute within the last few years and calls ...mer for new modes of taxation to increase the general revenues or for the ...emption of school moneys from such constitutional limits.

Do you wonder that constitutional provisions and tax laws of olden days, ...aling with property rather than production and earnings, fail to meet such ...n extraordinary situation, and that the administrative authorities of both ...e city and the school system are inclined to ask if it is not probable that ...e city, especially in view of its transient immigrant population, is shoulder-...g a financial burden that should be borne to a greater degree by both the ...tate and the Federal governments.

Uninteresting as may be these large problems of city school administration, ...to which I have referred, namely, the legal status of boards of education, the ...ode of creating, and the size of such boards, and the financial difficulties ...ey encounter, it should be understood that they absolutely determine the ...ode of administration of school systems. It would be folly to assume that ...ere is any well established, satisfactory theory and practice with reference ...o them. Indeed, their solution must be patiently wrought out in the conflict ...nd controversy of great cities and their solution will mark an additional ...ntribution made by American cities to the cause of education. I am ...clined to think that experienced schoolmen will concede that the problem ... Federal aid and supervision is in the present moment entirely secondary ...o a clearer definition of the purely internal problems to which I have ...eferred.

If, in a moment of pious aspiration, we may assume that such difficulties ...ave been solved, what plans and specifications may we, as social engineers, ...y down as controlling ideas for the future development of our city school ...ystem?

Permit me to refer to the most obvious need which, is most frequently ...ooted. We must properly house our children, not in ancient buildings, ...sufficient in number and defective as regards safety, sanitation, and archi-...ctural beauty, and deficient in the equipment needed for real living on the ...art of the child. Rather must we provide sufficient modern schoolhouses ...n accordance with well-conceived city plans, to enable each child to receive ...ll-time schooling in buildings which, from the standpoint of safety, sanita-...on, and equipment, conform to the highest standards of notable buildings ...ilt through private enterprise. Above all must our schools be enriched

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by those architectural features and types of equipment needed to make them, from the children's standpoint, real houses of golden windows, in which they may live and discover unto themselves, in an ideal social environment, the talents God has given them. Unless we concentrate on our school building program, the same careful planning and artistry that we lavish upon our modern hospitals, theaters, churches, and the chosen marts of commerce and industry, we fail to do justice to the latent beauty, dignity, and worth of our children.

Need I argue that if we do not supply play space for clean, wholesome recreation, we will have to supply jail space, and also that as long as our children play in the peril of the gutter their spontaneous play instincts intent only on the passing moment, will mean their mutilation or death under the chariot wheels which throng our cities of dreadful streets.

Another thought I would emphasize is that democracy demands for her children an education commensurate with the diversity of their talents and the versatility of their genius. Not only must the range of educational service extend continuously through the kindergarten, the six-year elementary, the junior high, the senior high schools of different types, the vacation, the continuation, evening schools of elementary and high-school grade, but also through the college and possibly the university. In every stage of the pupil's career, despite the economic necessity of mass instruction, the child must be individualized through the application of intelligence and achievement tests, so that he will neither strive without succeeding nor succeed without striving. To every child according to his ability, whether he be a physical or a mental defective or a precocious youngster of superb vitality and surpassing talent, every opportunity must be extended. We must assure to each an equality of opportunity to attain his place in the sun. The myth of the so-called average pupil has been driven forth as a pariah from our midst, never to return. That such ideals are abroad in the land, especially in our city systems, is abundantly proved by the general extension of the kindergarten, the introduction of the junior high, continuation, summer, vocational, and evening high school, and innumerable classes for all types of exceptional children, whether mentally defective, precocious, blind, crippled, anæmic, tubercular, or cardiopathic, and above all, by the use of intelligence and achievement tests as the basis of a system of scientific grading.

Furthermore, there must be a radical reconstruction in our present encyclopedic, uniform, devitalized curriculum so as to provide for children of varying types of ability and rates of achievements, and to provide for a more socialized, humanized type of content, with a definite community value, so that the learned will know and feel that he is in and of the community rather than an expectant bystander. But there can be no finality about our procedure. Catch phrases and their implications, such as project method, apperception, method wholes, culture epochs, will each, in turn, add to our modicum of knowledge and then pass into desuetude, but let us welcome them as indications of a divine discontent with present procedure and technique and as evidence of a commendable freshness of vision and zest for honorable achievement.

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But we would deceive ourselves if we were to ignore the fact that in the last analysis the teacher and the pupil are the polar and the ultimate aspects of the teaching situation and that therefore future progress in education in our cities and elsewhere is absolutely conditioned by the social and economic status of teachers in the various communities. Am I too optimistic when I predict that no longer will teachers be regarded as pawns on a political chessboard and that teaching and administrative positions will no longer be regarded as political spoils. Is it too much to assume that in the near future there will be no large city in which teachers are not appointed from merit lists and granted permanent tenure after a reasonable probationary period of two or three years' service? As educational progress depends primarily upon the competency of the classroom teacher and while it does appear that practically one half of the 657,000 teachers in the United States are inadequately trained, it is beyond denial that our city school systems are leading the advance and establishing high conditions of eligibility that justify the claim of teaching to rank as one of the learned professions. As those charged with the sacred responsibility of fashioning character, we are in duty bound to perfect our technical knowledge so as to justify our claim to rank among the learned professions. But the salaries paid largely condition the kind of teacher obtainable. While it is true that the median salary paid in large cities is approximately $1,500 per annum, several of the leading cities have adopted mandatory minimum salary schedules which mark a new epoch in public recognition of the value of teachers' service. Nor is the selection of teachers on the basis of a merit system and adequate salary schedules all that is needed in the city of the future to insure an efficient corps. Neither tenure nor salaries has done more to stabilize the teaching profession and to insure a permanent body of teachers of mature skill, than the establishment of teacher pension systems on the sound financial basis of joint contributions by the teacher beneficiary and by either the State or the municipality. Disability and superannuation have lost their terrors among teachers in New York City since the establishment of the teachers' retirement system in 1917, and I forecast that the day is not far removed when teachers in every city throughout the land will enjoy the benefits of a similar retirement system.

The last but not the least imperative problem that I am confident city school systems will effectively solve is that of supervision. Too long has the administration of our schools been characterized by either benevolent autocracy or petty despotism. Supervision has too long meant narrow-visioned dictation and strait-jacketed response. Supervision has been based upon domination rather than inspiring leadership upon fearful individual compliance rather than whole-hearted group coöperation. Indeed, one might well evaluate a city school system not by the achievements of pupils but by the degree to which teachers, individually and collectively, have an interest and a voice in the determination and the execution of its policies. The spirit, rather than the mechanism, is the matter of real importance. Such coördinated power need not resemble a turbulent torrent rushing down a glen, but rather those quiet underground streams that make fertile the pleasant valley.

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THE AMERICAN SCHOOL PROGRAM FROM THE STANDPOINT OF THE RURAL SCHOOL

FLORENCE M. HALE, STATE AGENT FOR RURAL EDUCATION
AUGUSTA, MAINE

In my estimation no greater honor could be conferred upon any person in educational work than to be asked to act as spokesman for the greatest of all our National education problems—that is, the program of American education from the standpoint of the rural school. Perhaps no better indication of the progress being made along rural school lines can be found than in the placing of the rural school interests on a program of this character. We have by no means solved the problem of rural education in the United States but we are awake to the importance of our problem and we are already beginning to achieve some results looking toward a partial solution at least.

Last year over two million people left the farms for urban life. Some were driven thence by financial conditions; others were lured by the greater attractiveness of social life in the larger places, but probably a considerable proportion were influenced to go to the cities because of their great desire to give their children the best possible educational advantages—advantages not to be found in the meager conditions of too many of our country school communities. However dazzling our cities and splendid their records of accomplishment; it is a foregone conclusion that these cities cannot exist without having behind them a solid and high type of rural citizenship. The cities of the United States are much more dependent upon the rural sections for their successful existence than are the country people dependent upon the cities for their social attractions.

Not only in education but in all economic lines this Nation is awaking to the fact that the welfare of the country people financially, socially, and educationally must be safeguarded and increased in order to keep these millions of people in their country homes and to make the foundation of National welfare secure. In California, the fruit growers; in the south, the tobbacco raisers; and in my own State of Maine, the potato growers; all are being organized into coöperative societies, often times with outside assistance, in order to safeguard the interests of our agricultural people. And all over the country educators are seeing more than ever before that a great responsibility rests upon associations like the N. E. A. to better the conditions of rural education in order that the country people, as their economic conditions grow better, shall not have to move to large centers, just because their children cannot secure an equal education in the schools of the rural neighborhood. The National Education Association and our university extension courses and rural educators have been making strenuous efforts to better rural school conditions. I believe they are succeeding to a great extent, although much still remains to be done.

Two problems present themselves in connection with this rural school betterment: (1) Helping the immediate situation in the present rural school of the ordinary community. (2) The ideal program for future betterment of the entire rural school situation.

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Two types of rural schools are now being much discussed in relation to these problems. First, we are considering the one-room rural school which is with us in large numbers and will continue to be for some years to come. Second, the consolidated school, of which there are many splendid examples here and there over the country. Those of us who have been annual attendants at the National Education Association meetings have little disagreement as regards the efficiency of the consolidated school compared with that of the one-room school in most instances. The program of this association for some years has been destined to bring the matter of consolidation with all its benefits vividly before the people of the country. We rejoice to see the increase in the number of these splendid schools, and we believe that their growth has but just begun.

All who are familiar with actual rural school conditions recognize the increased opportunity for social intercourse, healthy competition in work and greater advantages both from a physical and professional standpoint. However, all over this land there are still one-room rural schools and we must face the fact—while working toward our program of consolidation. We must recognize too that there may possibly be some communities where the one-room rural school has a distinct mission and is doing a good work. It is not the purpose here to argue for the advantage of either of these two types of schools, but rather to accept the facts as they are and while working for that which seems ideal, at the same time to have belief and ambition to make the very most possible out of conditions as they exist in our own particular rural work.

Our program then calls for attention to the betterment of rural education as stated in the first suggested topic. It is not enough to disparage what we have to deal with today and leave the matter there when we cannot immediately obtain the ideal—

> **Hearken why!—**
> **The common problem, yours, mine, every one's,**
> **Is—not to fancy what were fair in life**
> **Provided it could be—but, finding first**
> **What may be, then find how to make it fair**
> **Up to our means: a very different thing.**

The school life of the usual rural child is only about eight years in length. If we wait for the ideal during three or four or five years, without improving the immediate present, however fine our achievement then may be—we have practically robbed the present school population of at least half of its school life. Personally I believe it is a healthy habit to establish to regard no situation in life as impossible nor as an excuse for failing to try for improvement. We who supervise in the rural schools need most of all to instil a spirit of pluck and good courage into our rural teachers, for first and foremost the advance of rural education depends more upon the individual teachers than upon buildings, equipment, or aught else. Given the rural teacher "all these things shall be added unto thee." We may talk to school boards and tax-payers about the crying needs for all these material things but let us spend our time with our teachers themselves in showing

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them how to make the most of the school they have instead of rendering the situation hopeless by spending too much of our time with them in dwelling upon the poor conditions that exist. Nothing is impossible in any situation to the person of resource and vision. The teacher who makes a success of her work in the school she is in will have a greater influence in bringing about the ideal situation than any amount of bulletins, lectures, and resolutions from eminent educators outside the particular community. Our forefathers were not necessarily satisfied with the barren conditions they found on our New England coast, nor were these western pioneers insensible to the drawbacks of their situation but they were men of vision and undaunted courage and they knew the only way to future comfort and benefits was to wrest, then and there, every possible thing out of the barren conditions they encountered. The glory of our wonderful nation today built upon their endeavors is an argument for the soundness of their philosophy.

The rural schools directed by one of our young superintendents who had attended some meetings of rural educators were found to be making no progress but rather going backward. When questioned as to this the young man said, "Why! At the —— meeting it was the consensus of opinion of all the eminent educators that it is impossible to do anything at all with a poorly equipped one-room rural school, so why should I spend my time attempting the impossible?" We must be careful how we spread a spirit of discouragement among our younger superintendents and teachers.

The greatest need of American rural education then is to build up a rural school profession all over the country. In Maine we have been endeavoring to do this by means of a very definite plan for improving teachers in service. Due to the efforts of our State superintendent our State law enables us each summer to select a group of not over one hundred of our best rural teachers who are normal graduates. To these we give—free of all expense of travel, board, etc.—a six weeks course for rural leaders. They then go back to their towns and act as helpers to assist the untrained or inexperienced teachers in service. They teach their own school for observation purposes as well as going about one day a week to advise and assist in other schools. The work of these helping teachers has been so successful, and rural communities have been so influenced for better things that this summer, in response to a demand, we are able to take a second class of teachers free of expense for similar training. This second class is made up of rural teachers in service who will not act as helping teachers but who have evinced a great desire to attend and to learn how to do better the work of teaching their rural schools.

Perhaps our greatest need today to secure a strong rural teaching profession is to create a public sentiment which shall make it possible for our teachers to have attractive and comfortable boarding places. A survey of conditions, I believe, would show that a large percentage of the teachers who refuse rural schools do so, not because of the actual school conditions, but because of the hardships of daily life. Rural educators need help in solving this problem. The teacherage is the solution in some localities—and awakened public conscience may effect it in others.

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Along with the establishment of a real rural teaching profession our program for rural education calls for better schoolhouse conditions, expert supervision, and adaptable courses of study. An extract from my own State's rural program for next year perhaps summarized these needs from the National standpoint as well.

The essential points of rural school efficiency are as follows: (1) A well-trained and adequately paid teaching force; (2) Well built schoolhouses with suitable grounds and with a reasonable equipment of all the tools of education; (3) Professional guidance under expert and business-like supervision; (4) A simple and definitely arranged course of study; (5) Community interest, coöperation, and support; and (6) Reasonable consolidation of the smallest schools, under conditions that will promote the educational welfare of the pupils concerned.

ADDRESS OF WELCOME

WILLIAM W. CAMPBELL, PRESIDENT-ELECT, UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA
BERKELEY, CALIFORNIA

I consider it a splendid privilege and a high honor that my first public address after assuming the office of President of the University of California should be one welcoming the members of the Association and its foreign representatives to the campus of our institution. We have looked forward to your coming into our community from all parts of our own State and our Nation and from a great number of other Nations. We had hoped that your organization or some of its many sections would desire to hold meetings in our buildings and that we could assist effectively in some way in making your ambitious and worthy program a success. If there are methods in which my colleagues on the faculties or in the administrative offices of the University can render further assistance in the way of providing facilities for meetings, or otherwise, we desire to be of service.

Speaking of the members of the Association, you are representatives of the chief function of the forty-eight States, the District of Columbia, and the outlying territories, of their counties, their cities, and towns—the educating of their children, the educating of their young men and young women. Should anyone fail to realize the predominating position of educational service in our Commonwealth and local governments I recommend that he study the allotments of our tax returns to the different public services or that he compare the school buildings throughout our several States with the buildings devoted to any government service, or to all other government services combined.

We are thinking this morning of educational problems and results in two of their aspects; we are thinking of their benefits conferred upon the people, and further concerning their promise for the improvement of international relationships. The welfare of our democratic Nation, the success of our form of government, demand that education within our borders be universal. Illiteracy in any region, large or small, is a misfortune and a threat of trouble. The illiteracy of individual voters has its bad effects, sometimes of

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a very definite and regrettable character. On this anniversary of our Independence Day, we can do nothing finer for our beloved country than to pledge our efforts in behalf of Nation-wide education. No locality should be permitted to be so backward intellectually and governmentally as to be without school facilities for every boy and girl, up to a liberal age limit, and attendance should be enforced. We should endeavor to stamp out and prevent illiteracy through eternal vigilance and constant effort, very much as, but more completely than our excellent health services are stamping out and preventing yellow fever, malaria, typhoid fever, and other scourges. As a Nation, we have in the last quarter-century felt responsible for the education of the children in Porto Rico, in the Hawaiian Islands, in the Philippines. We look with pride upon the results obtained. We, as a people, are unselfishly interested in the welfare of the inhabitants of those islands. If you could have witnessed with me at Honolulu last November eleventh, Armistice Day, the procession of many thousands of school children, Chinese, Japanese, American, native Hawaiian, European, all under the banners of their schools, all wearing clothing of immaculate cleanliness, all showing faces clean and, we might say, polished, faces attentive and radiantly happy, your hearts would have been bursting with pride, and many eyes would have shed tears of joy.

Now, our desire for the welfare of the people of Cuba, of the other islands of the seas, near and far, of other nations wherever situated, is equally sincere. We marvel at the educational progress made by Japan in a few decades, and are glad. We admire the progress of education in China, reported to us in recent days by her delegates. We have been gratified to learn from their representatives as to the excellent educational conditions developing and existing in Mexico, in Chile, in Czecho-Slovakia, and in other nations. We desire to maintain with each and all of the nations the same peaceful relations which have endured between the United States and our neighbor on the north, Canada, through eleven decades, and this wish is synonymous with our interest in the educational advantages of those countries.

But though universal study is desirable and essential, is it sufficient to insure peace or to encourage us in hoping for enduring peace? By no means. Other conditions are necessary. The greatest war of all time was fought by the most highly educated nations. Neglecting fewer than a half-dozen of the smaller nations, such as Norway, Sweden, Denmark, and Switzerland, containing perhaps not more than fifteen million people, the highly educated world, embracing hundreds of millions of inhabitants, was engaged in the life and death struggle. Germany was the most intellectual of all on the list. In Germany the percentage of illiteracy was perhaps lower than in any other country. But the German schools, the elementary and secondary schools, and the universities, through several decades were glorifying war, were developing the military spirit, were, in effect, teaching militarism. The government was in the hands of the military party. The sword was the symbol of Germany's might. And in the same way today, any nation whose

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government is in the hands of the military party, no matter if every man, woman, and child be well educated as to intellectual matters, that nation is a threat to the peace of the world. In my opinion, the schools should teach peace with justice, peace with respect for the rights of other nations, peace without reference to a nation's resources in men, guns, submarines, and airplanes. The point I desire to make is this: universal intellectualism is not enough. Our educational system should strive to develop consideration for other nations and peoples. Our textbooks of history, particularly those chapters which describe our military struggles with other countries, should be written and selected with the utmost care, in order that they may be based upon the truth and that they may teach nothing but the truth. It is unworthy of a great and powerful nation such as ours, that any school textbook should contain a single statement reflecting unjustly on other nations.

If I were asked to name the most striking fact in American educational history, my answer would be this: the tremendous growth of attendance in our high schools and colleges and universities during the last quarter-century. While the population of the United States has increased less than fifty per cent in the twenty-five years, the number of students in our high schools and universities has been multiplied by three or more. Similar developments in most other activities of life would be considered as revolutionary. The time has not come to determine its effects upon sociological and economic questions, but we may be sure that the cause described will produce an effect. We ought to survey the situation and try to see whither we are tending. We sometimes hear the question: Are we attempting to educate too many in our high schools, colleges, and universities? My own answer to this interesting and important question is simple. My answer is: No, we are not, if the high schools and universities are really educating them. Yes, we are, if the high schools and universities are not succeeding in their efforts. I am inclined to suspect that the pendulum has been swinging too far, and that many students—I do not know how many or what percentage—are misfits in our educational institutions and should not be there. The taxation costs of maintaining secondary and higher educational systems have increased enormously, and in my opinion, taxpayers should not be assessed for the maintenance of incapables or the unambitious in secondary school and college. This taxation form of injustice, is, however, the minor one. The chief misfortune concerns the incapable student himself, and the general economic conditions of the public at large. The educational system should not be expected to carry the incapable very far. The capable student who can do his work but will not apply himself, the student who is not ambitious, should be shunted to other fields of activity where he will not be in the way of worthy students, and where his success and happiness will be more complete.

If standards are too low in our schools and colleges, we encourage the development of bad habits in the students. If standards are high, the numbers who pass through the high schools and universities will not be too great. High standards are, then, the sieve which will separate those who should remain in school from those who ought to go into other pursuits.

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We do not know where great ability and great ambition will come from. The fisherman's son, the banker's son, the janitor's son, the clergyman's son, the farmer's son, may possess these qualities. The opportunities of the high-school system should be and are open on equal terms to all who desire them. To those who make good in the secondary schools, the opportunities of the university should be available. High standards, in my opinion, are the panacea for any ills threatening from the enormous enrolments in the high schools and universities of the present day. I am wondering if the standards are actually as high now, under the conditions of rapid growth and large attendance, as they were twenty-five years ago, when the numbers of students were vastly smaller. I am interested in finding the correct answer to that question. I commend the subject to you as one of great importance. It is worthy of your thoughts on this day when all good citizens are considering the welfare of the Nation.

May I express the hope that the delegates and all those members who have undertaken long journeys in order to attend the meetings of the National Education Association in our Bay cities, will be rewarded intellectually and socially beyond their utmost expectations, and that when another general meeting of the Association will be held, their faces will again be turned toward the Golden State.

CITIZENSHIP THROUGH EDUCATION

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One hundred and forty-seven years ago today the forefathers of our republic in Congress assembled, adopted a solemn declaration dissolving the political bonds which had united them to the mother country, and declaring that the thirteen American commonwealths, "are and of right ought to be free and independent States." Coupled with their bold assertion of National independence was a statement of political philosophy no less bold, considering the time and circumstances. "We hold these truths to be self-evident," reads the great declaration—"that all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain inalienable rights, among which are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness; that to secure these rights, governments are instituted among men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed." By this solemn declaration the forefathers committeed the Nation they founded to the principles of democracy; they bound themselves to establish upon this continent under the ægis of America "a Government of the people, by the people, and for the people."

It was a mighty task our forefathers undertook. No government based on the consent of the governed had ever been successful. Political philosophers of every age had decried democracy on the ground that the people lack political wisdom. To deserve the support and loyalty of a people any government must possess, among other things, this attribute of wisdom.

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Early in the history of America it became apparent that the political philosophers were at least half right—that government by the people must fail unless knowledge is generally diffused. James Madison, in one of his justly famous political letters, declared that a satisfactory plan for primary education is a vital desideratum in a republic. "A popular government," he said, "without popular information or the means of acquiring it, is but a prologue to a farce or tragedy, or perhaps, both. Knowledge will forever govern ignorance; and a people who mean to be their own governors must arm themselves with the power which knowledge gives." Washington also recognized education as a prime necessity in a republic. In his Farewell Address to the American people in 1796 he enjoined the maintenance of a general system of education—"Promote then," he said, "as an object of primary importance, institutions for the general diffusion of knowledge. In proportion as the structure of a government gives force to public opinion, it is essential that public opinion should be enlightened." It is therefore singularly appropriate that this great congress of teachers whose duty is to pass on and promote the great American tradition and lead the people into ways of knowledge and wisdom, should give a part of this National anniversary to consideration of the problem of making our schools serve more fully the ideals of American citizenship. Upon the teachers of America rests the responsibility for making the American people fit to govern themselves; for realizing the principle of equality of opportunity in American life; and for making secure the inalienable rights to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. We are special trustees of the ideals of the Declaration of Independence.

While the early statesmen of America had great faith in education as a means for realizing the purposes of democracy, they were somewhat indefinite as to ways in which education was to serve these purposes. Washington, Jefferson, and Madison had faith in knowledge but were not specific as to the kind of knowledge to be inculcated in the minds of Americans to fit them for civic responsibilities. Nowhere do we find in the early State papers of America any direct reference to specific education for civic duties. Our forefathers it seems assumed that good citizenship is a by-product of education and that the specific study of institutions in preparation for citizenship was unnecessary. It was not until 1822, that a textbook in American history appeared, nor until 1828, that a brief catechism on the Constitution of the United States found its place in the schools. Until quite recently, specific preparation for citizenship in the United States was represented almost wholly by a rather dry analysis of the Federal and State constitutions—a kind of governmental anatomy as it were. Preparation for citizenship was considered satisfactory if the individual had a good general education, a knowledge of the history of the United States with emphasis upon military events and chronology, and a knowledge of the structure of American government.

The theory that citizenship is a by-product of education seems to have served fairly well during the early decades of the life of the Republic. The

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reason for this is fairly obvious. The population of our Nation up to comparatively recent times was quite homogeneous. The forefathers of America were descended from Northern Europeans, most of them from the Anglo-Saxon stock. With common traditions to build upon, our forefathers experienced no great difficulty in meeting the governmental problems of their time without specific training for citizenship. Moreover, American governmental institutions of a hundred years ago were not complex, being designed chiefly for the protection of life and property and for common defense in a land devoted for the most part to agriculture. A knowledge of such institutions and their workings could be passed on without specific training for citizenship in the schools. The early Americans believed with Jefferson that the best form of government is that which governs as little as possible; they were extremely jealous of any extension of Federal governmental powers over the State and were moreover inclined to limit the powers of the State governments to a minimum. As for municipal governments, the vast majority of the people were untouched by them. Until after the Civil War, American government was so simple, comparatively speaking, that the Nation was hardly conscious of any need for specific training for citizenship. Brief courses in American history and civil government sufficed to meet the need.

Toward the end of the last century, however, the American people awoke to the need of the better and more specific training for civic duties and responsibilities. The reasons for this awakening are various and by no means obscure. Out of a total population of one hundred million people in 1920, approximately fifteen millions were born in foreign lands. A large proportion of the foreign born, especially those who had come since 1880, had immigrated from countries differing vastly from ours in language, ideals, customs, and institutions. There were many millions more, born in America of foreign parents, who had not grasped the principles underlying American institutions. Moreover a great change had come in the domestic life of America. Whereas, the census of 1790, showed only 3 per cent of the American people living in cities and towns, the census of 1920 showed more than 52 per cent in cities and towns. Whereas, the population of the Republic of Washington's time was almost wholly agricultural, the Republic of our own time is chiefly industrial and commercial. Whereas, our forefathers being farmers, were for the most part economically independent, the people of our own time, through the operation of the principle of division of labor, are socially and economically dependent upon one another to a remarkable degree. Whereas, America in 1790 was an isolated state; America in 1922 is one of the world's great powers. All of these factors have tended to make American institutions of today vastly more complex than the institutions of our forefathers' time. The successful working of these institutions depends upon a reasonable understanding of them by those who are entrusted with the responsibility for government. No governor can successfully manage a governmental machine which he does not understand. Inasmuch as the governors of America are the people themselves, greater complexity of institutions makes specific training for citizenship a

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prime necessity. We must, therefore, present a twentieth-century program of training for citizenship to meet the needs of twentieth-century America.

In determining what shall be offered as training for citizenship, it is necessary to consider what are the duties and responsibilities for which we are training. We must apply to citizenship some of the principles of job analysis so useful in industry. What are some of the things that one should know and be able to do in order to be a good American citizen? It is impossible, at this time, to offer a complete analysis, but there are certain things which are obviously a part of the good citizen's equipment.

It is obvious, for example, that no man liveth to himself alone. From the hour of birth, the individual is a member of a community. His first social contact is with the family, the oldest and most fundamental of all human institutions. When he develops powers of locomotion, he widens his sphere, making contacts with the members of the neighborhood, particularly with other children. At the age of five or six he enters the school where he enlarges his social contacts and gets a wider vision of his place in the world. Schooling completed, he takes up his share of the world's burden of espousing a vocation or means of livelihood, thus relating himself to industry. When he emerges into full manhood, he becomes a member of the local body politic, with the right to a part in directing the civic activities of the community. The individual is first of all a citizen of the community in which he lives and with which he will have his closest contacts throughout life. Into this life he must be fitted in order that he may properly serve and be served. As he grows in social contacts, he must be given an understanding of the life about him, so that he may adjust himself to it.

When the community was simple in organization and our population homogeneous, the knowledge necessary for good citizenship in the community might be handed down from generation to generation as incidents of family and community life. But the modern community is by no means simple in organization. In the city, the congestion of population has forced the development of community enterprises unknown to our forefathers. The close contacts of great bodies of citizens in a city are fraught with dangers which must be guarded against. In every community health, for example, is a prime essential. In cities especially, eternal vigilance is the price of health. The modern city must have its street-cleaning brigades, its quarantine agencies, its sanitary inspectors, its sewer system, its supervision of water supply, its smoke controlling ordinances, and its food inspectors, if community health is to be maintained.

Safety, too, is a matter of vital concern. For the protection of life and property against violence and theft, a police department is necessary. For protection against accidents, traffic regulations and traffic squads to enforce them must be provided. Hospitals and ambulances must be maintained to care for victims of accident. A fire department must stand ready to meet emergencies. Authoritative agencies to maintain and control all of these community functions must be established at public expense and with community sanction. Inasmuch as the people govern these agencies, they

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must be intelligent about them if they are to be made to function efficiently.

It is becoming apparent more and more, however, that the best authoritative governmental agencies are unable to meet the vast swarm of dangers in our cities. Policemen alone cannot prevent crime, nor can firemen alone prevent fire. We must supplement authority with public coöperation if our lives and property are to be made safe. Only by educating people generally to keep their homes clean, to be careful about combustibles, to avoid contagion, to guard against carelessness while on the streets and so on, can we maintain life in our cities on a reasonably wholesome plane. Knowledge of the community and its multiform activities, and training in coöperation in community life—these constitute the hope of the American city where more lives are needlessly sacrificed each year than were lost by America during the great World War. Community civics must therefore be given a prominent place in our training for citizenship.

It is also obvious that the citizen maintains close relations with industry in the community, the State, and the Nation. The good citizen is a worker, a contributor to the common weal. He has a vocation in which he earns his way in the world. He should understand the relation of his job to the whole great world of industry. He should also have a reasonable understanding of economic and social facts and principles underlying industry generally, inasmuch as those facts and principles give rise to political action in which he shares. The very interdependence of mankind renders an understanding of economic principles necessary for the proper exercise of the citizen's prerogatives. To illustrate, the power necessary for industry was formerly developed in the immediate neighborhood from coal or water wheels. Today power generated in the mountains is transmitted long distances and distributed through vast complicated systems. Our cities are dependent for their very life upon the efforts of power-plant operators and linemen. Water is impounded in mountain valleys and conveyed along canals to fields hundreds of miles from the source of water. The success of this whole enterprise depends upon coöperation. A vast network of railroads has been built up to transport the Nation's produce. Recently we found to our sorrow how striking railroad workers might affect the lives of people in whole regions. Marketing is no longer local, the produce of the Pacific Coast being offered in the cities of the Atlantic Coast, and the manufactured goods of the Atlantic seaboard being sold on the Pacific slope. Great trusts have evolved during the last forty years with power to affect life in every community in America. Labor organizations have grown tremendously in recent years, with power to affect the processes of production and distribution throughout the Nation. The political issues of our time center chiefly about transportation, railway rates, marketing, labor problems, the regulation of trusts, the control of public utilities and taxation. All of these problems involve economic and social principles. They cannot be settled off hand by resolutions or laws. Their solution depends upon a knowledge of the economic principles involved and of governmental agencies available to cope with the problems. Problems of

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this nature can be solved only by intelligent action. American citizens whose voices determine the course of action whether by State or Nation, to meet these problems must therefore be acquainted with the economic and social principles involved. They must also understand the principles of National and State Government in order to select the means for effective control or regulation. The growing complexity of modern life and the increasing interdependence of our people demands governmental organization adequate to handle the problems these things bring.

America is to day a member of the great family of nations—a leader of the nations. The American people have established such economic relations with the rest of the world, that we cannot but be interested in the affairs of the rest of the world. America has become a great selling nation and her sales abroad will increase with the years. America has also become a great manufacturing nation, requiring raw material produced in South America and in the Orient. The last century of American life concerned itself largely with domestic affairs; the present century will concern itself largely with foreign affairs, because even our domestic affairs are being affected more and more by our foreign relations. The foreign relations of America, under our form of government, will be determined finally by the voters of America. They cannot be settled on a basis of provincialism. If we have close relations with our neighbors, we should take pains to know something of our neighbors—their history, their institutions, their traditions. Prudence and self interest dictate that Americans shall devote more time to the study of the history and customs of other nations, with which we have dealings. It is necessary for the maintenance of trade relations. It is also necessary for the peace of America and of the world. Wars are due chiefly to misunderstanding between nations, and misunderstanding between nations is due usually to lack of understanding of one another. World peace and concord hence depend upon the elimination of provincialism and the study of the history and institutions of our neighbors.

Finally, the citizens of America must develop an understanding, an appreciation of American ideals. A study of the history and institutions of foreign countries should not be allowed to dim our eyes to the glory of America and American ideals. I have no sympathy with any movement which would subordinate American ideals to those of a colorless and characterless internationalism. Coöperation with other nations to preserve peace does not necessitate the surrender of our peculiar ideals. In literature and history, in song and story, we should strive to keep alive the peculiar National purposes of America. The ideals of the Declaration of Independence, of the Constitution, of Washington's Farewell Address, of Lincoln's inaugural and Gettysburg speeches, of Theodore Roosevelt's powerful appeals for righteousness, and of Woodrow Wilson's famous messages—all of these deserve a high place in the training of our future citizens.

My plea is for greater emphasis on the teaching of the social sciences in our schools. We are fast approaching a time when the great majority of American citizens will have at least a high-school education. Upon such

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a basis we may build a course of training for citizenship. During the first six years of the twelve-year course, our citizenship training should center about National holidays, hero tales, and moral training. Specific training for citizenship should, I believe, begin with a two-year course in community civics in the seventh and eighth years. In the high school proper, three years of social science in preparation for citizenship should be required to meet the extended needs of our time. At least one year should be given to world history with emphasis on modern times, particularly on industrial economics and social movements as a basis for understanding of international relations. One year should be devoted to American history with the same emphasis on economic and social factors. The third year should be devoted to a study of civics, economics, and problems of American democracy. Equipped with a knowledge of these subjects, and with experience in citizenship such as one should get through proper school organization, our young people should go out into the world with reasonable preparation to meet the problems of American democracy.

America still has faith in government by consent of the governed; in the inalienable rights of man to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness; in equality of opportunity; in government of the people, by the people, and for the people. But America's problems multiply. We must see that the ideals of America are not lost in the clouds and that the clouds themselves are dispelled. There is that which will dispel the clouds and at the same time reveal anew the glory of the ideals of America. The mystic power that drives away the mists and resolves the difficulties of the hour is light. What America needs; what the whole world needs is light—the light which reveals humanity to itself and makes democracy something more than a shibboleth.

THE PLACE OF THE JUNIOR COLLEGE IN PUBLIC EDUCATION

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It is generally conceded that the contribution of the junior college to public education should be in two general directions. It should, of course, carry on the training of our young people from the levels of the secondary school to those of the university and the professional school; and in the second place it should furnish a variety of training peculiarly responsive to the needs of the region in which the junior college is located, both of a socializing and vocational nature so that the community requirements may be met in a willing if not generous spirit.

Certain advantages possessed by the junior college as the training institution for the first years of college work have been repeatedly pointed out. It makes possible the extended education of many young people who by reason of home conditions or financial limitations could not attend a remote university. It keeps large numbers of the younger college students not only nearer their homes and consequently under the oversight of friends but also

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in smaller academic groups, thereby lessening the physical strain, while greatly increasing the individual opportunity of the student for instructional and social contact with the members of the faculty.

Life in the junior college is simpler than in the great universities because of the fewer numbers; it is less stimulating, more conducive to an appreciation of the serious business of an education provided at the expense of all the citizens. Discount as we may the acid criticisms passed by certain magazine writers upon the over-populated campus of our universities, grant that the exaggerated accusations of frivolty, empty-headedness, and social license are for the most part baseless, there still remains the fact that the simpler life of the small junior college group is conducive to more serious occupation with those matters for which educational opportunities are provided.

Of those advantages possessed by the junior college over the university as a place of training for the first two college years, none is so significant as the better opportunity for instruction offered in the smaller institution. Removed from the atmosphere of research and from the ever-present urge to train experts that prevails in the university, the junior college teacher is without excuse, who does not function primarily as an instructor; while the individual student cannot escape those close class contacts which, if the teacher is at all capable, serve the double purpose of holding the student more constantly responsible for the doing of each day's work each day and of securing actual face to face instruction. Of this latter, there is far too little in our schools of higher learning; there is too much of remote treatment, too much of perfunctory assigning of tasks for which no adequate account is ever rendered by the student, too little opportunity for the interplay of thought and opinion, which is the soul of instruction.

As the training school for the senior college, it goes without saying that the work of these earlier years should be of a character to make it possible for students to continue in the larger institution without a sense of deficiency. In fact the output of the junior college should be superior in point of thoroughness and acquired student power. Quite naturally the transfer to the senior school with its great numbers and intense physical strain and its ever-present distractions may make adjustments necessary, but once these are accomplished, it should be found that the student moves on with assurance and success.

The junior college as the training school for the university and for professional colleges is a no more significant and important institution than it is bound to become when it shall function as the *community school* for advanced study and vocational opportunity. In this rôle, it should be the most useful school in our system, dividing honors, if at all, only with the junior high school and that because of the greater numbers benefited by the latter.

So obsessed have educators in America been with the idea that college training should be adapted primarily to the preparing of young people for professional or highly specialized business careers that we have been unable to

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see the increasing opportunities for serving society and improving our civilization by a more intelligent and generous adaptation of the educational advantages of our colleges to the actual needs of community life. The constant cry of business and industry for trained helpers has met with no commensurate response in educational circles, not to speak of the handicap to the young life of our country in being forced to enter occupations for which no adequate preparation could be had. The lost motion incident to this maladjustment of education to community needs undoubtedly accounts for some of our most serious weaknesses as workers; it certainly does account in large measures for the inferior quality in point of workmanship of much of our industrial output. That anyone could just pick up the master work in bank, factory, or office without specific training has been a fatal fallacy while it has been conceded that preparation must be had for professional callings.

The adaptation of the junior college to the educational needs of the community is only a wise provision against an utter dearth of master workmen for the general business of life. Let the university function exclusively in the making of experts and professional people, but where shall the master workers come from? They, too, need training of a high order and the community needs their services. One illustration of how a junior college adapted its training to community needs may be in point. This college is located in an agricultural region where intelligent workers along several specialized lines are needed, such lines being the citrus industry, dairying, and the growing of deciduous fruits. This school has its own orange grove, dairy farm, and deciduous orchard; it conducts classes giving practical instruction in citrus culture, economic entomology, animal husbandry and in the growing of certain deciduous fruits. The specialist instructors go into other orchards than those belonging to the college and give demonstrations in pruning, spraying, and thinning of fruit. When one thinks of the wrecked hopes of many an ambitious young man in this State, who has attempted without training to carry on in some agricultural pursuit only to find that ignorance was fatal, one asks in the name of that equality of opportunity about which we prate so much and of which we realize so little, that the junior college shall adapt its instruction to the ever-widening and intensifying needs of community life. Other illustrations of wise and useful adaptation might be given, for new demands are being made articulate and must be met. Adaptations, however, are still too infrequent and are not likely to come in so useful a form as the one cited, unless the community urge compels this educational coöperation. The heavy hand of academic inertia upon us must loosen in a world that clamors for educational opportunities adapted to its needs.

This training is not to be of a puerile and inconsequential character beneath the dignity of a school of advanced study; far from it. It is to be such as will fit young men and women for the real business of living—it must be more than vocational; it must be replete with academic possibilities, rich in informational and thought material, for it must make all-round

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men and women who know many things and a few very well, who are intelligent, capable, full of human understanding, because through these young men the wheels of community life will turn; they will be the ones largely responsible for the producing of wealth and in large measure will direct its spending. Not the least advantage in this adapted training is the possibility of assurance that communities may keep their own youth by making an opportunity for their activities within their own borders through the right type of education. The virility, cultivated common sense, industry, and respectability of these young people should savor the whole life of the community.

One caution must be given. The junior college should set itself bravely against yielding to the temptation of "snap courses." Adaptation must never mean a lowering of the standards of accomplishment. No menace to sound scholarship and genuine character is comparable to that of the snap course. Any educational discipline whatever, whether it be derived from the study of Latin, the mastery of stenographic symbols, or the study of auto mechanics, has real value, but the dawdling over snap courses in which the student has little interest save that of gaining credits or satisfying the family ambition for a college education is destructive of moral and mental fibre. For those who do not respond readily and quickly to one of life's vocations, who cannot make an early decision as to their future work and who, therefore, make motiveless choices out of the wealth of educational offerings to be had in our colleges, one thing is of supreme importance and that is that they do not emasculate their intellects and consciences by "easy stuff" programs.

Of great importance is it to the community and the entire Nation that the junior college shall become conspicuous for training that will develop leaders and those capable of assuming public trusts. Our public men are for the most part accidents, their exaltation to office and places of greater or less responsibility being due to a dearth of official material, to the apathy of the public that takes small interest in seeking out and working for the promotion of the fit, or to some lucky chance that brings the aspiring applicant to the front just at the opportune time. The marvel is that there are not more often hopeless fumbles and even malfeasance in public business in view of the persistence with which our schools refuse to recognize this important type of service as one for which definite preparation should be given. Education alone cannot create acceptable public workers but education that takes cognizance of the great numbers needed to carry on such work, and that makes conscious effort to provide the fundamentals of training for such service, that inculcates persistently the doctrines of honesty, loyalty, and efficiency in all work, is rendering a real benefit. The junior college should at least make it possible for the promising youth of a community to know the vocational possibilities in public life. More than this can be done in the larger centers of population, where courses in political science and economy might be planned providing for practical coöperation

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with the local governmental business and with welfare agencies so that quite definite preparation might be had for some lines of public service.

Education alone cannot make good citizens or great men. Intelligence not sanctified to high purposes, isolated from human sympathy, without a vision of human needs and a sense of duty to the community, is actually to be dreaded. The junior college should aim to develop citizens who have this sense of social obligations and who will be willing to participate actively and continuously in public affairs. For instance, one capable man with the respect of the community who, if he cannot serve himself, is willing to interest himself and others in securing the right sort of board of education is a public asset. The apathy of capable men -I hope the same will not be true of women—in elections, their indifference to the kind of persons appointed to public trusts, their unconcern about any measure that does not immediately affect themselves or their affairs, is proof that public education must be remedied. We are proud of our National achievements and of our long life as a Republic, but we must hold fast our crown nor ever part with our heritage of self direction, for it is possible that a nation tired of petty politics, disgusted with the small trickeries and abuse of public life, wearied with incessant campaigns and elections and with propaganda agitations over many measures good and bad, may grow indifferent to the public weal and perish by default. There have been cases of such spiritual dissolution. The love of liberty and self-direction has sometimes disappeared suddenly and most unexpectedly in a nation. Such was the case with Prussia after 1870 when the great middle and professional classes allowed themselves to become the serfs of military and monarchial government. Lapsing with amazing suddenness into a condition that saved them from the trouble of thinking for themselves and from economic struggle, they surrendered their birthright of self-direction for a mess of imperialistic paternalism. In our Republic it is true that we " muddle along." It is a struggle always, a struggle to keep the cleaner, better forces at work and in the ascendancy. Our public schools must recognize this struggle as a necessary condition of representative democracy and bravely undertake the training of youth to a sense of their citizen responsibility while giving inspiration to service and some clear knowledge of how to serve. So only can we be sure that successive generations will take up cheerfully the struggle to maintain liberty, and with loyal, determined hearts hold fast the priceless treasure of self-direction, while at the same time they advance the standards of social justice under constitutional law yet a little farther toward the goal of more perfect liberty and more perfect law.

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THE CLASSICAL INVESTIGATION—ABSTRACT

ANDREW F. WEST, DEAN, GRADUATE SCHOOL, PRINCETON UNIVERSITY
PRINCETON, NEW JERSEY

The classical investigation, now closing, has been running for two years. The results will be ready early next year. It is the largest and most searching inquiry into any secondary-school study ever attempted in our country. It is in charge of a general Advisory Committee, with the help of eight Regional Committees, the U. S. Bureau of Education, the College Entrance Examination Board, and other general agencies, three special investigators, some fifty professors of education and psychology, and over eight thousand teachers.

Our purpose is to ascertain and improve the condition of Latin and Greek teaching in all the secondary schools; for it is these schools more than the colleges, which mainly determine our standards of liberal education. If they wabble, the colleges wabble. We are having elaborate statistical studies made, tests for determining the character and validity of the various objectives and for showing how far they are being realized and by what improvements they may be better realized. This very important phase of our work has called for the creation of well-constructed scientific tests, the applying of these tests accurately on a large scale, and also the arranging for controlled experiments and coöperative studies and for collecting the opinions of successful teachers—and all for one end, namely, to evaluate the objectives, content, and method of classical teaching with a view to discovering the way to secure the best results. We are also informing ourselves as to the most recent developments in other countries—Great Britain, France, and Germany. It would take a book to describe the work in detail.

It is too early to speak of the results; they will be known next year. One fact, however, is already clear—namely, that whatever the faults in our classical teaching may be, the record of success is greater than in most other subjects. The key to success here and everywhere is better teachers and thereby better teaching for the more valuable subjects of study.

HEALTH ASPECT OF THE WORLD'S CHILDREN

RAY L. WILBUR, PRESIDENT, STANFORD UNIVERSITY, CALIFORNIA

The need of the world is a universal rise in the standards of human living with a more uniform distribution of the products of human energy. With such rising standards there must go increased consumption and increased ability to produce. The future of civilization depends primarily upon the rearing of its children. These children will require more and more education to fit into this gradually enlarging scheme, but above all they will need health education so that they can gain personal comfort and release from suffering and have a longer period of productive life after the necessary prolonged period required for adequate mental training.

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Each country must study its own geography and other unchangeable conditions in order to guide human lives along the lines that will give them the greatest protection from their inevitable microscopic enemies, which may bring them disease, and to remove those factors leading to abnormal physical hardship or moral danger. Like a piece of steel the human mind and the human body require some friction and some difficulty to bring out a cutting edge.

All plans for world harmony and for the development of that human coöperation requisite for the control of known and unknown forces must be forward-looking and be worked out by brains now immature and dependent largely upon the state of the bodies carrying them about. The problem is largely a social one. It will take at least another generation before a majority of us in any land can even think biologically. We cannot hope to control many eugenic factors so that our efforts must be largely directed to changing the environment of the human animal. We must build up those factors favorable to animal growth and moral welfare, and fight those malign influences known to harm the young. Simply to seek for great wealth and material prosperity as an end in itself would be folly, for human experience has shown that too great prosperity like too great poverty has the tendency to pull down the moral and physical plane both for the woman and her child. On the one hand there is deterioration from luxury, on the other, degeneration from poverty.

We need the widest possible distribution of that happy mean where all work, where all have responsibility, and where the child grows up with gradually expanding powers and duties. Every effort must be made to have the human body developed to fit its special task in that particular part of the world in which it finds its habitat.

I see no no way out of the present tangle in which the human race finds itself because of its inability to coöperate and its failure in mutual understanding, except through the education and physical care of the child. The services of our fellow American, Herbert Hoover, in feeding millions of children in the war-torn parts of Europe has done more to ensure world peace and world safety than any other single factor in recent years. If we are to have a future world peace it must come through the efforts of the children of today when they are grown men. In so far as these children have had in sufficient food and have had to go through abnormal experiences with disease or mental shock, it is inevitable that some lasting degeneration, both of body and mind, has been produced. The control of the places where human beings swarm is a problem of all nations. The children of a city debauched by war must pay a fearful price.

The destruction by war of material objects produced by man, the destruction of the adults of both sexes is entirely a secondary matter in the long history of the world to the damage that has come to children through war's demoralizations and devastations.

If we are to have clear vision and salutary action by the statesmen of the world they must have back of them adult populations that have grown

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maturity with sound minds and healthy bodies. With the changes that have come about in our methods of living the importance of physical education and physical training is pre-eminent. When the child obtained a part of his bodily development from work about the home and the farm, when physical coördination was early learned, and healthy habits developed by regular exercise, this problem was not so important. But now, with the long stretch of time required for adequate mental training, the natural training of the body in more primitive life has largely ceased and we must definitely make plans for the physical growth of the child at the same time that we are seeking for mental training and development. Proper food, adequate exercise and sufficient sleep, and a control in so far as it is possible of disease, are much more important for the child than the type of curriculum, subject matter of so-called courses, and the other elements that go to make up what we call an education. In fact, with all of the opportunities for education, we would find that a large part of our population would acquire it in one way or another if they had normal bodies and followed that natural human curiosity for the new and the unknown that is at the basis of all mental training. Our whole effort must be a two-fold one. On the one hand, to eliminate gradually as far as we can all of those elements in the environment that damage human beings, throwing them out as we would the weeds in the garden, and on the other hand, to build up the human body so that it can meet its responsibilities and resist the infections and the temptations that inevitably surround it.

In the spread of the benefits of civilization over all parts of the world we can anticipate success only if we bring those benefits directly into the life of the child. The success of the medical missionary indicates that bodily relief and bodily comfort are requisites to moral and religious development. That the future of the world depends upon the average morality of the world child is evident. Experience shows us that this morality depends largely upon bodily health and that where we have the wholesome reactions of the growing period, where the boy seeks to become manly and girl womanly, a high general tone can be maintained.

If I had the problem of elevating the general moral and mental tone of a backward community I would seek the services of the public health worker, the sanitarian, and the personal physician even before those of the teacher. Health education must go forward hand in hand with that of the mind. Fortunately, scientific medicine has advanced enough so that it can offer almost untold benefits to any group, nation, or race. In particular, it can make these benefits applicable from the prenatal period clear through to that of maturity. Diminishing death rates for infants and increased volume of child health follow inevitably where we meet those biological conditions that science has demonstrated as a requisite for health. No program of world peace nor of world education can hope to succeed until we can fit the human being in any given part of the world into his environment and give him the opportunity for normal healthy bodily development first.

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The world's progress is indicated by the gradually expanding status of woman. Except perhaps in the most savage races, there has always been a deep sentiment for the mother and her child and a profound respect for the maternal instinct. Our forward advance in the future in the moral and in the political fields will inevitably depend upon this expanding power of women demonstrated in the field of child health, child protection, and child education.

Above all, as educators, we must keep in mind our double function and see that the education of the mind and the development of the body are given equal importance. More human sympathy and mutual human understanding can be brought about by a spread of the benefit of medical science in child health than by mere spread of the increased knowledge that has come to the human race. Throughout we must realize that while the child has no adequate method of demanding help or health, Mrs. Browning was right in her poetic statement "But the child's sob in the slums curses deeper than the strong man in his wrath."

THE HOPE OF THE NATIONS

M. SAWAYANAGI, PRESIDENT OF THE JAPANESE IMPERIAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, TOKIO

Though several years have elapsed since the World War, no one can be able to assert positively the result of the war. But I think, one can discern a change is going on over ideals of nations and their activities. Before the war, in every country, most people thought it was absolutely necessary to maintain as strong a military preparation as national resources afford, because it was considered as the only way to secure independence of the country and to promote its prosperity. It was also taken for granted everywhere that no diplomacy could attain its aim, and no economic development overseas could be carried out without the support of a powerful armed force. Therefore, every nation was doing her utmost in strengthening her military and naval power even at the risk of great financial difficulties. Although there have been some who preached the uselessness of such forces, they could not convince the majority of the people. Germany was regarded as the only country in the world that believed in military supremacy, because there was no other nation which was so deliberately and systematically planning militaristic preparation as she did. But as a matter of fact, every other nation was doing her best for military preparedness, both on land and sea, though not to such extreme as Germany. It was only a difference in degree. Such being the case, it may be said that the whole world, at large, was controlled by the principle of militarism. If Germany was to be condemned as militaristic, every other nation must have to share the equal blame to some extent. But before the war, every nation was not to be blamed, because its militaristic preparation was in accordance with ideals of nations. Even though it was grievous, the people shared the unbearable burden of enormous expenses of army and navy as indispensable for the development

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their country. In other words, it was absolutely necessary for any nation before the war to have not only sufficient force for defense, but also for aggressive purposes.

Since the war, all nations began to doubt the validity of such a policy of nations. Suppose in future a case occurs where a nation should seek to extend its territory either by annexation, through mutual understanding, or through purchase. It is true that every nation is entitled to do its best for its own prosperity and development as before, but the means of attaining this aim must be sought in totally different direction other than through military force. Thus, if there happens to be a nation, though I do not think there is or will be, which tries to be prosperous by means of military power as before, then that nation will undoubtedly confront great calamity, contrary to its expectations. This is, I believe, the great change which has taken place in our National ideal. At present this change is not so clear and distinct that no one will fail to recognize it. But one can say safely that those countries which adhere to the old ideals have already disappeared. To state it more definitely, there is no nation today which spends a stupendous sum of money for military purposes as was done previous to the war. The Washington Conference was wonderfully successful from this point of view, but had such a conference been held before the war it would have undoubtedly failed, because the old ideals were contrary to the reduction of forces. The success of the Washington Conference is evidence of the change which has taken place in the national ideal.

In order to make this point clearer I would like to consider it from another viewpoint. The peace of pre-war period was called an armed peace. It was so framed that when the balance of power was lost even to the slightest degree, nations were thrown immediately into battles; and this was the very reason why every nation did her utmost to be prepared. Armed peace is peace supported by arms, but peace hereafter should be such that needs no armed support. I do not mean that peace has satisfactorily established itself already, because in order that peace may stand by itself, it must be cultivated beforehand, so that the roots of peace may spread deeply and widely. The peace before us may be of questionable nature, as nations being not yet at ease. However, the permanent peace which has been dreamed of for a long time by philosophers, is not to be established so suddenly and so easily. Indeed, human history is a succession of wars. Therefore, if we say that the World War has brought about permanent peace so soon, it is to ignore history. So, although I am confident there has been a change, we must still insist on the necessity of constant endeavors to secure real peace.

Many educators and clergymen have been advocating peace for a long time but I regret to say that their efforts have not been sufficiently rewarded, on account of the strong trend power of militarism prevailing. The war offered opportunity for such a change in the ideals of nations, which educators and clergymen have been pleading for for a considerable time. Their endeavors to promote peace in the past were not in vain. Earnest desires

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and hopes for true peace now begin to be realized. By way of illustration take the case of Japan. Post-war Japan might be said to be quite different from pre-war Japan. Such a difference is not a superficial but a fundamental one. The spirit of a democracy growing gradually since the restoration of 1868, has made remarkable progress since the war. Internationalism has become deeply rooted in the minds of the younger and more intelligent classes. Such a change is not only to be seen in Japan, but it may be observable in other countries. Henceforth, educators of the world may assume their responsibility to bring about better good-will among nations with greater chances of success. Fortunately, the efforts of promoting peace from now on, will be very hopeful and fruitful; they will no longer be retarded by militarism as before. The educators are now expected to do their best for the peace and the happiness of mankind.

I would like to present some of the ways that we, as educators, can accomplish such aims. In the first place, teachers of every nation should impress deeply upon the souls and minds of the rising generation the highest principle that the welfare of the world at large must be considered equally as important as the welfare of their own nation. I believe all nations of the world will unite one day to form a great confederation. So far as our present generation is concerned, all nations should become more intimate, socially and morally. For that purpose, it is important to implant in the minds of children the idea that men are brothers, and nations are a family of nations. Such an idea of brotherhood has been found both in the Occident and in the Orient from earliest times, although till now it has not been extensively taught. From now on, we must maintain this idea as the most vital and fundamental. It must be taught thoroughly and constantly to children and be treated as are the principles of honesty, justice, and kindness. In this way, each child should be trained to become a worthy citizen of his country and at the same time become a good citizen of the world. Nationalism must be reconciled with internationalism, and patriotism must be harmonized with humanism. Nationalism which does not harmonize with internationalism should not be tolerated, nor patriotism not in accord with humanism.

In order to carry out this idea more effectively, we should have a common textbook for moral instruction in schools of every country. The compilation of such a textbook is not an easy task, but it can be done by organizing committees in such a world conference as this, and leaving the matter in their hands. The draft worked out by the committees should not be considered as final; it will be sent to every nation for a thorough criticism and further review. Thus committees again may modify the original draft in the light of criticisms and suggestions coming from nations and submit the modified draft to the World Conference for final agreement. In this way, within a few years we will be able to have one textbook common to all nations.

The teaching of this international textbook which would comprise moral instructions applicable to all nations, is a most effective device for promoting good-will, mutual understanding, and respect. But of course this

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is not the only way. There are many other things to be done. Among others the thing which seems to me important and desirable is to have an international auxiliary language. If we are to have an international auxiliary language, we will very likely adopt Esperanto. If so, Japan and China will be at the greatest disadvantage, because the Japanese and Chinese languages have no relation to Esperanto at all. However, I believe that this is not the time to think of only of one's own convenience. Esperanto is easy to learn for the people of the United States, Great Britain, France, Italy, Germany, Spain, and many other countries. It can be mastered within a few weeks or in a few months at the most. If an international auxiliary language is adopted, it should be included in school curricula. Through this medium people may be able to understand customs, traditions, and characteristics of other countries; and misunderstandings and ignorance of other countries, which have always been a grave hindrance in international intercourse, will be done away with. It is very desirable to include many facts relating to other nations in the textbooks of every nation, and it seems to me that no other country in the world has so many other countries described and explained as they are in the Japanese school textbooks. But there is a limit, no matter how anxious we are to take material for our textbooks from other countries, therefore, I believe it is necessary to have an international auxiliary language which will be included in the curriculum of schools. In short, in order to promote good-will and mutual understanding among all nations without regard to color or creed, we must look to education for assistance.

Neither the League of Nations nor the International Court can be successful unless the common moral ideals and sentiments are soundly and firmly cherished among the people of every nation. The awakening and fostering, in the minds of children, of these principles of justice, humanity, new ideals of nations, and so forth, is the noble task of the teachers. Teaching the child is moulding the world of tomorrow. Thus, the teacher is the mightiest spiritual factor in determining the destiny of the world. In the hands of the teacher lies the key which opens the door to the new hope of nations.

THE MEANING OF THE WORLD CONFERENCE

E. J. SAINSBURY, PRESIDENT, NATIONAL UNION OF TEACHERS OF ENGLAND AND WALES

The National Union of Teachers of England accepted the invitation to take part in the World Conference, being fully impressed with the urgency and importance of establishing amity and concord among the Nations of the world through education.

We would gladly welcome a federation of teachers with a view to accomplishing that end, and it appears to us that the time is opportune for such a federation on really international lines.

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This conference therefore appears to indicate to us these desirable aims so that joint action may be taken throughout the world to secure peace through the education of the children.

Such an aim will impose a severe task and serious obligations upon the teachers of the world, for judging by what happens in my own country, politicians and statesmen are not always prepared to give credence to what teachers may teach when that teaching infringes or seems to infringe on the world of politics.

It would seem that our task is therefore duplicated, and we must endeavor to lead both children and democracy to a sane view in this matter. This is an essential duty, for in the last resort public opinion is the decisive factor in all matters, and persuasive permeation is the task we must set ourselves to carry out.

The future of the world will depend largely upon the extent to which the peoples of the world will be prepared to temper national feeling and national egoism by the larger considerations of international well being. This must be assisted by teachers, and we should stress what we believe to be really essential for the creation and establishment of unity, peace, and good-will among the nations of the world. That is the view of my Union as to the meaning of this conference and we desire to make every effort to bring about this condition in the interests of the citizens of the world. The task is not an easy one, for the building up of the international mind must be a slow process and patience and perseverance will be required. The failure to educate people in international affairs has produced and will produce evil results. A good understanding and a feeling of trust must be engendered among the nations and this is possible, in the long run, only by laying the foundations in the schools for "The world is saved by the breath of school children," says the Talmud. Whatever therefore we wish to see introduced into the life of the people must first be introduced into the schools.

The influence and coöperation of a strong body of teachers throughout the world, actuated by the same motives, and advancing to the same ideals is undoubtedly necessary to accomplish this. In this way and with strong faith in the principles of freedom and equity they should be able to win the whole world to the cause of truth, moderation, and justice.

Teachers have a strong desire for peace and for some more national method of insuring it, than the merely blind workings of physical force. Force will never insure peace but will only help to develop mutual distrust which will render permanent security and development impossible. Nothing but mutual good-will and mutual agreement can produce the desired result.

Our duty then is to create a good understanding between nations and the schools offer the most complete opportunity for doing this. We should regard any efforts made for the cause of peace and good-will as duties imposed upon us in the common cause of humanity and these duties can be excelled in value and importance by no others.

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Education is first in importance among the citizens of the world, and it is said to reflect that scientific discoveries have been regarded as important largely from their utility in war. Teachers must produce a different outlook and direct attention to their usefulness in the constructive field and in the cause of human progress. Our aim also must be to remove causes of suspicion and mistrust—without doubt important causes of the last war—and the root of the evil condition now existing in the Ruhr district. A feeling of confidence must be substituted, and the training and preparation for this must be made in the schools.

Human progress will be impossible unless wars cease, indeed civilization is doomed and must cease. All the generous impulses of youth must be directed and developed aright and not suppressed. Education will still be national but it must not exclude the wider and more comprehensive view, including the international one. To achieve our end, broad sympathies and mutual good-will must be inculcated and these ideas are the basis of this world conference.

The educators of the future citizens of the world must endeavor to bring freedom to the human race—freedom from war. A great coöperative movement is necessary to accomplish this—coöperation among the teachers of the world, for in this way alone lies safety, and it is to be hoped that the movement begun at this conference may become a living reality.

The forces representing education need to be properly arrayed and their efforts properly coördinated—a mighty undertaking demanding determined and persistent efforts.

We must endeavor to supplant the appeal to arms, which is the last resort of the diplomat, by an appeal to reason; to substitute for the feeling of dislike and distrust among nations a feeling of humanity. A bold and sure foundation should be laid upon a national basis, free from hindrances however and prejudices and thus establish a high standard of morality on international affairs.

To us this is in outline the meaning of this World Conference, and behind all is the feeling that the true solution of the world's difficulties is the formation of a real commonwealth of teachers which shall develop the idea of a real commonwealth of nations.

No lasting peace can be assured to the world without the enlightened and mutual good-will of its citizens, and no body of citizens can help the growth of this movement of international good-will and fellowship so much as the teachers of the various countries of the world.

Let us realize that it is our duty to take our full share in promoting this federation of mankind through the educators of the world and thus to provide the only effective antidote to war and the only real guarantee of the maintenance and progress of world civilization.

Thus we shall assist in bringing about that time of which the poet Tennyson wrote—

> When the war drum throbs no longer and the battle flag is furled
> In the parliament of man, the federation of the world.

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WOMEN IN EDUCATION

PRINCESS SANTA BORGHESE, ROME, ITALY

Women have been given by Nature the mission of education. Women and mothers within the family have ever been the educators of the human race. Throughout the centuries within the home, women have been the center of moral life, the center of material life. They have taught the children and been beyond the limits of the world, in a certain way, within the home.

Women were able in educating their children to listen to the harmony of the world rather than to the disharmony of the world, and they were able to teach their children the better elements, the deeper meaning of life.

The fact of being educators within the home never in history prevented women from taking part in social life, from taking part in public life if conditions of their particular nature led them to act in that way. Throughout history, queens, teachers in universities, social workers, have shown again and again that a woman can reconcile her public and her private life; can act great deeds in public life and at the same time be an educator at home and raise children who will be in their turn great men and women.

In modern times, modern conditions of life are bringing women in masses into public life. That condition of equality which was recognized in theory even by Aristotle, is now being, or is about to be experienced, in regard to sex. Aristotle said, " In the most constitutional States the citizens rule and are ruled by turns, for the idea of a constitutional State implies that the nature of citizens is equal and does not differ at all."

The definition which was only theory in Aristotle's time, is coming to be true at the present time. Women are to be found everywhere nowadays in social and in public life throughout the world. The schools are, we may say, in the hands of women. There are over three million women throughout the world who are teachers outside the home, in schools. Elementary education in the world is now in the hands of women almost exclusively and it is a thing which makes you think when you realize that the small children of all the world, the children between six and ten, besides the children before they enter school, are taught by women, by women who are not in politics, by women who mostly have not been in public life, by women therefore who carry with them in their school life those same ideas which they have been educated in within their homes.

In other fields of public work women are now numerous. Social life is led mostly by women. Women throughout the world are being drawn gradually day by day into more direct participation in political life. In many countries women already have the vote; in other countries they will soon have it.

But women are certainly going to participate in public life throughout the world. Soon every woman, according to her capacity, according to her condition, will be an active part of the community in which she lives, and an active part not only within the home, as she has always been, but an active part outside the home.

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Isolated from the world, as I say, within the home as mother, wife, daughter—woman has always somehow been able to keep in mind and actuate the deeper sentiments, the deeper principles involved in human existence. Women have never been away by revolutionary theories. A healthy conservatism has always gone along side in their nature with that understanding of progressive ideas which is necessary for the progress of race and of a nation, and therefore of humanity.

Women have always been balanced as masses, balanced as a part of humanity. Now, drawn into public life, public life which is naturally and necessarily so rich with diversion, so rich with different opinions, women may, I feel, lose this deep instinct, this healthy vision which until now has, I think, contributed so greatly in saving the human race and civilization.

The understanding of this fact, I think, gives all the more importance to the mission of the woman educator, whether it be within the home or school. All the more important is the understanding of her mission, which ultimately through the education of society is to bring about world peace.

Each one of us women who has been present at this world conference has realized, I am sure, in a way never realized before, the meaning that the mission of the woman educator can have in furthering that ideal of world peace which has brought us together at this time. Those of you who have followed in the newspapers the development of this world conference will have grown more able, I am sure, to realize in a clearer fashion through this meeting of men and women from all over the world, what the mission of an educator can be, and what education can mean to the world if it takes as its aim world peace.

I think that it will not be useless, perhaps, to turn for one moment to the meaning of education, to the process of education within society. When we shall have done this, we shall realize better what the mission of the woman educator can be, if she keeps within her mind clearly and plainly those things which are the highest necessities of the human race.

Education in its highest sense is, I think, the activity displayed by each individual that he may attain Truth, live in harmony with it, and lead other men up to the same Truth and harmony of life. Truth, as you know, ladies and gentlemen, is international.

Education is the activity displayed by each individual in order that he may acquire a higher consciousness of his own humanity and this he realizes in taking part in the education of self, of the community in which he is a part, and through its means of all humanity.

The individual is not within himself a nucleus of society. An individual if he were to stand alone would not live. The individual needs another individual and therefore family, home, is the first nucleus of society. The home is the greatest school in the world. When a man and woman meet in order to found a family, to lay the foundations of a family, they leave, in a certain way, youth. They leave dreams, they leave capacity for building up hopes and ideals, outside reality. They are no longer allowed only to dream.

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When a man and woman meet in order to lay the foundations of a family, they must organize their affections, they must lay before them a line of conduct with firmness of soul, and they have to impose upon themselves a discipline. They are, as I say, no longer allowed only to dream. They are no longer allowed only to hope and shape ideals, but they must attempt to realize these ideals which they have formed in youth.

The discipline of the family, the need of continuous creation within the family, allows an individual never to fall back into egotism, and therefore family is the first nucleus which develops altruism through which alone we can come to understand other human beings, and later on, other nations—humanity.

Yet the family in itself is not sufficient. As in the economic world, exchange is a condition of prosperity, so within families there must be an exchange of relationship, not only in the economic field but in the educational field too. Therefore, from family we gradually spread to community, to nation, to the human community at large.

The discipline which we have learned and understood within the small boundaries of the family we can gradually enlarge and can apply to our relationships within our community, within our nation, within humanity. When we have understood this discipline, when we have understood the humble position of each individual within the community, we feel part of this community, and naturally from within us arises a feeling of voluntary coöperation.

We are part of the community; we feel that we have our duty as well as our right within this community. We are part of it. We feel that we must work for it. The better we understand discipline and voluntary coöperation within the family, the better, I think, we shall be able to understand it when we come to consider general conditions of human life, of nations, to whatever part of the world they belong.

This, ladies and gentlemen, I think, is the element that the woman educator ought to keep in mind always, whether she actuates her educational work within the family or whether she actuates it in the schools, or in any other sphere of social or public life. It is only in that way, I think, that one day the saying of the Bible will be realized, that our sons may grow up as young trees and our daughters as the polished cornerstones of the Temple—this not in a material sense but in the deeper, higher sense of the word.

I feel that it is only through the highest, the most complete development of the individual within the family, within the nation, within the general community, that general principles of understanding and of peace will ever come forth into the world. This seems to me to be the connection, the necessary connection between the work of every woman in whatever condition of life she may be.

We have met in this city educators from all countries, educators from all parts of the world. We have met with the sincere wish to establish the foundation of an organization which will through education one day bring peace to the world. The aim, a high one, is probably the highest that men can set before their eyes in life.

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But although that aim is so high and seems so distant, I feel sure that through individual work through all the centers and small communities throughout the world, this work and this aim will be attained.

One argument I am going to give you, one argument of hope. This world conference has met in this city, this city which is dedicated to St. Francis of Assisi, who was one of the greatest lovers of the human race, one of the greatest messengers of good-will and friendship among men. This, I am sure, is an omen of great hope.

INDIA AND THE WORLD

HEMENDRA K. RAKHIT, INDIA

India is generally known to Europe and America as a country teeming with peoples of diverse castes and creeds, a country of contending religions and races, clamoring at this moment in a hundred different tongues their desire to attain national independence—a thing, we are told, the people of India never tasted before, and which is altogether foreign to the land. This is the popular view of India. Add to this the other beliefs that the entire people are given to a sort of religious pessimism, that fatalistic doctrines of life sway the passions of men, that ignorance and superstition are the order of the day, and that the dear mothers of India cheerfully throw their babies into the Ganges so that the crocodiles may not miss their usual early breakfast. In fact, India is believed to possess an entirely different type of mentality which the people of Europe and America find it hard to fathom. East and West are supposed to be the negative and positive poles of humanity.

But India is not what the western Indologists, save a few, would have you imagine. An impartial evaluation of India's culture history—her industry, commerce, science, politics, art, and philosophy will yield a record worthy of any nation. It is of great moment, therefore, for India as well as for other countries, that the achievements, aims, and aspirations of the 320 million people of India should be known aright and in proper perspective, if humanity is to be spared unnecessary calamities.

The notion is current in the West that Europe and America represent "energism," "life," "science," "progress," while India typifies "inactivity," "indolence," "superstition," and "thought," which at best is only theoretical. The human and secular achievements of India therefore find no place in the curricula of the educational systems of Europe and America. The East continues to be "mysterious." Yet, mystery is born of ignorance and should have no place in the mind of man today.

A rapid glance at the comparative political history of Europe and India and the French Revolution will show a parallel development of events, even slightly in favor of India. Basing his conclusions on data acceptable to the methodology of historical researches in Europe and America, Professor B. K. Sarkar in his book. "The Political Institutions and Theories

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of the Hindus," finds that ancient and medieval India passed through the same institutional and political experiences such as city, states, republics, jury system, despotism of kings, which Greece and Rome and medieval Europe and other countries of Asia have gone through. The people of India at times even enjoyed the right " to fine, in case of delinquency, the elected officials of the rural commune."

It is sometimes necessary to glance back a little. Ancient history is valuable to us only in so far as it explains the present and restores self-confidence. One is surprised to learn the organizing ability of the Maurya Emperors (B. C. 323-125) whose territory exceeded the undivided Roman Empire at its zenith and who maintained a standing army of half a million men as compared to Rome's highest figure of 115,000. Under Chandra Gupta, who checked and defeated the Greek advance to India, this vast army, according to Pliny, was on daily pay. The generalissimo of the Maurya Empire drew the handsome salary of 48,000 panas or $12,000 dollars a year. The national finance system was equal to meet the cash drain on the imperial treasury.

Amidst the benevolent military despotisms of India, life went on and we find vast sums of money spent on irrigation, roads, arts and architecture, gardens, pageants, festivals, ship building, mines, hospitals, academies of literature, and universities. Public citizens coöperated with the government. We find General Usavadatta of Southern India in 100 A. D. maintaining an institution of learning with hundreds of scholars. We find her sons crossing the oceans and founding colonies in the islands of the seas. We find other sons of other countries flocking to the universities of Taxila, Ujjain, Nalanda, Vikramashila, and Odantipuri, just as did the students of Europe who journeyed amidst untold privations to that great university of Paris where that most beloved of men, Abelard taught.

So far as the rights of citizenship or ideals of monarchy are concerned, " there was practically nothing to choose between the East and the West. Rather this whole period of India was the heart and brain," remarks Professor Sarkar, " of the whole of Asia—a position the like of which was not occupied by any people in Europe." Sukracharya on politics, Kautilya in his Arthasastra embodying principles of government and administrative details, and Manu on social organization, present a formidable group of scholars equal to their European compatriots.

Later on in the early modern periods we notice in Europe the political vicissitudes of the Welsh, Irish, and Scotch wars of England, the Hundred Years War between England and France, the wars of the Hapsburgs, the wars of the innumerable German baronies, the feuds and wars of the Italian Republics, the English Civil War, the Fronde, the " meteoric brilliance " of Gustophus Adolphus, the expansion of Turkey, and the achievements of Peter the Great, Frederick the Great, and the French Revolution. Compared to this India presents a picture of comparative calm with achievements as great under the creative geniuses of Samudra Gupta, Harshavardhana, Dharmapala, Krishna Raya, Akbar, Sajahan, and Sivaji the Great. The

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exploits, successes, and failures of the rulers of India till the nineteenth century measure well with those of their brother sovereigns of Europe. The political philosophy of Hindu emperors from Chandra Gupta to the last of the Moguls—with the exception of the great Asoka, was the political philosophy of the Hindu Machiavelli, Kautilya—not the mystic or religious philosophy of the Upanishads. With Napoleonic egotism they also shouted: "What are a million men to a man like me?"

As late as the nineteenth century India was known to the West as the Orgeous East. Did Europe coin this phrase in a religious or mystic sense? Is it not a fact of history that Europe was dazzled by the material splendor of India? The traders and travelers from the West left glowing accounts of the magnificence of the "courts," "palaces," "gardens," "monuments," "cities," "festivals lasting for months." And it is the material wealth of India that led to the eventful discovery of America. And yet we are taught to interpret the evolution of Hindu civilization in terms of thought and religion—in terms of Vedantas, Tripitakas, or Gitanjali. If India is to be understood, she must be studied whole, not in fragments. India is justly proud of her philosophic, religious, and sociological attainments. These are her humble contribution to the stock of world knowledge. But to assume that Indian culture is mainly if not wholly spiritual, is to deny history. Intelligent coöperation between nations is not possible unless nations are known to each other in their true perspective and in the fullness of their life.

How then has this one-sided view of Hindu culture gained its ground in the West? "The extraordinary nature of such history" writes Mr. Fargiter, "may be perceived if it were suggested that European History should be constructed merely out of theological literature. What would raise a smile if applied to Europe has been soberly accepted when applied to India." What are the reasons? No one did it consciously. You know of the great Romantic Movement of Germany in the eighteenth and the early part of the nineteenth centuries. It was primarily a philosophic movement. The Romanticists and their founders, the brothers Schlegel, Tieck, Novalis, Ruckert, dreamed and thought of lifting the suffering world to a region of happiness and divine beauty. They thought that their ideal would be a reality if only the misguided world would discard the crude absurdities of the present and accept the ways of the Ancients. They sang in glorification of the "good old times." They travelled far and wide in search of fables, stories and romance. These young philosophers, guided by their ancient and medieval preferences, groped their way through the "corridors of time" and discovered "India's golden blessings." Frederick Schlegel's great work "The Language and Wisdom of the Hindoos," made the science of comparative philosophy possible. They dived deep into the vast field of Hindu philosophy and religion, Jataka stories and literature. But the secular branch of the Sanskrit literature remained unknown to them. Thus it came to pass that only the religious and philosophic attainments of the Hindus were popularized in Europe. The Historians that followed

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the Romanticists naturally began to treat the whole historical growth of India in terms of religion and philosophy.

India is a melting-pot of many races, religions, and culture. Contrary to popular belief, therefore, her growth was not an isolated phenomena. From the West, from times immemorial came the robust traders in search of precious stones, spices, fabrics, and muslin. They sailed away laden with these commodities only to return. Imagine the happy face of the international exporters of India when they marked their shipments. "Precious stones to Amalfi," "Muslin to Venice," or "Spices to Lisbon." Imagine also the chargin in their face when they heard that Venice was to put a tax on any one who buys muslin. From Persia, China, and Japan and from the Archipelago traders came; came also the scholars by land and by sea to trade in ideas. And they too plodded homeward with burdens of learned manuscripts on their tired backs. Some, like the Pathans, Sythians, and Moguls, came to stay even as conquerors, and merged themselves into the melting-pot. This constant interchange in commerce and thought, this untrammelled cultural intercourse, lasting through centuries, left their indelible mark on Hindusthan and trained her, exclusive of the Brahmins notwithstanding, to view humanity's march with dignity and calm. The geographic, climatic, racial, and cultural diversity of India trained her also to ponder with respect ideas, conceptions, and attitudes of her brother man of other lands.

Hindu civilization today is a synthesis of Hinduism, Buddhism, and Mohammedanism. Philosophic tolerance is the watchword, a tolerance not born of indifference, but of an extraordinary hospitality to new ideas, eagerness to hear all sides and a delight in the "interchange of forceful and significant thought." We find this attitude reflected most clearly in the heterogenous religious life of India. All religions have met here. None has to flee. A land of many religions we find her singularly free from religious warfare, such as Europe once suffered. Religions here have flourished side by side. We see Hindu Rajas donating funds to build Mohammadan churches and today the Christian churches in India are partially supported out of the taxes of the Hindus and Mohammadans.

We have come to learn through bloody experiences that the apparent diversities of India is in truth "a fertile source of strength and wealth." The destructive and inhuman policies of exterminating diverse elements to form a national unity is not compatible to the genius of India. That can be attained only through coöperation. The presence of so many languages in India is indeed a drawback to the rapid development of the nation as a whole. Hindusthanee, however, may be said to serve as a lingua franca of India. But the fact of cardinal importance is not the language, but the ideas expressed in it. The languages of India do not disseminate hostile aims and conflicting traditions as is the case in Europe. We see before our eyes that nations which have inherited the same language fight with each other while the trilingual Switzerland prospers in peace. We see the Thirteen Colonies tear themselves away by force of arms from their mother country. We see the North fight the South in this continent. More important than language to the peace and harmony of the world, therefore, is the

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deal. When ideals clash, language as an agent of peace melts as mist before the morning sun. It is therefore refreshing to know that in spite of the diversity of tongues, the art and literature of India today are expressing thoughts and feelings common to all India. India is a unit—geographically, culturally, and spiritually. It is unfortunate for India that the world has failed to appreciate the efforts of India in harmonizing and unifying a land as large as all Europe west of Russia, with at least as many races, creeds, races and culture.

The coming of Europe to India—with its science, its "precision," to use Bergsonian term, its perfect technic, added another necessary element to the melting-pot of Hindu culture. When India, in the nineteenth century, found herself losing her vital impulse to create, and suffering from a sort of mental inertia, this "impact of European civilization," writes Mr. Aravindu Ghose, "revived the dormant intellectual and critical impulse. It vitalicated life and awakened the desire of new creation. It put the reviving Indian spirit face to face with novel conditions and ideals and the urgent necessity of understanding, assimilating, and conquering them."

This rebirth of the Hindu intellect, this outburst of new hope and new life fanned to a high pitch of the world events of 1905—the year of Japan's phenomenal victory over Russia, the liberal uprisings in St. Petersburg, the rising of the little Boers against the British, and the tense political situation in India herself—this renaissance did not lead India to a reactionary path. She realized thoroughly that the fusion and assimilation of European culture was essential to insure her own growth. She only wanted freedom, a freer national life to gain this end, since all that is beautiful and all that is serious can only come from freedom.

This renewed activity of Hindu life is reflected also in her economic program to lift the country up from the mire of economic poverty. It is also abundantly reflected in the new educational movements such as the Gurukula of the Arya Samaj, Dr. Tagore's Bolpur School, Fergusson College of Poona, Decau Educational Society, The Mohammadan College of Aligarh, D. Av. College of Lahore, Bengal National Council of Education, Hindu Students Homes at Madras and Calcutta, and the recent Hindu Universities at Benares. The chief motive underlying all these institutions is to cultivate the Hindu educational ideal—the development of personality and social responsibility as against the current system in India of mere acquisition of knowledge without any aim, which is, according to the Hindu Art Critic Dr. Coomarswamy "breaking the threads of tradition and creating a nondescript and superficial being deprived of all roots—a sort of intellectual pariah who does not belong to the East or to the West, the past or the future."

The best minds of India were grappling with the intricate problems of economics, politics and education, when tearing asunder the pretended calm of European peace came the Great War. It at once had a strong political effect on her. She sent a million men to the various war fronts. Her financial gifts to England were even greater. The war ended. India happy

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in her staggering sacrifice, longed for freedom. The young poetess, Sarajini Naidu, sang of India:

> Is there ought you need that my hands withhold,
> Rich gifts of raiments or grain or gold?
> Lo, I have flung to the East and West
> Priceless treasures torn from my breast,
> And yielded the sons of my stricken womb
> To the drum-beats of duty, the sabres of doom.
>
> Gathered like the pearls in their alien graves,
> Silent they sleep by the Persian waves,
> Scattered like shells on Egyptian sands
> They lie with pale brows, and brave broken hands.
> They are strewn like blossoms mown down by chance
> On the blood-brown meadows of Flanders and France.
> When the terror and tumult of hate shall cease
> And life be refashioned on anvils of peace,
>
> • • • • • • • • •
>
> Remember the blood of my martyred sons.

India was full of hope. The free and frequent circulation of the war aims of the Allied Nations, the wide publicity given to President Wilson's fourteen points, the release of new political conceptions, all these, and her own vital contributions to the Allied cause, made her restless. The Montague-Chelmsford Reforms, conceived in good faith, failed to allay the aspirations of the resurgent India. A subject nation herself, which fought to liberate other subject nations, India demanded freedom for herself. The tragedy of Amritsar stiffened this demand. The triumphant emergence of Mahatma Gandhi, with his message of love, infused the plain people of India with dignity, self-respect, pride, and honor. In the pregnant atmosphere of India today, thanks to Gandhi, there is the spirit of sacrifice, tolerance, social consciousness, a boundless love for all humanity. And there is the undying conviction that true freedom can only be won—not through the agencies of brute in man, warfare and violence—but through love and sympathetic understanding. Whether this policy will triumph, whether the culture and the temper of the world is equal to appreciate its significance, only the future can tell. But it depends largely on the attitude of the outside world, toward it. No idea, no plan, no policy, no matter how noble, can be brought to any effective realization unless the whole world, or at least the major part of it, lend its helping hand. But India goes on experimenting, as she has always done, sometimes, as we find, at the cost of her very freedom of existence.

If conflicting national interests have done much to prevent humanity from coming to a common understanding, false ideas have done still more. Human emotions and human cravings and human failures and successes have no geographical limit. Stages of national evolution are pretty nearly the same all the world over. According to a famous saying, "liberty is ancient, it is despotism that is new." Attempts at regaining this liberty were equally discernible in Europe and in India. They did not gain ground until the industrial revolution in Europe solidified the basis of western democracy. If Europe and America are in the foreground today in thought, action, and

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science, it is only so since the industrial revolution of the nineteenth century. India did not take part in this movement, and to that extent remained behind.

I have made an attempt in this short paper to explain that there is no fundamental difference between the European and the Asiatic character. It is one of those delusions we are all conspiring to keep up to the inevitable detriment of human progress. The East and the West alike desire the coming of better conditions of life when the whole world will again learn that the object of human life is not to waste it in a feverish anxiety and race after physical objects and comforts, but to use it in developing the mental, moral, and spiritual powers latent in man." India seeks the coöperation of America and Europe—America in particular for she looks both ways, to the Orient as well as to Europe. But before they can lend us their help, they must know India as she is—India with her human passions both sordid and sublime, India of creative energies expressing herself alike in the field of matter and of spirit, but always mindful to apply abstract theories of her religion and philosophy to practical life. India joins the World Conference of Educators in the spirit of coöperation and with her heart wide open. Like the Chitra of Tagore's drama she stands before you to say, "I am India. No goddess to be worshipped. Nor yet the object of common pity to be brushed aside like a moth with indifference. I am not beautifully perfect. . . . . I have my flaws and blemishes. . . . . My garments are dirty, and my feet are bleeding with thorns. . . . . The gift that I proudly bring to you is the heart of a woman. Here have all pains and joys gathered the hopes and fears and shames of the daughter of the dust; here love springs up struggling toward immortal life."

That is India. We hope that the educators assembled here in this great gathering will realize that training the heart of man is more fundamental than the development of mere intellect. We hope that the civilization of the world will soon be based, not on the basis of politics, but on cultural basis. And we look forward for the day when the influence of the teachers will break through the four walls of the school-room and become the dominant civilizing force of the whole community. The politicians and statesmen, as Dr. Sainsbury, of England, has emphasized in this conference, have made a mess of the world. Now let teachers be the kings and queens of the world, and the world will be the better for it.

EDUCATION AND WORLD PROGRESS

AUGUSTUS O. THOMAS, CHAIRMAN OF COMMITTEE ON FOREIGN RELATIONS
AUGUSTA, MAINE

I am satisfied the world is growing better, for we have half as many here tonight as witnessed the brutal exhibition of Jack Dempsey and Tom Gibbons Wednesday—and that is going some! I think the largest audience that ever gathered in the United States gathered to witness a prize fight two years ago. I hope to see the time when just as large an audience will gather in the interests of education.

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There was a time, and I can almost remember it but not quite, when people used to have a barn-raising, and then they blacked each other's eyes and blooded each other's noses, and it was a coward who refused to fight. Your fathers and mothers will tell you of those days. Only a few generations ago men fought out their differences with their sidearms and slew each other in the name of honor. Men do not do it now; courageous men will not fight as they used to fight. A generation or two hence, men will think longer and more seriously before they fight out their differences on the field of battle.

It was not in the minds of those who called this conference that wars have ceased. No matter how much we might hope and pray for that day when the Prince of Peace should come and peace perpetually should reign over the face of the earth it has not yet come.

We do not deceive ourselves. So long as there is hatred or malice or jealousy and revenge in the human heart, we shall find it in the heart of nations. So long as we find it in the heart of nations, we are liable to find men and nations clashing upon the battlefield.

Leagues of nations, world courts, reduction of armament conferences and peace treaties are greatly to be admired and greatly to be desired in order that there may be a better understanding among the peoples of the earth.

But before we can confirm and establish the principles which will make those effective, we must have the spiritual values in order to back them up, and in order to get the spiritual values to back up these great movements we must await the longer processes of education. No great movement, no great reform affecting the people vitally and eternally has ever been wrought out in one generation.

In order, therefore, to change the ideals of the nations we must begin with the child when he first becomes teachable, because the child is unprejudiced, and as we lead him up through the winding path of education and experience we gradually instill into him our own prejudices. But if we can begin with childhood and teach the common origin of mankind and the common destiny, and teach that all men now must associate together, that no part of the world can live independently, we can do much at least to lengthen the intervals between wars, until finally we hope that wars may cease.

The world is not wanting brains today. All we need to do is to look about us and on every hand we see the discoveries and inventions that startle us, for we live in a miracle age. All we need to do is to think of something and it is done.

But there is one thing the world needs more than it needs brains. A young man starts out in life and seeks a job. The man to whom he applies tells him that he must seek an indemnity bond, and he goes to the bonding company and the bonding company bets the employer that the young man is honest. If the young man defaults, the bonding company pays the debt. It becomes necessary today, therefore, where men are employed in responsible positions, that they should guarantee to their employer that they are honest, that they have integrity; in other words, that they have character.

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Therefore, I say that today the world needs character more than it needs brains, and the formation of that character comes largely through the instruction of the home and school working together.

We have in this conference brought together the nations of the earth. Thirty-two distinct racial groups have been deliberating here in this beautiful city for ten days, trying to find a way to carry a message to the child heart that will cause that child to grow up in unprejudiced way, with a better understanding of his neighbors both in his own nation and in other nations, that they may have better coöperation through that understanding. The keynote and the spirit of this conference has been coöperation and friendship.

Here we have met these men and women from the uttermost parts of the earth. We have looked into their faces and we have taken them by the hand. We find they think as we do; we find they have aspirations and aims as we have. We find they are looking for improvement, as we are; we find they have vision of a better day the same as we have, and we have been surprised to find how much there is in common among the peoples of the earth.

We believe that if the five million teachers of the world teaching the more than two hundred million children, can have some common principles which may be universally applied, and teach ideals of respect for neighbors and for self, that we can have a deciding vote in the future of the world; that if we could analyze and select a group of ideals and if it were possible thereafter to teach those ideals effectively to the children, we could shape the destiny of tomorrow.

This very hour the statesmen and financiers of the world are endeavoring to settle the debt of the past. This group of men and women here have been endeavoring to settle the debt of the future. It was your own minister of education, Mr. Sainsbury, when the men were fighting with their backs to the wall, who stood up in Parliament and said that education is the debt of maturity to youth; that it is a debt eternal. When we gather here for the purpose of determining what this generation owes to succeeding generations, and endeavoring to discharge that obligation, we are settling the debt of the future.

I believe out of this conference will go a spirit world-wide which will have an influence upon all of the nations, that eventually they may know more about each other and understand each other better and have greater sympathy for each other.

There was a day when a person was simply a citizen of his locality, and possibly of his country. There was a day when communication was difficult, when they waited long in order to get information about what was being transacted or what was transpiring within the country and between countries. But today we receive the news from London and interpret it with as much readiness as we receive the news from Washington. We receive the dispatches from points in Asia and begin to understand them just as thoroughly as we understand those things which transpire within our own country.

Today the citizen must be a citizen of the world. He must know the world, what is transpiring in the world, and know how to interpret that in

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the language of the relationship of the world. Therefore, the children of today must receive that larger viewpoint and that larger understanding. That understanding and viewpoint must come through the teachers of the schools of our country.

My heart swells within me whenever I visit Washington and stand on the marble steps and look out over our capital city, out over those great stone buildings that house the Department of State; out over the Potomac and see the white columns of Arlington. As I view that magnificent scene, my heart swells within me and thrills with pride, and I think of the power and the magnificence and the glory of my country. As I go about I see the Supreme Court dispensing righteousness. I see Congress working upon great problems. I go down to the White House and I see the President bending over his mighty task, and I think it is a great country.

During war days I have gone out to Fort Myer, and watched the young men, the stalwart young men of our country, the rich young blood, the hope of life, marshalled there upon the field, being trained for officers for the war. I said, "They are a great group of young men, and we have a great army." I went down to the seaside and watched the great battleships as they were there in the harbor, and I said, "We have great battleships and a great navy."

Then I came home, and not many months ago on one of my visits to a country place as I came along the way, I came upon a little schoolhouse. It was one of those little, single-teacher schools that stands by the roadside in many of our States. It was standing there in the trees and looking out a little distance over a beautiful, shining lake, and the scene was attractive.

I stopped, as I always do when I pass those little institutions, and said, "I want to go in and see the teacher and see the children at their work and offer a word of greeting and encouragement." Just as I came to the schoolhouse the door opened and there stood the teacher in the doorway. Her face was lined; her hair was gray. She had given her life for the cause she loved. As she stood there, there came a little lad and she buttoned his coat about him in order to protect him from the cold, and gave him a loving look. Another boy, stalwart and strong, and she said, "I will see you tomorrow, John." Then she took a little girl in her arms and tucked her cloak about her so that she would be properly prepared for going out into the weather. As the children passed they smiled upon her and she smiled back at them.

I said, "After all, it is a magnificent country, a splendid capital, a magnificent scene at Washington, a strong government. And yet, the strength of our country rests not in our courts, not in our Congress, nor yet in our President, powerful as these sometimes are; nor in our armies or our navies. But the strength of a free government lies in the hands of the teachers who train the young and rising army for the duties and responsibilities in citizenship and in their relation to their neighbors throughout the world. Out of this conference will grow the spirit that will help the nations of the world some way to solve some of those most difficult problems which now confront them.

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Reports of Committees

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON SALARIES[1]

E. S. EVENDEN, TEACHERS COLLEGE, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY
NEW YORK CITY, CHAIRMAN

The Committee on Teachers' Salaries and Salary Trends in 1923 presents to you the following report: It consists of two parts. Part one is the Research Bulletin, Volume 1, No. 2, of the National Education Association, published in March; and Teachers' Salaries and Salary Trends in 1923, published by the National Education Association in July. The only justification for my taking a moment of your time is to interest every delegate and every teacher of America in this remarkable report. Very unfortunately, Mr. Evenden is not here to present to you his enthusiasm and his splendid leadership.

I want to read to you two paragraphs from our Secretary concerning this report. (Speaker read paragraphs four and five of the Research Bulletin, beginning, " the inquiry," and closing, " these data.")

Most reports date back several years in information and material gathered. Notice that this is a report of the actual salaries paid in 1923. It doesn't leave us uncertain as to where we are.

I want to call your attention just for a moment to the data here that will be of interest to you. It is a striking fact that though this investigation was begun in 1923 and there have only been a few months for the work, we have the report of 964 cities.

Let me say the investigation and data were gathered by three processes: first, questionnaires to all city superintendents; second, by a report from superintendents who have rural districts or rural teachers; third, by the data collected by the U. S. Bureau of Education.

The most important part of this report, to my mind, is the determination of the principals for three things: for studying the salaries of teachers, for interpreting them, and for salary campaigns. I cannot take time to read from the principals' reports.

One unfortunate thing has been the comparison of the teacher's salary with that of certain wage earners. The basis is different; there is a professional superiority and she gets a salary. Far more important than either is that the day will come, I think, when the remuneration of the teacher will be called an honorarium, for the reason that there is an economic ratio, a mathematical ratio between the cost of the house and the salary paid the carpenter. Nobody can find an economic ratio between the teacher's work and her output.

[1] In the absence of the chairman, this report was made by C. E. Rugh, Professor of Education, University of California, Berkeley, California. In addition to the chairman, this committee was given the members listed on page 25.

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Therefore, salary investigations should be made on the basis of an honorarium. It might add to the remuneration the teacher gets in the way of honor also, and that is probably just as important as the other aspects of it.

As to the comprehensiveness of the report, I call your attention to the fact that while there are possible reports of sixty-nine cities of over a hundred thousand, there is in this report a list of the actual salaries paid in sixty cities of that grade. The salaries of 175,000 teachers are represented—22,000 rural teachers, about 10,000 principals, etc.

I mention just three features to which I call your special attention. One of the most significant interpretations of this data by Mr. Evenden—and it has been by Mr. Evenden. I should also pay great credit to John K. Norton. He doesn't need any praise from me; his work stands for itself. I point out one feature in the trend. The unfortunate thing was making the comparison of the teacher's remuneration with wages.

In that comparison, in that study is presented the increased cost of living as a feature and factor in determining salaries with what results? With this result, that it takes as much food and clothing for an eighteen-year old girl teaching in Milpitas, say, as it does for a superintendent, with the result that in the salary readjustments the lower salaries have been very much raised, and the upper salaries have not, with this result, that there are girls in the United States—dare I say it—receiving more than they are worth. No, not more than they are worth, but they are receiving more to teach than they could get for any other service. The actual fact in this report shows that superintendents are getting less than they did before the war, considering the purchasing power of the dollar.

The significance lies in the fact that the leadership in the educational world in the United States needs to be considered in terms of its relation to the whole salary schedule. I merely point it out.

Elements in the trend—That is a remarkable chapter that every person interested in a salary campaign should study. I mention merely the five features considered by the committee. First, it is important to determine what time unit shall be considered in relation to the number of dollars. That is yet to be determined. The yearly salary is a bad unit. Whether the week or the month or the day is the correct unit is yet to be determined. The purchasing power of the dollar should also be taken into account. The purchasing power of the dollar is as one to two and nine tenths.

Third, the increasing professional standards is a feature that must be taken into this study. Then the increasing length of the school term; and last but not least, the most important thing in my mind in this whole salary of comparison is forgetting that from 1913 up to the present time we have had three or four economic shifts, and that era is so uncertain and unstable that a different method of comparison in terms of time unit ought to be investigated.

A chapter on the adequacy of school salaries is of great importance. I plead for your study and interest. Are teachers adequately paid? At present there are three prevailing attitudes in the United States concerning the

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adequacy of teachers' salaries. First, in order to justify the present scale and schedule you have and have it raised we must increase teaching and school service. The school people must deliver the goods. There is in a good many centers a tendency to lower the teaching salary. The third tendency represented by a number of cities, by the report of the superintendents and supervising officers, is to curtail school service, cut out music, etc.

These are the three attitudes toward the present situation. I hope by calling your attention to the fact that what the richest and wisest parents and communities demand for their children, that the United States must demand for all children. To carry out that program, you must get the school money where wealth is, and spend it where the children are.

Democracy has been defined as the progress of all through all, under the leadership of the wisest and best. The first principle of determining a salary schedule is, under all circumstances, to pay that amount of money to those teachers that will get the best and wisest leadership for the children of America.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE TO COÖPERATE WITH THE MOTION PICTURE PRODUCERS[1]

CHARLES H. JUDD, CHICAGO, ILLINOIS, CHAIRMAN

At the Boston meeting of the National Education Association, Will H. Hays asked for the coöperation of educators in developing motion pictures in such a way that they may become more serviceable to classroom teachers and may contribute in the most wholesome way to the entertainment of the children of the Nation. The National Education Association had become aware, before Mr. Hays asked for coöperation, of the need of a better organization within the Association of those educators who have special interest in visual education. The question of organizing a Department of Visual Education had been before the executive officers, and programs on visual education had been prepared and presented at various meetings. A number of school systems had undertaken to use motion pictures and had encountered difficulties which made it evident that coöperative efforts are necessary if problems in this field are to be adequately dealt with. The Association accordingly provided at the Boston meeting for a committee to deal with all problems related to visual education.

The committee which now submits its report has been at work during the year. It has derived financial support for its operations from the Motion Picture Producers and Distributors of America. That corporation financed a meeting in New York which brought the committee into direct contact with the representatives of the producers.

It also provided the committee with $5000 to carry on the investigations, the results of which are presented in later sections of this report. It has sent one of its executive officers, Mr. Courtland Smith, secretary

[1] As shown to the chairman, this committee includes the members listed on page 24.

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of the Producers Corporation, to this meeting, and finally it provided for the meeting of the committee at which this report was prepared.

By agreement reached at the joint meeting in New York a program of inquiry was adopted. For immediate study two lines were taken up as follows:

First, a series of films taken from the vaults of the producers have been inspected by committees of teachers selected by Mr. Crandall from the New York public schools. The purpose of this inspection was to discover what portion of these films are available for classroom use. Lists have been prepared as a result of these investigations and have been transmitted to the producers.

Second, Dr. F. Dean McClusky, of the faculty of the University of Illinois, Miss A. Loretta Clark, of the Public School System of Los Angeles, and Mr. Charles Roach, of the Extension Division of the University of Iowa, were employed by the committee to visit various public-school systems, universities, and museums which are actively engaged in promoting the use of motion pictures and other forms of visual education. These agents of the committee were directed to investigate the administrative methods adopted at these centers for securing, distributing, and using films and other visual material. The purpose of this inquiry was to ascertain the extent of present use of films and the problems of administration which affect their employment for educational purposes.

In addition to these direct lines of inquiry which were taken up because they seemed appropriate as matters of equal interest to producers and educators, the committee has collected material which may be described as somewhat more remotely related to the interests of the producers. The committee has acquainted itself with the scientific investigations which have been made in various universities and school systems on the methods of using pictures and has prepared for its own use abstracts of the reports of these inquiries. Such scientific studies will have to be carried much further if visual materials, including films, are to be properly adapted to school work.

The committee has also considered other problems such as the effect of entertainment films on the minds of pupils, and the methods by which new educational pictures can best be produced.

The committee is prepared at this time to report on certain lines of action which it believes that the National Education Association should consider, and it is convinced that the Association should adopt certain plans of action which are outlined in subsequent sections of the report.

The first concrete item on which the committee begs to report is the item of legislation. The fire risks connected with the exhibition of motion pictures are so great that drastic laws seem necessary. The legislation which aims at fire protection is complicated by the desire of the theater owners to protect themselves so far as possible from competition arising from the use of films by non-theatrical exhibitors such as churches, lodges, schools, and the like. There are two kinds of films, one the ordinary commercial type known as the inflammable film, and another which is

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more expensive, less satisfactory and less commonly manufactured, known as the slow-burning or non-inflammable film. Legislation has been proposed debarring from interstate commerce the inflammable film. This would be disastrous from the point of view of the producers. Another proposal is that the inflammable film be restricted to use by licensed persons and by exhibiting houses fully equipped with fire-proof booths. This would give the theater people the type of control which they deem necessary for the distribution of entertainment films. All educational films would then be produced on the non-inflammable stock and the use of such stock could be freed from the restrictions which now commonly limit the use of films in school.

It is the belief of the committee which renders this report that some such division of the field is expedient and to be encouraged. It recommends that this Association recognize the general principle that the use of inflammable films should be restricted to licensed persons and exhibition places fully equipped with fire protective devices. It further recommends that the manufacturers of non-inflammable films be encouraged to perfect this type of stock because it is the most desirable for use in the making of educational pictures.

The action thus recommended to this Association is in agreement with the action already taken by the National Association of American Fire Underwriters and by the Producers Association.

The second matter on which this committee is prepared to recommend action relates to the organization of those who are interested in visual education. It is not at this time evident that a permanent group or department should be set apart to discuss problems of visual education. The committee therefore recommends that a special program be organized to be conducted at the time of the next meeting of the Department of Superintendence with a view to testing the interest in visual education and trying out the possibilities of organizing a department. It is recommended that the organization of this special program be assigned to the committee hereinafter recommended.

Third, it is recommended that the committee rendering this report be discharged and that a new committee be appointed by the president of the Association to carry forward certain lines of activity which the preceding and subsequent paragraphs of this report set forth.

It is recommended that this new committee be specifically instructed not to attempt to organize any plan of picture censorship, and that the committee be instructed not to give its approval directly or indirectly to any projecting apparatus or any film or any plan for the preparation of scenarios or films. The experience of the year has shown the unqualified wisdom of the restrictions here recommended. The present committee has been literally besieged by promoters of all kinds of plans for the production of projectors and particular films. It is the belief of the committee reporting that much careful study of the type which it suggests in

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subsequent paragraphs must be completed before anyone is prepared to render judgments which it would be proper for this Association to sponsor.

The positive definition of the functions which the new committee might properly take up grows naturally out of a review of the findings which the present committee has reached.

Before turning to the full report on findings the committee reporting recommends that the new committee, if created by the Association, be commended to the Executive Committee for such an appropriation for operating expenses as the Executive Committee of the Association may find feasible and that the new committee be authorized to accept for its investigations other funds, if such become available, provided the acceptance of such funds in no way limits the freedom of the committee in the pursuit of its inquiries or in the publication of its findings.

The experiences of the present committee during the past year have been most happy; the Producers Association has coöperated cordially and has left the committee absolutely free in all its operations.

During the past three months Dr. McCluskey and his associates visited on behalf of the committee most of the localities where important work in visual education is being carried forward. In all, 42 centers were visited, and of these about half were city school systems, while the others were universities, normal schools, State educational departments, museums, and Federal departments working through divisions of Extension Education.

A summary statement of the results of the study would be that the investigators found that the work of visual education in this country is being carried forward by people who have genuine enthusiasm for what they are doing, receive entirely inadequate financial support, are forced to rely largely on National advertisers for their films because such material is supplied free, and who have almost no means of knowing what is being done elsewhere, what methods others are using, or how their work may be most effectively organized and administered.

The amount of money actually expended by school systems for motion pictures is surprisingly limited. In most divisions of visual instruction a major part of the annual appropriation is spent for slides and stereopticon work, and only small sums for films. Figures from 14 centers show that during the past year the amounts expended for the rental of motion picture films ranged from $500 to $5000, with an average of $2800. These centers included such important school systems as those of Chicago, Cleveland, Pittsburgh, Detroit, and Newark.

Since the directors of these divisions are financially unable to buy or rent many films, they are forced to rely in the main on industrial firms and other commercial agencies which distribute advertising films without expense to the users. One result of this is that these films must usually be shown in auditoriums, before large groups of children, because the distributing agencies are only willing to supply the films on condition that they are seen by relatively large numbers of people. This requirement often operates to reduce the educational value of the work.

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Industrial films of the type discussed are multiplying rapidly in the absence of a sufficient number of educational films. If they are depended upon by the schools to supply material for visual instruction there will be developed a fundamentally false economic basis for visual instruction in schools. It is not beyond the possibilities also that industrial films will unduly influence the work of schools in directions not selected by school authorities. The committee believes that this is a matter of major importance and that the committee which succeeds this should take up the questions here raised for further investigation.

There is no means of ascertaining how many non-theatrical motion picture machines there are in the schools of the country, and it is difficult even to estimate how many there may be in churches, lodges, and private homes. It seems probable that the entire number of non-theatrical projecting machines is less than 15,000, of which possibly half are in schools. It is still less possible to estimate how frequently these machines are used, but the study already made indicates that many are used only occasionally, and that there are many schools which are equipped with booths and screens, but have no machines.

One fact which stands forth with entire clearness is that there is no uniformity of practice in the administration of visual education. Apparently each center does it differently from all the others, and there exist no means by which any worker can tell what procedures have proved productive elsewhere, nor is there anybody of recorded experience to which he can appeal for an opinion as to the probable wisdom of any suggested innovation.

In some cities the slides and films are made up in lesson sets and sent on a circuit of several schools which use them in turn and pass them on to the next school. In other cities the principal requests the material that he wants, and it is sent as soon as it is available, after which it is returned to the central office. Some systems employ messengers or trucks to carry the materials to the schools, while in others the teachers must get and return them personally. In many, if not in most, city school systems only part of the schools using films secure them directly from the Division of Visual Instruction. Other schools prefer to make their own independent arrangements with film exchanges and industrial firms, and to purchase and operate their own equipment.

In some cities, and in some University Extension Bureaus, films are sent out without expense to the users, while in others they are rented, and in some cases even the school children are urged to contribute a cent at each showing to help defray the cost of the films. Similar diversities exist in the matter of the operation of the picture machines. Some systems employ trained operators, others instruct the teachers in the methods of doing it, and in still others the work is done by the older boys.

With all this diversity in the administration of visual instruction, it is only natural to find that the educational aims and procedures in the use of motion pictures are of the most varied sorts. There are few films in existence which were created with the definite purpose of using them as

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adjuncts in the teaching of specific lessons in the conventional school subjects. It is probably true that a considerable majority of the educational motion pictures used in the schools could be classified under the heads of geography, history, and industrial processes. Most of the geography films were originally produced as "scenics" for use in theaters. The history films are largely pictorial versions of historical novels, and those relating to industrial processes are mostly advertising films.

In addition to such pictures, the schools show a considerable number of recreational and amusement films, and in a good many cases these are pretty frankly employed as a sort of sugar-coating to make the diet of advertising films somewhat more palatable. It is not surprising that under existing conditions but little progress has been made in working out the best pedagogical methods of using the films in classroom instruction. The central bureaus administering the work have no resources for experimentation or skilled observations of results.

There is great pressure to have the largest possible number of children see the pictures, for this makes possible favorable reports of low per capita costs, and facilitates the securing of free industrial films. This pressure for numbers tends to increase the number of auditorium showings, and this in turn involves bringing together the children of different grades and ages and makes most difficult any correlation between the regular classroom work and the use of pictures.

Two conclusions emerge from a consideration of existing conditions as they have been described in outline.

The first conclusion is that much work needs to be done in educational experimentation and research having for its purpose the discovery and development of the best methods for using motion pictures in teaching. In this field a start has been made, but the work has not yet reached the point where the results are getting back to the classroom teacher.

The second conclusion is that a clearing-house for information is greatly needed. Each center engaged in the administration of the materials of visual instruction has acquired useful knowledge and developed methods that others could helpfully use. What is needed is a central agency having for its object to make available to each the experience of all. The new committee recommended in a foregoing paragraph might properly be expected to serve, at least temporarily, as such a clearing-house.

As stated in the introductory paragraphs of this report the committee found that a number of investigations are now under way which aim to test the effectiveness of various types of films as instructional materials and the relative success of various methods of using these films.

It has been found in general where tests have been carefully carried out that some verbal discussion of the matters to which the films relate, either oral or through reading matter presented to the pupils, results in fuller comprehension by the pupils than does the mere exhibition of pictures.

These findings refute the frequently repeated statement which has been carelessly made by over-enthusiastic advocates of visual education that the

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use of pictures is destined to supersede the use of textbooks in schools. It is quite certain that pictures require the aid of verbal exposition.

The points at which pictures have most clearly shown themselves to be useful in instruction are in the acquisition of certain skills. Where children are to be taught how to hold their pencils in writing or where they are to be taught the art of weaving, pictures add so materially to verbal instruction that it is evidently desirable that the schools should make use of them.

It is also evident that in exhibiting to pupils parts of the world which they have never seen or activities which cannot be witnessed directly, pictures are very useful.

The investigations which have been made show further that in many cases the kind of picture which is the most useful in any instance must be determined, not by enthusiasm for the spectacular character of the picture, but by a careful measurement of the results obtained. Often still pictures or slides have been found to be better than motion pictures.

Enough has been said by way of review of the investigations which have been collected by the committee to justify the statement that the outlook in the field of visual education must be broad, and the selection of pictures must be made with the highest degree of discrimination if teachers are not to be misled. Motion pictures will in the long run be most advantageously developed as means of teaching if they are inserted only at those points where they are superior to all other instruments of instruction.

Furthermore, wherever they are introduced it is found that they must be properly constructed. For example, some work has already been done on the problem of placing legends and on the proper formulating of such legends as are used. The results of such inquiry as has been made show the need of much more investigation along these lines.

Investigations of the construction and use of pictures must be coupled with investigations of another type which are being taken up by this Association through other agencies, but should be participated in by the Committee on Visual Education—namely, investigations of the curriculum. There are points in the school curriculum where visual material is as appropriate as it was in the days of Comenius. The discovery of points in the curriculum where pictures can be used and the production of pictures to satisfy the need call for much coöperative work which a committee of a National association could well supervise.

Finally, the meaning and proper means of entertainment are by no means clearly defined in our present-day educational thinking. Teachers are sometimes so anxious to be sure that all school exercises contribute in the conventional way to the improvement of children's minds that they destroy the very proper entertainment value of a picture by a pseudo-correlation of entertainment experiences with study. The teachers of this country have legitimate interest in the type of entertainment offered the children of the country. A careful study of the effects of various kinds of pictures and of the relation of any exhibition of pictures to ordinary

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class work is a legitimate field of investigation. At present there is only the most meager information on the methods and results of entertainment as an adjunct to school work.

In recommending the creation of a committee to pursue actively investigations of the administration of visual education and of the methods of production and use of pictures, the present committee is convinced that there are important services to be rendered. There is a widespread interest in visual education, and it will not disappear even if this Association neglects it. If the Association sees the opportunity of dealing with the matter in the scientific and systematic way which is appropriate for a body of educators, the Association may, we believe, assume leadership in the field.

The producers of motion pictures are sure that it is possible to realize through their coöperation important improvements within and without the schools in the means and methods of education. The present committee has gone far enough to establish in the minds of its members the conviction that it is the duty of this Association to provide a committee which can coöperate with all the agencies that are prepared to promote visual education. The peculiar contribution of this Association should, we believe, be the systematic study of the problems of visual education so that the future development of this field shall be based on sound principles scientifically established.

In summary then it is recommended: (1) That the present committee be discharged; (2) That the Association express to the Motion Picture Producers and Distributors of America appreciation for support given to the committee; (3) That this Association recognize the desirability of legislation regulating the use of inflammable films and making more readily available to schools the non-inflammable films; (4) That a program on visual education be arranged for the next winter meeting to include all discussion of this subject at that meeting; and (5) That a committee be appointed by the president of the Association to carry on studies of the administrative and instructional methods which are employed and should be employed in the introduction of visual materials into the school curriculum.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON CHARACTER EDUCATION [1]

MILTON BENNION, DEAN, SCHOOL OF EDUCATION, UNIVERSITY OF UTAH, SALT LAKE CITY, UTAH, CHAIRMAN

The success of any plan of character education in the schools will depend primarily upon the native ability, general education, moral character, and professional training of the teaching staff. Teaching as a life's work must be made attractive to high-school graduates who have teaching personality—that is physical and intellectual vigor, attractive social qualities, ambition for social service, and enthusiasm for realization of the highest ideals.

[1] In addition to the chairman, the committee includes the members listed on page 23

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Teachers possessing these qualities as a foundation may utilize all the knowledge and skill that science can provide in furthering human development; their being able to supplement science with love of humanity and devotion to moral ideals make their possible achievements almost limitless.

It is the opinion of this committee that superintendents of schools, principals of high schools, and teachers generally, should use every legitimate means of so dignifying their profession in the eyes of youth as to inspire those who are most fit to teach with ambition to make careful preparation for it.

Teacher-training institutions may coöperate in this effort to improve the personnel of their student bodies by raising their own standards, both of entrance and of graduation. These standards should not be confined to tests of knowledge alone—native intellectual ability and moral character should receive weight. Free tuition or other scholarships provided by the State or by endowment should be available—not as a matter of charity but as an honor award to those best endowed to serve as teachers.

The contention will be made at once that the plans suggested above cannot be realized until teachers are better paid. A reasonable living income is, of course, indispensable; but, this assured, the type of person most wanted in the schools is more responsive to an appeal to do something eminently worthwhile than to an opportunity to accumulate wealth.

In recognition of the fact that the teacher is the prime factor in character education, this committee has outlined a plan for teacher-training. This plan has been widely distributed among all varieties of teacher-training institutions in the United States and is published in *School and Society*, June 30, 1923. While the committee recognizes the necessity of scholarship in the subjects to be taught, it is also endeavoring to emphasize another kind of scholarship: knowledge of human nature and of all the means that science has developed for the more complete analysis of character and the means of influencing it for good.

The committee recognizes the value of the "case method" in both professional and academic study and recommends that this method be applied to the study of the school child as well. The "behavior clinic" should be as great a factor in general education as is the surgical clinic in the general field of medicine. Accurate analysis of all the factors that determine child behavior, together with prescription for treatment that will bring about the best results in individual and social improvement is complex and difficult but decidedly worthwhile.

The opinion of the committee that "behavior clinics" should be established in teacher-training institutions and school systems is not an abstract theory. This work is already well developed in some of our juvenile courts, in several American cities, and in several schools and school systems. Its further development is being very actively promoted through the Commonwealth Fund Program for the Prevention of Delinquency. The National Committee for Mental Hygiene has undertaken a Nation-wide campaign for the establishment of child behavior clinics in cities with a population of more than one hundred thousand, and is authorized to make liberal expenditures of the Commonwealth Fund in promotion of this work.

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Any school of education or teachers' college having well established departments of physical education and hygiene, psychology, sociology, and ethics, as well as of education, may with great profit utilize the resources of these departments in the establishment of a "behavior clinic." It would, of course, be necessary in addition to employ a director highly trained in those phases of social administration and psychiatry that bear directly upon the problems of child behavior and treatment.

This systematic effort to study individuals in a scientific way should not be confined to the professional staff of the clinic. Every teacher should be trained to participate in these individual studies, to interpret results of tests, and to carry out appropriate treatment. To this end the committee recommends that courses in physical and mental hygiene, psychology, sociology, and ethics —all with emphasis upon the study of behavior and means of controlling conduct—be required of all teachers in preparation. In connection with these studies clinical practice should be provided. This clinical practice is as essential to this phase of teacher-training as is supervised teaching to the preparation for the usual classroom work.

Thus far the behavior clinic has been used primarily in the study of delinquents and near-delinquents. There is no reason why every child should not be made the object of such careful study and individual treatment with a view to obtaining maximum results in character development. Society has thus far been more prone to spend ten dollars on a delinquent or defective child than to spend one dollar on a normal or supernormal child.

The committee's recommendations concerning studies in behavior are not meant to discount the possibilities of character training through classroom instruction. Recent scientific studies, including that of Dr. Voelker made at Teachers College, Columbia University, confirm the popular judgment that ideals and attitudes can be taught to groups in ways that secure good results from individual members of the group. This is not solely a matter of direct instruction since the ideals and attitudes of the teacher are contagious—the more so in case of a personality that is strong and attractive.

Much of the treatment prescribed for the betterment of conduct must come through the activities of the school under expert supervision. In this connection, among the various activities to be utilized is that of self-government, organized and carried on at various levels appropriate to the age and social development of each group. The success of the "Junior Republic," established by William R. George in 1895, and of other self-government plans, has put the great moral value of self-determination in any group beyond the realm of mere speculation. Similar good results have been obtained elsewhere both with adults and with youths, with delinquents, and with normal individuals. This is but one instance illustrative of the rôle of responsibility in the development of character—an instance, however, that lends itself readily to experimental determination.

Organization of the curriculum and of all the activities of the school for character education calls for a clear conception of the objectives to be attained. The committee approves as a basis of the moral life: belief in and devotion to moral ideals joined with an attitude of good-will toward mankind. This

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standard will provide the foundation upon which all morality may be built, and indicates the means by which the sources of all wrongdoing—such as selfishness, ignorance, and thoughtlessness—may be overcome. Of these enemies of the moral life selfishness is the most difficult to conquer. Without self-sacrificing love it cannot be overcome. But until it is overcome, intellectual ability and attainment may contribute nothing to moral character. Feeling for moral ideals and human welfare must, of course, be supplemented with as much intelligence and thoughtfulness as it is possible to develop.

The course of study should be so planned as to develop to the maximum the kind of knowledge and the habits of mind that will contribute most to the making of a thoroughly socialized individual. The activities of the school should be so regulated as to develop a maximum of moral thoughtfulness and of moral imagination. Development of moral imagination and its use in social relations may be a factor for moral progress comparable to the use of the scientific imagination in the realms of mechanical invention and scientific discovery.

DR. YOCUM'S THREE REPORTS ON CHARACTER EDUCATION OBJECTIVES

Dr. Yocum has presented to the committee two reports on character education objectives and is submitting a third report at this session. The first two constitute a highly technical and complex analysis of education outcomes and procedures. Dr. Yocum insists that since life is complex and civilization technical, the formulas through which life can develop character must be at least as complex as those of chemistry, and the procedures through which civilization can result in the common welfare, as technical as the making of Big Berthas and U-Boats.

Love, faith, and strength of character which the analysis finds basal for all other qualities essential to character are simple only in the superficial sense in which selfishness, materialism, and fear are simple. With them once developed a child need not err in the road to which they point the way. But it is only because man is made in the image of God himself, that he can know enough and be able enough to make these qualities controlling. Life is not yet moral and civilization democratic, less because men are morons, than because moral instruction is too simple and therefore remains a game of chance.

In the report presented at the present session, it is shown how character education must transform love, faith, and strength as simple logical objectives or moral abstractions, into education outcomes which because they *are* "complexes," are strong enough to control individual and social conduct. These "complexes," unlike those of Freud, are not past experiences which have happened to gain control over man, but elements selected and developed through education which in combination with each other give man control over his experiences. Education is a complex because it must develop these complexes.

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The analysis of "love" in the first report and of "equivalent return" in the second, shows both this complexity of outcome and the complexity of procedure through which it is to be made controlling. Love, faith, and strength in general, each has or is a controlling complex of ten or twenty elements, with every one of their elements having further elements of its own. Each essential element has beyond this, "contributory combinations" of elements different for different individuals, types or groups, periods, environments, and achievement levels, and so on, as the report says, "Like the house that Jack built."

If each of the hundreds of qualities which can be included among desirable moralities were to be separately developed in this fashion, man would have to be a Methusaleh or the Wandering Jew to acquire them. But through this very complexity, comes simplicity.

Many moral characteristics are merely *types* of love, faith, or strength. For example, strength as a standard includes: independence, bravery, self-respect, self-control, justice, generosity, cheerfulness, pleasantness, and self-sacrifice. Many other moral characteristics are *subordinates* under these types. Justice, for example, as including both the yielding of rights and of equities, has as its subordinates: obedience, truthfulness, honesty, and responsibility; and similarly analyzed bravery includes fearlessness, determination, and hope, while determination involves decision and perseverance.

Still other qualities represent the *vocabulary* of moralities, types, and subordinates, and become controlling if the words which express them are made familiar and are realistically comprehended as the moralities themselves become controlling. For example, if truthfulness and honesty are made controlling, such words as "prevarication," "evasion," "petty larceny," and "maligning," being realistically understood and familiarly used, the forms of untruthfulness or dishonesty which they express tend to disappear.

Other moralities or desirable human qualities are merely *composites* of love, faith, and strength or of their various types, subordinates, and forms of expression. To illustrate, even democracy is essentially love of the common welfare, faith in the ability of the ordinary individual to learn to sacrifice all liberties conflicting with the common welfare, and strength enough to measure up to any standard of strength in its social and political forms. Even happiness, aside from incidental pleasures, reduces itself to love, faith, and strength.

The outcomes of many moralities are *key-outcomes* which, developed for one morality, are made controlling for others and sometimes for many others. Take the habit of looking upon the bright or pleasant side of things, except where wrongs or unpleasantnesses should be remedied. It is essential to a love of other nationalities and social groups, to cheerfulness and pleasantness as standards of strength and elements in a democratic social intercourse, etc.

But the most fundamental simplicity after all is the final simplicity in technique of instruction, which comes through the fact that the *forms of control* and control elements themselves are interdependent, and that the development of control through one usually means partial control for others.

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A sense of affection, for example, is necessary to a realization of the love of others for us and of an attitude of love for them, while such an attitude is the motive for attaining standards of loving self-sacrifice. The vocabulary of love strengthens loving feeling, and so on through the whole gamut from being loved to having love for all.

In short the three reports insist that super-threats to civilization and democracy require a super-education that is necessarily complex; but that through its very complexity, the character education which makes a few virtues controlling, will through the interdependence of one virtue upon another, insure the control of all; and through this interdependence in their elements teach morality through religion, religion through morality, and democracy through both.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON THE REORGANIZATION OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

OLIVE M. JONES, PRINCIPAL, PUBLIC SCHOOL NO. 120
NEW YORK CITY, CHAIRMAN

I am here today only in the capacity of an assistant and a representative of a person who is unable to be present, Mrs. Margaret McNaught who is now in Europe. The Committee on the Reorganization of Elementary Education was formed several years ago. It was really formed by Mrs. Mary C. C. Bradford, when she was president of the National Education Association. Mrs. Ella Flagg Young was the original chairman. She was immediately appointed to war work in Washington, and her death followed soon after that. An interim followed after which Mrs. McNaught was appointed to act as chairman of this commission.

The important work of the commission has taken the form of a number of reports, several of which have been placed in your hands in previous years. Two of the most important of all of the reports are in the envelopes which you received when you were given your credentials as delegates to this assembly.

The committee cannot conclude its work without speaking in the most appreciative terms of the assistance and coöperation given to it by Mr. Morgan and Mr. Crabtree, of the headquarters office in Washington. Without the assistance and knowledge and advice in regard to publication given by Mr Morgan, I doubt if we would have been able to complete our work at all.

In 1920 the committee really began its work—that is, it was then given the definite work of organization. The committee found that the problems presented to it in connection with the reorganization of elementary education were large. They were beyond the power even to grasp. We sent out a questionnaire and the answers to that questionnaire at that time proved conclusively that the majority of teachers of America were interested particularly in the solution of problems of a special character. They felt there was

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no use to try to reorganize the teaching of English and arithmetic and geography or any other of our academic subjects, unless the big, special problems which were obstructing classroom teaching, were removed or at least solved for those classroom teachers.

Consequently, in the organization of that commission, Mrs. McNaught gave her attention first to the various types and problems of special education, including particularly the question of classroom discipline, the big discipline problem which classroom teachers generally acknowledge to be the difficulty that lies in their way before they can do anything in the way of teaching English or any other academic subject.

A preliminary report on that subject was presented to the National Education Association in 1921. In 1922 a report taking up the second question, the best means of classifying children, was presented and was distributed to you at that time. That report, prepared by Lewis M. Terman, of Stanford University, was distributed in Boston, and copies are now available, but unfortunately owing to the size of that report and the great cost of printing it, it cannot be distributed free. The price, I think, is fifty cents—not more than seventy-five. The report is called, "The Classification of Children," by Dr. Terman. The price simply covers the cost of production.

At the same time, a preliminary report on the teaching of English was also presented, by Miss Theda Gildermeister. It is not yet printed, because it is not yet complete. The members of her committee have not yet completed their research work.

This year, 1923, two completed reports of great value are ready for your perusal. One is a report on the teaching of the blind, the crippled, and the defective children, problems which are obstructing elementary education wherever those children are found in the same classes as the average and the normal child. That report was prepared under the direction of Miss Anna Laura Force, of Denver, Colorado. It has been placed in your envelopes and I urge that you give it a most careful reading.

Not only does that report give us an outline of what has been done all over the United States in the handling of these great problems of handicapped children, but it also makes recommendations of a definite character as to what may be done in various communities and under various conditions.

In the same envelope you will find a report on the education of the immigrant including the adult and the infant child. Special attention has been given in that report to the education of the adult immigrant, the non-English speaking adult that is found especially in our very large cities.

That report was prepared under the direction of Miss Elizabeth Woodward, of the Department of Immigrant Education, the State Department of Education, Albany, New York. The report includes a statement of what has been done on the subject of immigrant education in all of the large communities where non-English speaking immigrants are found in large numbers. That report has been published in part in various Journals previously. It is now complete up to January 1, 1922. It contains a large number of statistics and a great many recommendations, showing what has been

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done in daytime care, in night schools, in special Americanization classes, and in home teaching classes, for the immigrant mother.

I urge particularly that you read carefully that report, especially those of you who come from sections of the country where the problem of teaching the child who comes from a non-English speaking home constitutes one of our great difficulties. I speak feelingly on that subject, from a personal point of view, because we often say that we are not teaching English in our schools, we are teaching a foreign language.

Consequently, we urge that you give careful attention to this report which contains most valuable suggestions, and since its distribution at this meeting has already received a great deal of recognition and commendation from those who are in a position to speak with authority.

There are also three sub-committees of that commission still at work: one on the teaching of English to which I have referred; one on the teaching of mathematics; and one on the teaching of the so-called social studies, including geography, history, and civics.

It is therefore recommended to you now that the original commission be discharged from its work; that the Committee on Publication be discharged from its duties; that all matters of publication of reports of these committees hereafter be left with the publication of the National Education Association.

It is also recommended that the three sub-committees on English, mathematics, and social studies be continued, but that they take the position of committees of the National Education Association, and not sub-committees of a commission that had a general problem to solve, and feels that its work is completed.

REPORT OF THE EDITORIAL COUNCIL[1]

WILLIAM C. BAGLEY, PROFESSOR OF EDUCATION, TEACHERS COLLEGE
COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY, NEW YORK CITY, CHAIRMAN

This report is necessarily brief. The Council regards its duty as that of assisting the editorial staff of *The Journal* in only the most general way and not by interfering in the slightest degree with the details of editorial management which are now being carried out with such notable efficiency by Mr. Joy E. Morgan and the headquarters editorial staff at Washington.

The Council has met twice during the year, in Cleveland and again this week in Oakland. It has been in constant touch with the managing editor of *The Journal;* has been consulted repeatedly on matters of editorial policy and has expressed itself frankly and frequently; and is glad to take full responsibility for what has been done.

The Journal speaks for itself, and speaks impressively. Doubtless this assembly knows it, but it is important to remember it. *The Journal* is one of the finest appearing periodicals of any kind published in America

[1] In the absence of the chairman, the report was made by W. Carson Ryan, Professor of Education, Swarthmore College, Swarthmore, Pa. In addition to the chairman, the committee includes the members listed on page 23.

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today. Typographically it is surpassed by few; editorially it has set a new mark in educational journalism. The Council offers no apology for the excellent form in which *The Journal* appears and the expense that this entails. In a very real sense *The Journal* is the National Education Association; it is the one contact all members have with the Association as a whole; it is the one thing that represents the Association not only with its own members but with other teachers and with the general public. The National Education Association is now the largest publisher of educational literature in the world, and *The Journal* is the one general medium through which all of its publications focus. A policy of cheapness cannot be tolerated with it. It must be the best.

Last year at Boston, it will be remembered, Professor Bagley, as chairman of the Council, asked and received instructions from the representative assembly whereby *The Journal* should take an aggressive stand for any policies officially adopted by the National Education Association. This was a turning-point as far as *The Journal* was concerned. It was decided once for all that *The Journal* was not to be a milk and water concoction but should stand for something. You will recall that last year the issue was over advocacy of the policy of a Federal Department of Education and National aid for education. The pages of *The Journal* will show with what effectiveness it has carried out this commission given at Boston. This year the issue is even more clearly that of adequate financial support for public education and defense of those leaders of American education. Many of us have come to this convention determined that no one shall doubt where we stand on this issue; that we shall be unafraid in the face of demands to retrench; that we shall be militant in behalf of adequate expenditures for public schools and specifically in behalf of educational leaders like Will C. Wood, of California, and Thomas E. Finegan, of Pennsylvania; that we shall show by our support of such men that we realize what the issue is and intend to stand by our guns. The Council regards it as one of the immediately urgent tasks of *The Journal* to keep hammering at this issue; to fight, editorially speaking, to the last ditch for a recognition of American education that will put it far beyond the power of any man or group of men to weaken or destroy it.

One unforeseen result of *The Journal's* amazing success has been the part it has played in educating non-professional American public opinion. From the first its policy has been, not to be simply another educational journal, not to do anything already being well done by any existing agency, not merely even to represent the Association and the profession of teaching; but to interpret to the members of the National Education Association and of the American public itself the fundamental issues in American education. *The Journal* has literally thousands of readers not directly connected in any way with the profession of teaching—citizens who read it because they seek to be informed. This is a service almost beyond measure. The noteworthy improvement in reporting of educational conventions by the daily press—not only in quantity but in quality—as evidenced at Cleveland and conspicuously here in Oakland and San Francisco, is almost directly

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due to the work of *The Journal of the National Education Association* and the distribution of educational information that has gone with it. This is a service of tremendous importance. The Council takes no glory for it, other than of having the foresight to encourage the broad editorial policy that has made it possible. The Council believes that *The Journal* can and should, without in the least interfering with its other duties with the Association and the profession, increasingly dedicate itself to the task of making the American public so thoroughly believe in the significance of public education to American life that there can be no turning back.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON HEALTH PROBLEMS IN EDUCATION[1]

THOMAS D. WOOD, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY, NEW YORK CITY, CHAIRMAN

The Committee on Health Problems in Education of the National Education Association with the continued cordial and effective coöperation of the corresponding committee of the American Medical Association continues its work with a sustained interest in the committee program and a steady demand for the reports which have been issued by the Joint Committee.

Educational and health officials, child welfare organizations, Red Cross workers, and other individuals and organizations in this and in other countries are looking to your committee in increasing numbers for health standards, charts, and literature.

This Committee on Health Problems was created as a committee of the National Council of Education at the meeting in San Francisco in 1911 at the suggestion and request of the American Medical Association which was in session at the same time in Los Angeles.

At the meeting of the National Education Association in Des Moines, July, 1921, this committee was formally adopted as a committee of the National Education Association.

After a careful survey of the general field the committee decided to give attention first to the health problems of rural schools.

The first report of the committee was a valuable bulletin entitled "Country Schoolhouses" prepared by Fletcher B. Dresslar, a member of the committee. This report was printed and distributed in 1912 by the U. S. Bureau of Education. Unfortunately this bulletin is out of print.

The committee literature still being distributed in original or repeated editions includes the following:

1. "Minimum Health Requirements for Rural Schools." Three editions of 800,000 copies of this report have been distributed. Unprejudiced evidence from many places shows that this report has exerted a major share of influence in the marked improvement in rural-school sanitation in the

[1] In addition to the chairman, this committee includes the members listed on page 24.

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United States during the last eight years. Several States have adopted this report as the standard for rural schools. The cost of printing the very large introductory edition (750,000 copies) of this report was covered by a gift of over $3000 from the Elizabeth McCormick Memorial Fund of Chicago. (This public-spirited organization has given generous, repeated assistance in money and expert service to the Committee on Health Problems, which should be known to all the members of the National Education Association.)

2. "Health Essentials for Rural-School Children" was printed in 50,000 copies. This first edition was exhausted and a second revised edition is now being distributed.

Most of the copies of this report have been used as supplementary texts on health in the training of rural-school teachers in the normal schools, and as practical hand-books by rural-school teachers and supervisors.

3. "The Health Chart Report." The first edition of 10,000 copies of the illustrated Health Chart pamphlet was soon exhausted and a second edition of 10,000 is now being distributed.

This pamphlet not only serves to illustrate and explain the health charts, but is being extensively used for health instruction in both city and country schools and also as a guide in making health posters and scrap books.

4. The "Health Chart Set" comprises 58 charts, each 22 x 28 inches. Over 1000 complete sets of the health charts (over 60,000 individual charts) have been distributed in our own and in foreign countries. Many orders for individual charts have been received. One State Department of Health ordered 2400 copies of additional charts.

5. "The Teacher's Part in Social Hygiene" was published in 1921 with the coöperation of the American Social Hygiene Association, and this coöperating Association presented the Joint Health Committee with 5000 copies of this valuable bulletin. This report, containing a very carefully selected bibliography, has supplied a valuable bulletin for many teachers. A moderate number of copies of this valuable report are still available for free distribution.

Constructive coöperation between organizations and committees is a prominent part of the policy of the Joint Health Committee.

6. "Health Improvement in Rural Schools," published in 1922, was in careful process of preparation for several years. Important work in the introductory assembling and organization of material for this report was done by several well-trained and experienced teachers and supervisors of rural schools whose names are mentioned in the report. The bulletin was finally revised and completed through the substantial coöperation of the staff of the Elizabeth McCormick Memorial Fund. This report completed for the time being being the introductory plan of the committee to promote the entire health program of the rural schools.

7. "Health Service in City Schools of the United States" is the report of a survey, conducted by our committee in 1922, of the health work which is being done in the city school systems of this country. Six hundred and twenty-two six-page questionnaires were sent out to city superintendents of schools. Filled-out questionnaires containing much valuable information

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of current accomplishment were received from 340 (54.6 per cent) of the superintendents.

The Executive Officer of the National Health Council, Dr. D. B. Armstrong, said of this report a few weeks ago: "It covers in a most adequate and thorough-going way more vital questions with reference to school health work than have to my knowledge been assembled under one cover before."

Your committee expresses here sincere appreciation of the splendid help and coöperation from the 340 superintendents who responded so promptly.

The above-mentioned bulletins and the health charts are being sold by the committee at the bare cost of printing.

8. "Daylight in the School Room" is the title of a valuable report on school lighting which was prepared in 1921 by a sub-committee under the chairmanship of Dr. Edward Jackson, eminent opthalmologist of Denver and a member of our Joint Committee.

This report has been printed in several scientific and educational magazines. It is being reprinted for wider distribution.

9. A partial report on "Ventilation of School Buildings" has been prepared by a sub-committee of which Dr. R. W. Corwin, of Pueblo, Colorado, is chairman. Further work on this study is being conducted under the leadership of Mrs. Ira Couch Wood, of Chicago, another member of this sub-committee. This special report will be printed and ready for distribution at an early date.

10. Appointment of Committees on Health Problems in Education in the several States.

At the meeting of the House of Delegates of the American Medical Association in New Orleans in May, 1920, it was voted to urge upon each of the State medical societies that a committee of five physicians, members of the society, be appointed to coöperate with a similar committee of the State Teachers' Association as a joint committee on "The Health Problems in Education" in that State. It will be recalled that at the meeting of the National Education Association held in Des Moines, Iowa, in July, 1921, this action of the American Medical Association was heartily endorsed and each State teachers' association was urged to appoint such a committee in response to the request of the State Medical Society. All but five of the forty-nine State medical societies have appointed such State committees of physicians and have reported their personnel to the secretary of the Council on Health and Public Instruction of the American Medical Association. Our committee urgently requests every State Teachers' Association to appoint a like committee of teachers to coöperate with the medical committee.

While our Joint Health Committee of the National organizations of teachers and physicians can propose material and secure data of great value and can recommend measures which would secure better health conditions in the public and other schools of the country, it is obvious that if such measures are to be generally adopted and put into practice

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it must be through the efforts of many groups dealing with these activities in the several States and communities. Our committee will find one of its most effective fields of usefulness in serving as a medium of intercommunication between, and coördination of, these several State committees.

The coöperating medical group of our committee has initiated the custom of holding the annual Conference at the time of meeting of the American Medical Association, of the members of the committees of the several State medical societies. Our committee recommends that a similar plan be instituted for the committees of the State Teachers' Associations and that our committee be authorized to arrange for such a conference at each annual meeting of the National Education Association. The interchange of information regarding progress in the several States in solving health problems in education, together with the opportunity for discussion and suggestion which such a conference would afford, could not fail to be helpful in promoting this great movement.

11. Preparation of a program of Health Education for Public Schools and Teacher-Training Institutions.

At the annual meeting of the Joint Health Committee on February 28, 1922, in Chicago, unanimous support was given to a resolution that a committee should be appointed to prepare a program of health education for public schools and teacher-training institutions of the country. This is by far the most extensive and important project which your committee has yet undertaken.

This wave of intense interest in, and intensive development of health work in the schools, accompanied by unprecedented stimulation of interest in health by voluntary organizations outside of the schools; and contribution to the schools of a fascinating and confusing mass of material and devices for health work and health teaching from many outside sources, makes it all the more desirable and necessary that the educational forces within the school should study, interpret, and coördinate the materials and methods in the field of health education so that the schools of the country may be provided with an educationally sound program of health teaching and training.

So active was the interest manifested by the members of the committee in this plan that on April 22, 1922, seven members of the Joint Committee met in Pittsburgh at their own expense, and spent two days in developing the plan for this program of health education.

This program of the committee involves the work of several years and during this period of thorough investigation and consideration of the multitude of problems involved, our committee plans to issue a preliminary report within a year or eighteen months to provide the best available guidance to the schools of the country relative to health teaching in the immediate future.

Following the committee meeting in Pittsburgh, the plan developed there has been carried out as follows: It has been decided at this meeting that the proposed program of health education could be most satisfactorily prepared by appointing and organizing a technical committee of special

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as the function of which would be to initiate and organize a tentative draft of the report and to submit it to the Joint Committee, which would then act as a reviewing committee before submitting the report to the Representative Assembly of the National Education Association.

Accordingly, a Technical Committee of twenty-seven specialists has been appointed, and organized into seven sub-committees as follows:

1) Sub-committee of Educators (9 members)

Frederick G. Bonser, Department of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.
Julia Wade Abbot, Specialist in Kindergarten Education, U. S. Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C.
Helen S. Watson, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, Los Angeles, California.
Alexander Inglis, Professor of Education, Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts.
H. H. Ryan, Principal, Blewett Junior High School, St. Louis, Missouri.
Lucy L. W. Wilson, Principal, South Philadelphia High School for Girls, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.
John W. Withers, Dean, School of Education, New York University, New York City.
Ambrose L. Suhrie, Dean, School of Education, Cleveland, Ohio.
George H. Black, President, Washington State Normal School, Ellenburg, Washington.

2) Sub-committee of Physicians (3 members)

Dr. W. S. Rankin, State Health Officer, State Board of Health, Raleigh, North Carolina.
Dr. Walter B. Cannon, Dept. of Physiology, Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts.
Dr. Haven Emerson, Professor of Public Health Administration, College of Physicians and Surgeons, Columbia University, New York City.

3) Sub-committee of Educational Psychologists (3 members)

Mrs. Leta S. Hollingsworth, Associate Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.
Bird T. Baldwin, Director, Iowa Child Welfare Research Station, University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa.
E. A. Kirkpatrick, State Normal School, Fitchburg, Massachusetts.

4) Sub-committee of Dentists (3 members)

Dr. Arthur Davenport Black, Dean, Northwestern University Dental School, Chicago, Illinois.
Dr. Max Giesecke, c/o The Smedley Dental Group, California Building, Denver, Colorado.
Dr. Harvey J. Burkhardt, Director, Rochester Dental Dispensary, Rochester, New York.

5) Sub-committee of Nutrition Experts (3 members)

Edna N. White, Director, Merrill-Palmer School, Detroit, Michigan.
Anna E. Richardson, Dean, Home Economics Dept., Iowa State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts, Ames, Iowa.
Dr. Mary Swartz Rose, Professor of Nutrition, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.

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(6) Sub-committee of Physical Educators (3 members)

Ruth V. Atkinson, Assitant Professor of Physical Education, University o Southern California, Los Angeles, California.
Dr. Laurence S. Hill, Director of Physical Education, Albany City School Albany, New York.
Dr. William Burdick, State Supervisor of Physical Education, Baltimore Maryland.

(7) Sub-committee of Biological and Public Health experts

Emma Dolfinger, Associate Director, Health Education Division, America Child Health Association, 370 Seventh Avenue, New York City.
George T. Palmer, Director, Division of Research, American Child Healt Association, 370 Seventh Avenue, New York City.
E. P. Lyon, Dean, Medical School, University of Minnesota, Minneapoli Minnesota.

Each sub-committee is so organized that its membership includes a repre sentative specialist, or specialists, for each of the three age groups: elemen tary-school age, high-school age, normal-school age. All material prepare by this Technical Committee is therefore approved from two standpoints (a) Its appropriateness for the respective age groups in relation to th complete health education program for that age group, *e. g.*, elementary high school, or normal school. (b) Its appropriateness from the technica point of view of authorities in the respective fields of education, medicine psychology, dentistry, nutrition, physical education, biology, and publi health.

The organization of the Technical Committee was begun in October 1922, and because of its large size was not completed until January, 1923 The work of the Technical Committee up to the present time has included among others, the following items: (1) A preliminary questionnaire t determine the best organization of the report and to outline its scope; (2) Detailed consideration of selection and gradation of subject matter; (3) Definition of terms; (4) Tentative statements regarding the health habit appropriate for each age group; (5) Tentative statement of what should be included in the teachers' training in preparation for health education; (6) Tentative statements from four of the seven sub-committees regarding the fundamental principles in their respective special fields, by which a program of health education should be guided.

The work already done by the majority of the technical sub-committees represents a very important and substantial contribution from eminent authorities to this committee program. In fact, for these contributions, the National Education Association as well as your Committee on Health Problems has already been placed under a considerable weight of appreciation and gratitude; (7) Collection and study of material which is now being used in health education. About 750 requests for such material have been sent to school superintendents, normal schools, etc. Over 100 responses have been received so far from cities conducting health education programs of modern type, and replies are still coming in. The material so collected is studied and carefully catalogued, and record is made of the most useful and valuable suggestions.

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All material prepared so far is, of course, subject to revision, and there remain many other problems to be considered.

The work involved in preparation of material by such a large committee as this Technical Committee (27 members) and in the approval of the material by the Joint Committee (21 members) makes the progress on this report necessarily slow.

Three general methods are used:

(1) Questionnaires are prepared at the central office and are sent to committee members. Upon return of the questionnaire, its contents are tabulated, and any points upon which the decision of the committee is not clear are referred to the members again in a following questionnaire.

(2) The purely technical material is first prepared by the sub-committees on the various technical fields, and sent to the central office. There it is mimeographed and copies sent to the whole committee for approval and criticism. The material is then revised and sent again to the committee, until agreement is reached.

Since the members of these committees are so widely scattered, all the work, as a rule, is carried on by correspondence, which inevitably takes considerable time. It should also be noted that the members of the Technical Committee are persons whose spare time is limited, and who serve on other committees as well.

(3) Whenever any part of the work of the Technical Committee has been passed upon by the whole Technical Committee, it is sent to the Joint Committee for criticism and approval.

Extensive study and experiment by our Joint Committee, assisted by the various technical committees referred to, will be necessary to solve some of the many urgent problems in this field.

In this new project the members of the committee have proposed for themselves and for their chairman a task of National scope and of great importance in the program of public education. This committee seems peculiarly situated and constituted to attempt under distinctively favorable auspices this pressing educational task.

At the meeting of the National Education Association at Boston in July, 1922, a special appropriation of $1500 was granted the Health Committee to begin the extensive program of preparing the material for the Report on Health Education. It is increasingly apparent as the preparation of this report progresses that the active coöperation of the large Technical Committee is absolutely indispensable to the successful completion of a report which will seem in any way adequate to the needs of the schools and satisfactory to the National Education Association. The chairman of your committee would be entirely unable to do his part of this special project without the part-time assistance of a well-trained specialist.

In order to carry on with reasonable efficiency and success the preparation of the Program on Health Education during the coming year with increased technical, professional, and clerical service required, this committee asks for a special appropriation of $3000 for this special project for the coming year.

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In addition to the committee program and reports already mentioned, the committee is working toward the following bulletins:

"Standards of Health Norms and Defects of School Children"
"Mental Hygiene for Normal Children, What every Teacher should know about it"
"Making Athletic Games Safe and Healthful for School Children"
"Health and Efficiency for Teachers"
"Essentials in the Hygiene of Instruction and School Management"

To continue with reasonable efficiency the general program already under way, and outside of the preparation of the Program of Health Education, the Health Committee respectfully asks for an appropriation of $2000 for the coming year from the National Education Association. Your committee, according to the custom of many years, confidently expects from the American Medical Association an appropriation equal to that of the general appropriation which may be granted by the National Education Association.

REPORT OF ILLITERACY COMMISSION[1]

CORA WILSON STEWART, FRANKFORT, KENTUCKY, CHAIRMAN

The Illiteracy Commission has devoted itself chiefly to the three-fold task of studying adult illiteracy in all its phases, of supplying information, and of arousing the American people to the menace and disgrace of permitting illiteracy to exist in the land.

Appointed five years ago as a committee at the Pittsburgh meeting by Mrs. Mary C. C. Bradford, who was then president, it was the first Illiteracy Committee to be created by any National organization in America, an example which has since been followed by the National Council of Education, the General Federation of Women's Clubs, the Women's Christian Temperance Union, the American Legion, and others.

The committee was advanced to a commission at the Des Moines meeting two years ago and its powers were consequently broadened and its work made more permanent and extensive.

The personnel of the Commission is made up of six leading State superintendents of public instruction, two specialists on adult education, the president of a State school of technology, the editor of a great educational journal, and an editor of one of America's daily newspapers.

In its study of illiteracy conditions, your commission has carefully analyzed the statistical reports gathered by the U. S. Census Bureau in 1920, has gone into public libraries all over the country searching reports and magazines and periodicals, and has subscribed to various clipping bureaus to secure current information. Also, a representative of your commission has gone into most of the States and into illiterate localities of same to investigate conditions. In this study the following facts were revealed:

[1] In addition to the chairman, this committee includes the members listed on page 24.

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That the census of illiterates, taken by the Federal government in 1920, showed 4,931,905 illiterates, and based on confession of illiteracy by the individual is not a complete and accurate report. If a careful census were taken in which every individual should be put to the test of reading simple paragraphs and writing simple sentences, the number of illiterates in this country would approximate 10,000,000 and the number of near illiterates would be equally as large; 20,000,000 illiterates and near-illiterates might seem staggering to the American people had we not 100,000,000 educated persons to teach them and thousands of schools scattered throughout the land that are not used to capacity that could double their efficiency by being opened to adults at night.

Inequality of opportunity in the United States was never more manifest than in the illiteracy figures. They tell the story of youths in our Nation who enjoy the best of opportunities and the tragic story of youths in other sections who enjoy practically none.

There is a State that has little more than 1 per cent illiteracy, and on the other hand there is a State in the Union that has 21.9 per cent. There are nine States with little more than 2 per cent illiteracy and eleven States with more than 10 per cent. There are numerous counties in the United States that have a fraction of 1 per cent illiteracy, and there are 56 counties that have more than 30 per cent and 110 counties that have more than 25 per cent. Yes, and there are counties in the United States with more than 50 per cent illiteracy.

In the most illiterate sections of the United States conditions approach the barbaric. Marriage has no sanctity whatever, and commerce is carried on through trade and barter, as when America was roamed over by savage Indians. In these densely illiterate communities the currency of the country is an unknown medium of exchange, neither silver, gold nor paper money being used anywhere in the locality. It is needless to add that in a section where even the currency of the country does not circulate, none of its progressive or helpful ideas can flow or will be adopted.

Quantities of illiteracy statistics in detail and of other information have been supplied to people all over the United States, as well as actual suggestions for organizing campaigns and methods of reaching and teaching illiterate adults, necessitating the maintaining of an office devoted to the commission's work where voluminous correspondence is carried on, much of which has been given personal attention by the chairman.

To arouse the American people, your commission has resorted to the following:

The Governors of all the States have been asked to refer to illiteracy and its evils in their inaugural addresses and to include in their messages to the Legislature measures of relief for adult illiterates.

The National and State Commanders of American Legion have been asked to dwell on the subject of illiteracy in all their public addresses; the Women's Clubs throughout the United States have been requested to devote one session on their programs to illiteracy; State Press Associations have been asked to have one address on illiteracy on their annual programs; every

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State Teachers' Association has been requested to make one session of their annual meeting an illiteracy session.

Believing illiteracy conferences to be one of the most practical and far-reaching plans for arousing the public, your commission has organized and directed two National Illiteracy Conferences, one international and six regional illiteracy conferences since its last report. The National Illiteracy Conference at Des Moines sent its influence throughout the country and to it can be traced directly increased activity against illiteracy in a number of the States, besides the initiation of our illiteracy program in some. The six regional conferences held in the following places: New York City, San Francisco, Chicago, Birmingham, Little Rock and Detroit, were conferences not of school people only, but of the whole people of the section. Ministers of the gospel, legislators, club women, American Legion men and others were brought into the Conference on an equal footing with teachers and school officials to share the responsibility equally for the illiterates. So far as can be ascertained, these were the first educational conferences in which the laymen had an equal share with the school people.

The purposes of the illiteracy conferences were: (1) To enlighten the public, (2) to intensify interest, (3) to inspire leaders, (4) to compare results, (5) to unify efforts and methods, and (6) to bring about legislative action.

These purposes have been written large in the results. Columns of newspaper publicity decrying illiteracy filled the newspapers of each section where illiteracy conferences were held, both preceding and following the conferences as well as during the sessions. Adult illiteracy is a source of fruitful publicity and all newspaper men are sensible to its appeal, but they are also sensible to the fact that it takes action, coupled with conditions, to make good reading. In these illiteracy conferences we have supplied the action and the most generous publicity has followed: publicity that will be helpful for years to come not only in the illiteracy crusade, but in the entire American school program.

The Governors of the various States have been asked by your commission to appoint delegates to the illiteracy conferences. This not only gave official standing to the delegates, but called attention to the chief officials of the forty-eight States to illiteracy and the National Education Association's active opposition to the evil.

In the illiteracy conferences held by this commission, not only has illiteracy been studied and discussed in its many phases—but the ideal—no illiteracy in county, State, or Nation—has been set up, and out of these conferences has come the slogan: "No illiteracy in the United States in 1930." This slogan has been voted on and adopted in the last four conferences. It indicates clearly the American spirit and the attitude of the American people on illiteracy—their faith that it can be speedily eradicated and their determination to do the job without a long and disheartening delay. Moreover, the press has accepted this slogan through both its news and editorial columns, has given it added weight without once questioning the possibility of its achievement.

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If your commission has been able to do nothing more than to furnish the stage for the setting up of the ideal, it would not feel that its labors had been in vain. The acceptance of such an ideal is not always so universal or so ready. It must be remembered that the idea of teaching adult illiterates met with a stubborn resistance in many quarters in the beginning of the illiteracy crusade, and the time is not far in the distant past when many educated people were inclined to educate only those under a certain age.

The outlook for the education of all illiterates in America is distinctly hopeful, and the struggle for universal education sees victory in sight. The barriers of race, sex, class, religion and age have been torn down one by one. In some southern States there was a time when the statutes expressly forbade teaching a negro to read or write. The doors of most institutions of learning in America were once closed to women, and one of the proudest State universities barred them until the year 1916.

The working classes came into their heritage of education only after the barrier of class was removed. David Gilbert, president of the Royal Society of London from 1821 to 1830, voiced the opposition to the education of working classes in these words:

> However spacious in theory the project might be of giving education to the laboring classes, it would be found in effect to be prejudicial to their morals and happiness and would teach them to despise their lot in life, instead of making them good servants in agriculture and other laborious employments to which their rank in life has destined them, instead of teaching them subordination, it would render them facetious and refractory, as was evident in the manufacturing countries; it would enable them to read seditious pamphlets, vicious books and publications against illiteracy; it would render them insolent to their superiors; and in a few years the result would be that the legislature would find it necessary to direct the strong arm of power toward them and to furnish the executive magistrate with more vigorous laws than were in force.

The barrier of religion has barred Jews and others from certain educational institutions. All of these barriers have been removed one by one, and the barrier of age, the remaining one, is slowly giving away. The schools have existed for the children, the curriculum was planned for the children, and classes were conducted for the children only. No provision was made originally in the State school system for the education of adults. It has been the privilege of your commission to point out the weakness and the sin of barring any individual because of age. In the first place, it must be remembered that of the five million illiterates in this country, four million are under 55 years of age and, therefore, may have years to live and much to contribute to the Nation's progress; but of those over 60 none need despair, for, in a recent investigation, it was found that of 400 illustrious persons, only 24 per cent achieved before they were 60, while 36 per cent achieved after 60.

The potential power of these millions of illiterate citizens, if that power were trained and utilized for America's upbuilding, is beyond one's ability to estimate. Among these millions there are unquestionably some persons of genius. "The philosopher, the saint or the hero, the wise, the good or the

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great man very often lies concealed in a plebian which a proper education might have disinterred and brought to light," said Addison.

Were there no more than one person of genius in the illiterate masses and were he a Burbank, an Edison, a Booker T. Washington, or a Lincoln, could the Nation purchase his freedom from illiteracy even though it cost ten billions of dollars, it would be cheap at the price.

FINAL REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON RURAL EDUCATION

JOHN F. SIMS, PRESIDENT, STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, STEVENS POINT WISCONSIN, CHAIRMAN

The committee was authorized by the annual meeting at New York City, 1916, and the following were appointed as members:

* James Y. Joyner, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Raleigh, North Carolina, chairman.

J. F. Sims, president, State Normal School, Stevens Point, Wisconsin.

Neil C. MacDonald, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Bismarck, North Dakota.

Adelaide Steele Baylor, State Supervisor of Household Arts, Indianapolis, Indiana.

* George L. Towne, Editor, Nebraska Teacher, Lincoln, Nebraska.

** George B. Cook, former State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Little Rock, Arkansas.

Josephine Corliss Preston, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Olympia, Washington.

* Resigned. ** Deceased.

Later the committee was reorganized, the present membership being:

John F. Sims, President of the State Normal School, Stevens Point, Wisconsin. Chairman, Teacher Training and Rural Demonstration Schools.

Carter Alexander, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City, Arousing Sentiment for Better Rural Schools.

Sam A. Baker, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Jefferson City, Missouri, Certification.

Adelaide Steele Baylor, Federal Agent for Home Economics, Washington, D. C., Consolidation.

Samuel S. Brooks, District Superintendent of Schools, Silver Lake, New Hampshire, Tests and Measurements.

Mary Campbell, State Teachers College, Cedar Falls, Iowa, Rural Community Recreation and Social Life.

Fred D. Cram, State Teachers College, Cedar Falls, Iowa, Tests and Measurements.

Harold W. Foght, President of the Northern Normal and Industrial School, Aberdeen, South Dakota, Rural School Curriculum.

Linnaeus N. Hines, President of the State Normal School, Terre Haute, Indiana, A More Effective Administration and Taxing Unit.

Edith A. Lathrop, U. S. Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C., Standardization of Rural Schools.

N. C. McDonald, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio, Administration and Supervision of Rural Schools.

John C. Muerman, U. S. Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C., Consolidation.

O. W. Neale, State Normal School, Stevens Point, Wisconsin, Rural Community Recreation and Social Life

Josephine C. Preston, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Olympia, Washington, Rural Health and Sanitation.

George S. Dick, Rural School Inspector, Madison, Wisconsin, Arousing Sentiment for Better Rural Schools.

No issue today bulks larger in the public consciousness than the problem of rural education. It is a problem that vitally concerns the city as well as the country. For the first time in our history, according to the census of 1920, is revealed an excess of urban over rural population. A century ago, four

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rural families provided food for themselves and one urban family, while today, one rural family must feed itself and two urban families.

In the rural communities there is found nearly one half of the school population of the country. As compared with the best urban conditions the rural children are taught by undertrained, immature, inexperienced, and relatively underpaid teachers, working under inadequate supervision. The schools are open fewer days in the school year; the buildings are poor—often insanitary. They are not provided with suitable textbooks, library books, and are not equipped with the necessary school apparatus and teaching materials. The rural children are not given the same fair educational chance in this land of the free and home of the brave as their city cousins.

This committee believes that the means employed to shape rural children to the mould of manhood and womanhood should be the full equivalent of those provided for children in the most favored urban communities. This ideal has been stressed, and hopefully the findings of the committee will lead to the creation of right conditions among the rural people, so that equality of educational opportunity will obtain for all of the children of America, rural as well as urban.

The chairman takes this opportunity to thank the members of the committee for their courtesy and coöperation in the construction of this final report. He acknowledges a debt of gratitude to Professors O. W. Neale, J. E. Delzell, W. A. Clark, H. R. Steiner, and E. T. Smith of the faculty of the Stevens Point Normal for valuable assistance in organizing the report in its present form.

JOHN F. SIMS, *Chairman*

STEVENS POINT, WISCONSIN
May 25, 1923

PUBLICITY FOR RURAL EDUCATION

CARTER ALEXANDER, TEACHERS COLLEGE, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY
NEW YORK CITY

BIRDSEYE OUTLINE

I. Who are the persons that actually decide the amount of support for rural schools?
II. What are their chief characteristics that must be considered if such support is to be secured?
III. What are the appeals that will influence them favorably?
    1. Direct appeals.
    2. Their chief objections and offsets to same.
IV. How to present the appeals successfully.
V. Good examples and descriptions of successful appeals or campaigns for better school support in rural communities.
VI. Bibliography of sources and suggestions for material and its presentation.

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OUTLINE IN DETAIL

I. WHO ARE THE PERSONS ACTUALLY DECIDING THE AMOUNT OF SUPPORT FOR RURAL SCHOOLS

1. On government side:

(a) Rural voters if a constitutional provision must be changed. City voters not likely to object for their school tax rates as determined by constitutional provisions are always in practice considerably higher than for rural districts.

(b) State through legislature:

(1) City members (Cities in most States raise much more State school revenue proportionately than do the rural districts).

(2) Rural members.

(3) Members under influence of corporations that are opposed to increases in taxes of any kind.

(c) County or supervisory district (in some States this is important):

(1) Governing officials in some kind of a general board, or board of school officials.

(2) County superintendent or other head of the county educational system.

NOTE—Where there is no county system, the county superintendent may still have great influence on local school district tax votes.

(d) Local districts:

The voters.

NOTES—In practically every example here the voters back home really determine things. From a political standpoint, if enough rural voters really want increased State school revenues, governing officials and voters in other districts will not seriously oppose.

2. Men and Women:

In most rural school areas men have much more to say about increases in school revenue than do the women. Women are relatively much more influential in city school systems.

3. Children (these have much less influence on the decision than in cities):

(a) Are much younger and hence not respected for their opinions. The boys and girls of high school age often have nothing provided in the rural schools and hence are not aroused for getting more money for them. The young people of 18 to 20 that are often attracted to city schools with gymnasia and social center work, have nothing to attract them in many rural school districts.

(b) They are not aroused to need of more money for their schools as are city children by their teachers. Rural teachers too young, timid, isolated, and lacking in leadership to arouse people to need of spending more money for schools as do the superintendent and more experienced teachers in city schools who can get more courage and effectiveness because they work together.

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4. Owners and tenants:

(a) Owner on his farm, interested in local school, especially if he has children in school.

(b) Owner living at a distance (absentee landlordism) very likely has his own children or any in whom he may be interested, in some other school district. He is then interested in good schools for his tenant only as a better rural school will bring him a better tenant and so make more money for him. As Governor Hyde, of Missouri, says: "The only farmers who will submit to the poor one-room school are those who are too poor to get away from it."

(c) Renters:

Do they usually have more children of school age than owners?

NOTE—Owners are much more important than renters for deciding increases in school revenues. An owner of "the retired farmer" class is generally hopeless when it comes to asking for any increase in taxes for any purpose on property of his.

5. "Moderns" and "old fogies":

The "moderns" are the younger voters, those who have been away to school and those who have fairly recently moved into the locality. The "old fogies" are older voters, those who have never been away where they could get new ideas, and the descendants of families that for several generations have been living in the locality.

6. People with children in school and those without:

Two entirely different classes, and must be appealed to with entirely different presentations. After a man's children get out of the rural school, will he in one case out of fifty continue to show anything like the concern for it that he did formerly?

7. Foreign language groups:

Often a small rural area will be composed of people using largely a foreign language.

There are nothing like so many instances of different foreign languages being found in one rural school as in a city school, but the racial differences within a county may easily prevent larger school support areas.

8. Whites and negroes:

This is of course a distinction found in the southern States which require separate schools for the two races. It is, however, a distinction found in northern States unofficially whenever the negro children become sufficiently numerous. They do not frequently go into rural districts in the north, however.

9. Private and parochial school interests:

Private schools exist in rural areas mainly to afford secondary education. Parochial schools, for elementary schooling. These are usually (?) in groups using foreign languages.

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10. Individuals or organizations:

(a) Farmers probably much more individualistic than city people but still can be reached through their organizations if leaders of these can be convinced.

List of such organizations?

To which do women belong and work actively in?

(b) Foreign language groups easily reached if leaders converted.

(c) In many very small districts there are *factions* that will vote as their leaders do.

(d) In cities, organizations are usually co-terminous with fiscal units consequently their leaders if convinced can work directly for increased school revenues. But in the case of rural schools, organizations of farmers are seldom co-terminous with the school fiscal unit.

11. Need for other descriptions by sections of States, States, or other areas.

II. WHAT ARE THE CHIEF CHARACTERISTICS OF THE PERSONS WHO ACTUALLY DECIDE THE AMOUNT OF SUPPORT RURAL SCHOOLS SECURE?

NOTE—This list of characteristics aims to include those normally to be experienced; in certain places the opposite may be found, or at any rate marked variation on certain items. It is probably safe to say that the characteristics here given ought to be expected in any rural population until evidence to the contrary has been secured.

1. Intense conservatism:

(a) Actual hostility to new ideas often found.

(b) Politicians who have secured the farmer vote usually count on keeping it unless some unforeseen economic crisis comes.

(c) The only rural populations who do not exhibit this conservatism are those living where all have moved in recently, as in an irrigation project; where a land company is trying to attract settlers or outside purchasers; or where there is an economic crisis as in west central States.

NOTE—Very little in all probability can be done to remove or render less harmful, this characteristic. It determines, though, that educational campaigns or movements for better schools, including better support, must count on going much more slowly in rural than in city districts.

2. In many States the rural areas contain the least intelligent, the least informed and the most backward groups in the population:

(a) Very narrow, provincial in their information and views.

(b) Greatest illiteracy in rural districts.

(c) They probably read less except local news, agricultural papers and women's magazines.

(d) Army tests at Camp Taylor showed rural recruits from Southern Illinois, Southern Indiana, Kentucky, markedly below those from Indianapolis in general intelligence, freedom from tuberculosis and feeblemindedness.

(e) In the South, the negroes with their lower general intelligence are mainly in the rural regions.

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(f) In rural regions foreign language groups are almost hopelessly isolated.

NOTE—This means that the rural areas on the whole contain the population of the State that knows least about the value of schools and is least qualified to pass upon any question connected with them, support or anything else.

3. Intense individualism:

(a) Where the men own their land, there is great independence of thought and action.

(b) Personal jealousies and feuds worse than cities. In cities people can choose friends and associates because of common tastes. In rural districts, people have to take immediate neighbors, or do without human associations.

(c) Because of isolation, narrow outlook and lack of experience and information, there is a great clinging to local rights. Small district and one-room school because they have always had their "right."

(d) Probably much less following of leaders than in cities.

4. It is unusually difficult for farmers to understand school financing on a large or modern scale:

(a) Nature of their work and life with comparatively less cash used than any place also makes it difficult for them to conceive of the funds necessary to run public affairs.

(b) Probably more averse than any group to paying taxes because their property in most States cannot be hidden and they must pay taxes in cash when many of their transactions are on a trade or barter basis. Easier to get a child to bring two chickens and a cake to a rural school party than to get a quarter in cash.

(c) A common place among politicians that the rural vote is always to be secured on an economy platform or one of reduction of taxes for farmers and putting the burdens on the corporations and money interests.

(d) At the same time, this may be largely because of ignorance of how to appeal to farmers. The mail order houses do a tremendous business in cash with farmers, although a leading mail order manager recently said it was a very uneconomic way of doing business.

5. Farmers are harder than city people to convince that school education will prepare children to earn a living any better:

(a) In rural life the schooling familiar to the farmers with the young and inexperienced teachers, manifestly is much less efficient in this field than are the homes, the work on the farms, etc.

(b) The economic value of elementary schooling in that it enables graduates to go on to high school and then to various professions and careers, appeals much less to farmers than to city people. Farmers well understand that giving their children a good school education often means sending the young people away for life, while denying them an education may keep them living on the farms. With unfortunately a large element of farmers, this knowledge arouses antagonisms to better schools.

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6. Rural populations must be approached more by word of mouth and by personal contacts than through print. More so than in case of city people:

(a) Less literacy.

(b) Less reading.

(c) Foreign language groups probably never get a chance to read anything *modern* about *public* schools.

III. SUCCESSFUL APPEALS TO RURAL VOTERS FOR BETTER SCHOOL SUPPORT

1. Direct appeals:

(a) A good publicity man endeavoring to secure better rural school support would prepare for direct appeals and for handling objections.

(b) Appeal should be made to the strongest motives.

(c) The writer in coöperation with the rural education department of Teachers College, New York, through the aid and approval of Professor Mabel Carney, and the assistance of six students formulated nineteen motives.

(d) These were submitted to 86 men and women divided into two classes, who had successful experience in getting more money for rural schools for ranking weight. The first class consisted of sixty persons of at least rural high school or county-wide experience in 17 States, and the second of twenty-six persons of at least State-wide experience in 17 States and familiar with rural conditions in many other States.

(e) The checking lists follow—Check List I—Relative Strengths of the Motives that Influence People to Vote More Money for Rural Schools.

RELATIVE STRENGTHS OF THE MOTIVES THAT, BY AND LARGE, INFLUENCE PEOPLE TO VOTE MORE SUPPORT FOR RURAL SCHOOLS

List I. As determined by the rankings of 60 successful workers of at least rural high school or county-wide experience in 17 States:

1. To give one's children as good a chance in life as any children get.
2. To give children a better education than their parents had.
3. By making farm life more attractive through good schools children may be induced to stay on the farm.
4. To give children an easier time than their parents had.
5. To give children something of value which cannot be taken from them.
6. To enable the community to have as good a school as some other particular school.
7. Good schools will bring a better class of farmers to the neighborhood and so give one's children better associates.
8. In the case of a rural high school, children can go to it from home, thus escaping possible moral dangers of boarding in town.
9. Farm property will increase in value because of good schools.
10. Increases will enable the district to have the best school in its class or region.

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11. By having a good rural high school, children can stay at home longer and be a greater comfort to their parents.

12. The increase is not so heavy as it appears at first thought.

13. The increase will bring much more State school aid of which the cities will pay the bulk.

14. The results claimed to be possible under the increases have actually been secured in real schools by similar expenditures and these schools can be visited and observed by the farmers or their representatives.

15. Educational authorities, such as members of the State Department, the State University, a Normal School or the County Superintendent, say the expenditures are needed and for the given amounts.

16. To give the children of other people in the country as good a chance as the city children have.

17. A community center for neighborhood enjoyment can be created by spending more money, especially through a consolidation project.

18. Expenditures for public schools are the one public expenditure that cannot be withheld at one time and later made up; a citizen voting such expenditures down does so at his own and the country's peril.

19. It is good politics always to support increased expenditures for rural schools, when such are shown to be needed and there is reasonable assurance that the money will be economically used.

List II. As determined by the rankings of 26 successful rural workers of at least State-wide experience in 17 States and familiar with rural conditions in many other States:

1. To give one's children as good a chance in life as any children get.

2. In the case of a rural high school, children can go to it from home, thus avoiding possible moral dangers of boarding in town.

3. By having a good rural high school, children can stay at home longer and be a greater comfort to their parents.

4. To give children a better education than their parents had.

5. To give children something of value which cannot be taken from them.

6. By making farm life more attractive through good schools, children may be induced to stay on the farm.

7. Good schools will bring a better class of farmers to the neighborhood and so give one's children better associates.

8. To give the children of other people in the country as good a chance as city children have.

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19. It is good politics always to support increased expenditures for rural schools, when such are shown to be needed and there is reasonable assurance that the money will be economically used.

2. Objections:

All experience in city campaigns for increased school support and in commercial salesmanship as well, suggests the need of determining for any rural situation, the probable objections to the increase. Then offsets to these obections should be ready. In salesmanship an objection is counted a sign of interest. The salesman's business is to transform the energy signified by the objection so that it flows in the direction of his proposition rather than against it. Lack of space forbids the presentation of the complete list of common objections and their offsets formulated by the group. The following samples will give the idea:

1. Objection. The old rural school was good enough for my father and for me, so it is good enough for my children.

Offset. Have other farmers offset this by calling attention to the changes in farm machinery, roads, autos, etc., and ask if the children also are not entitled to better things and ones that cost more.

2. Objection. Let those wanting high-school education for rural children pay for it themselves.

Offset. Show that this is un-American and make an emotional appeal for a square deal and an equal chance for the country child with the city child.

IV. HOW TO PRESENT THE APPEALS SUCCESSFULLY

1. For a particular situation, determine exactly who will decide the amount of support for the rural schools concerned, using the list given in Section I.

2. List these groups in order of importance for their ability to secure the desired increase in school support.

3. Get clearly in mind the characteristics of each important group that must be taken into account if increased school support is to be secured, using the notes in Section II.

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4. Select the better of the lists of motives in Section III, taking the ones that will apply to the situation in the order of their strength, and decide first which of these will apply to the various groups or individuals to be influenced favorably. Remember that these motives apply to the rural population in general. They may not apply without change to a particular situation and hardly universally to all the groups in such situation.

5. It is probably well to count on using all the motives somewhere in the campaign so as to be sure of reaching all possible voters.

6. List the principal objections likely to be raised by the various groups, with the probably successful offsets.

7. Expect that in general it will take a long time to secure favorable action on any marked changes in organization or increases in rural school support. It is best to plan for five and ten year periods at least.

8. Decide whether it is better to make an open campaign or to have things settled by a quiet conference with a few leaders. The latter procedure may work easily with slight innovations or with something that the people cannot take back, as for instance a building that is once erected, but in the long run frank and open publicity is preferable for most things.

9. Much personal work is advisable, especially for securing the early support of leaders and for avoiding unnecessary antagonisms.

10. Do not expect too much from reading matter.

11. Create the desire for better schools and discuss increases in costs later. Farmers in private life spend their money, and in public affairs vote taxes, for anything they sufficiently desire.

12. The material intended for any group must of course be adapted to that particular group. Employ illustrations and language that will appeal to its members, and be presented by those personally acceptable to the group.

13. Farmers care little or nothing for per capita costs. They wish to know what the improvement will cost the district as a whole or them individually.

14. In many places it will be necessary to show clearly that there is no hope of materially bettering the rural schools until a larger administrative unit as the consolidated district or the county unit is secured.

V-VI. EXAMPLES OF SUCCESSFUL APPEALS FOR BETTER RURAL SCHOOL SUPPORT

1. *Journal of the National Education Association*, Education Division of International Harvester Co., *School Life* published by U. S. Bureau of Education, State departments of education, secretaries of State teachers' associations. See also Alexander's "School Statistics and Publicity," Publicity Campaigns for Better School Support, by Alexander and Theisen.

2. Rural-school leaders must be masters of the effective use of publicity measures. Guesses, half-baked ideas, or biases about publicity methods will not answer for accurate and stimulating knowledge and the practice of them.

3. Apply these methods so mastered energetically and enthusiastically.

This valuable article is printed in full in the January, 1923, number of the *Journal of Educational Research*.

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AROUSAL OF INTEREST ON THE PART OF THE PEOPLE IN THEIR OWN SCHOOLS

GEORGE S. DICK, DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION
MADISON, WISCONSIN

1. The farmer is interested most in what yields greatest returns in *profit* and *pleasure* in proportion to the expenditure of time, energy, and money. His interest has been aroused and his action secured along the lines of more scientific farming. The ideas of pure bred stock, fertilizing the soil, certified seed rotation of crops, diversity of crops and farm operations, more scientific marketing, and wiser expenditure and investment of his earnings have been sold to him by experts in agriculture.

2. Better schools must be sold to him on the same basis. Better schools mean better teachers and consequently more generous support to teacher training institutions, which should pride themselves on quality rather than quantity of output. The people must be shown that the moneys raised by taxation are judiciously expended and yield returns in a harvest of better citizenship. Rural education must keep pace with improved farms in order that the State may hold the same rank educationally that it does agriculturally or industrially.

3. A campaign of Education is imperative in order to show:

(a) The far-reaching influences and results of a real school upon the children and the community.

(b) The need of changing the laws to improve school organization, management, and instruction through the county unit system, consolidated and rural high schools.

(c) A vision of what may be accomplished by such changes.

4. This campaign must be Nation-wide and in each State it must be sponsored, initiated, and made dynamically active by the State department of public instruction in coöperation with the university, the normal schools, county training schools, city and county superintendents, and all who are vitually interested in the improvement of rural education.

5. Not only during Good School Week, but all through the year must inspirational, educational addresses be made to the people in school houses, in community meetings, at fairs, picnics, farmers meetings, school board conventions, parent-teachers' meetings, as well as in addresses to graduating classes of rural, State graded high schools, county training schools, normal schools, colleges, and the university. The message of uplift winged with enthusiasm ought to reach every community, every school, every home, every child, to the ends that interest and faith in the people's schools increase; that the service of this free public institution grows more and more effective; and that it wins a more generous support financially and spiritually.

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THE MOST EFFECTIVE ADMINISTRATIVE AND TAXING UNIT

LINNAEUS N. HINES, PRESIDENT, STATE NORMAL SCHOOLS
TERRE HAUTE AND MUNCIE, INDIANA

A. *Scope of field*—The problems involved in a discussion of the topic given above cover the entire Nation. There are practically no school corporations that are supplied with enough funds to do all the work they ought to do, and there are many thousands of school corporations that do not have adequate supervision and administration. Those who have given much thought to finance and administration agree that there is a wide field for improvement throughout the land. District township administration should make way for county administration and, in some regards, county administration should make way for State administration. Further there is strong belief that the Nation should take a hand in the administration and financing, to some extent, of local school systems.

The questions at issue involve every phase of the welfare of the schools; where there is more money there can be better teachers, better buildings, better equipment and better administration. These improvements, of course, involve questions as to the improving of every phase of school work from one end of the country to the other.

As to the importance of the topic, there can be no question whatever. Where tens of millions of dollars go into unimportant activities of the people only thousands go into the maintenance and development of the schools. If we are to cease being a Nation of sixth-graders, then heroic efforts in finance and administration must be made in order to get the improvements we ought to have.

B. *Present conditions*—The present taxing units range all the way from the School District to the State. There are no National taxes for education as such. In the vast majority of cases the taxing units are far too small. These units vary in their wealth all the way from a few scores of thousands of dollars to billions of dollars. There can be no uniformity of excellence of the schools under any such conditions.

The present administrative units vary as much in size and importance as do the taxing units. The most hopeless of these administrative units are the small independent districts where ignorant and provincial school officials in many cases control the local schools. Next to these district administrative units, we have the township unit with its sad record of inefficiency and low standards. The county unit follows next in order, a unit that is being urged in many States as an agency for curing the evils of the local schools. The county unit has its advantages and, if properly developed, can be of great service. Next to the county unit comes the State administration of schools. Few would advocate entire State control of local schools, but in many States laws need to be passed to give the State school governments greater power to help the local school corporations realize the best things possible. We have no real National administrative unit due to lack of legislation, funds and high ideals.

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The tendencies in this situation, so far as these tendencies can be observed, are toward enlarging the taxing and administrative units throughout the Nation. Every encouragement should be given to those legislators and school people that believe improvement lies in the direction of enlarging both the taxing and administrative units.

C. *Unsatisfactory conditions*—

1. Insufficient income.
2. Provincial attitudes toward education.
3. Inadequate leadership.
4. Low school taxes.
5. Makeshift system of raising school revenue.
6. Poor schools.
7. Lack of a National policy in regard to education.
8. Inequalities of opportunity for education in State systems.

D. *Measures recommended*—

1. National revenue for education.
2. Strong Federal Bureau of Education.
3. Most of local school revenue to come from State sources.
4. Strong county and State administration of education.
5. Abolishing, to a large extent, local control and financing of schools.

E. *State and National legislation needed*—

1. Necessity for greater interest in education on part of law-makers.
2. Providing added revenues as rewards or bonuses to those communities that make progress.
3. Extermination of weak and inefficient rural and village schools as well as city schools.
4. General bolstering-up of the whole system of education.
5. Federal legislation along the lines of education so that the Nation can be of greater assistance to State and local systems.

Rural schools not supported—One half are allowed less than $1000 a year. President George L. Towne, of the University Publishing Company, Lincoln, Nebraska, says that rural schools are "being literally starved to death. They are manned by inefficient teachers, are housed in hopelessly bad buildings; are criminal in heating and ventilation, and inadequate to the last degree in equipment, textbooks and necessary supplies."

President Towne has made a study of financing the rural schools, and he has reached the conclusion that inadequate funds are the greatest difficulty with which they have to contend. President Towne's figures indicate that about one half of all our schools have less than $1000 a year to spend for all purposes. Taking typical counties in several States the following facts as to financial support are shown:

NEBRASKA

Typical county in most prosperous section of State (York).	
Total number of schools in county	103
Number spending less than $1000 a year	70
Smallest amount spent for nine months' schooling of 18 pupils.	$310.00
Largest amount spent for one teacher school, giving eight months' schooling to 47 pupils	1350.00

Nebraska County—Lowest levy, 3 mills; highest levy, 64 mills.

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WASHINGTON

Typical county in richest section of State (Lincoln).	
Total number of schools in county	130
Number spending less than $1000 a year	53
Smallest amount spent for school of six pupils	$386.00
Largest amount spent for one-teacher school of 35 pupils	2037.00
Washington County—Lowest levy, 2 mills; highest levy, 20 mills.	

Low levies general—These low levies are not exceptions, Mr. Towne says. There are many like them or only slightly higher. Neither are the high levies exceptions. In the Nebraska county there are 24 districts levying 20 or more mills. There are two levying above sixty, one above fifty, and several above forty. These are not the highest in the State. The city of Lincoln levies eighty mills and several cities levy close to 100 mills, which is the maximum allowed by State law. These facts lead Mr. Towne to conclude that most rural districts are not paying anywhere near what they can afford to pay for a good school.

"Is there any reason" asked Mr. Towne, "why country people cannot pay as high a tax rate as the people in the neighboring towns and cities? Do farmers spend less on the average for other things? On the average it would seem that their standard of living is higher than that of town and city people. They also spend as much for luxuries, expecially the automobile.

"What is the reason for the low amount spent for schools in the rural district? Is it not fair to assume that the reason lies in the school itself? The one-room rural school is a poor school. Country people are paying all it is worth. In some cases they are paying more than it is worth—much more. Offer the farmer a better school and prove to him that it is better for his children and he willingly pays more money for it. The proof of this is shown by the consolidated schools already established. These are usually good schools. They cost as much as good schools in town. But they are paid for willingly. This is also evident where the county and township unit school districts have been established. The better schools that have followed have been willingly paid for.

"It would seem fair, then, to conclude that adequate financial support can be secured for rural schools. The way is a campaign of merciless publicity. The patron of the poor, one-room school must be shown its inherent weakness. He must be shown what a good school is like and what a good school costs. He must see how little he is paying for the education of his children and be made ashamed of his parsimony."

Good schools pay—It is pointed out, for instance, that a farmer in York county, Nebraska, owning 160 acres of the best farm land in the world, worth approximately $32,000, is paying $30 each year for the education of his children, if the district levy is 5 mills; and $60, if the district levy is 10 mills. (The assessed valuation in Nebraska is one fifth the real value.) In the county seat town of York, in the same county, the man with property worth the same amount is paying $384 each year for the education of his children.

Mr. Towne says that the farmer must be made to face these facts: (1) His rural one-room school is not a good school; (2) the good school in the

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country, just as the good school in the town will cost much more money; (3) what the average farmer is now paying for the education of his children is shamefully inadequate; and (4) the farmer can have a good school for his children, but he can get it only by paying what a good school costs.

From facts for American Education Week published November, 1922, by the National Education Association are gleaned the following: First, that school money comes principally from local taxation. The State contributes one fifth while funds resulting from local taxation bring in about four fifths, but the burden of local taxation is constantly increasing, having risen from sixty eight per cent in 1890 to eighty four per cent in 1920. Second, local communities vary enormously in ability to provide schools. If the district is rich it usually provides for good schools; if it is poor the opposite is often the case. Whether the child attends a good school, poor school, or no school at all is therefore purely accidental.

The following are examples:

1. Baka County, of Colorado, has a taxable wealth per school child of $1822, while Park County has $22,674. To raise a certain amount per child requires twelve times as great a rate in Baka County as in Park County.

2. In a single county of Colorado, Conejos, District 29 has a taxable wealth of $617, while District 15 has $26,445. District 29 has to levy forty three times as great a tax as District 15, to raise a given amount of money per child.

These same conditions are reported for Pennsylvania, Massachusetts, Indiana, Iowa, Nebraska, New York and would be found true if an analysis were made of other States.

3. Because of these inequalities in school support children are penalized as revealed: First, in the survey of the schools of New York, among one thousand common school districts the annual expenditure per pupil varied from $20 to $189. Second, in Nebraska it is found that some districts expended twenty one cents a day per child, while other spend $2.55 a day, or twelve times as much. Third, in Alabama some counties, by taxing themselves to the limit are barely able to maintain a term of five months, even by paying salaries so small as to practically forbid that well-trained teachers be secured. Fourth, in Lowndes County, Alabama, the tax rate is three mills, and the average white teacher's salary is $607 with one hundred forty two days of school, while in Marion County, with a tax rate of eight mills (.008) the average white teacher's salary is $381 with a school term of ninety five days.

These facts and figures speak eloquently in favor of the larger unit of taxation, hopefully the County.

In a pamphlet issued by the U. S. Bureau of Education, March 31, 1921, the advantages of the County Unit are admirably summed up:

1. It tends to equalize educational opportunity by providing funds for each school according to its needs.

2. It tends to provide a school term of uniform length and school facilities of uniform grade throughout the county.

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3. It equalizes the burden of school support by providing an equitable tax rate for the whole county school district. Poor community and rich community are taxed the same number of mills, whereas the former pays the higher taxes under the district system.

4. It requires rich districts, such as those having large corporate wealth within their borders to bear their just share of public school support.

5. It promotes the consolidation of rural schools and consequent better grading, instruction, etc.

6. It tends to eliminate dissension over district boundary lines and petty neighborhood differences.

7. It permits the selection of the county superintendent by a county board solely on the basis of his training and professional fitness. This office may thus be removed from partisan politics.

8. It makes possible the employment of a suitable corps of assistants to the county superintendent and, in general, the maintenance of an efficient system of rural school supervision.

9. It provides better teachers, particularly for the poorer communities, and longer tenure for teachers.

10. It permits buying school supplies at wholesale prices.

11. It makes for economy and efficiency in the administration and maintenance of schools.

12. It is the most practical administrative unit for providing universal high school privileges.

CONSOLIDATION OF RURAL SCHOOLS

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U. S. BUREAU OF EDUCATION, WASHINGTON, D. C.

Introduction—The growth of consolidation of rural schools in the United States, within slightly less than a quarter of a century, has been one of the most remarkable phases of rural-school development. The somewhat chaotic and extravagant statements concerning the influence of consolidation, made in the earlier years of its achievement and the opinion prevailing among its supporters that there was something in the very organization itself, regardless of conditions under which it was accomplished that was potent for great good in rural education, have given way to a saner and more logical view of its place and purpose in rural-school education, a study of conditions under which to organize for consolidation, with best methods for success and how to meet them.

The report of this sub-committee on Consolidation of Rural Schools includes: (1) A brief survey of the growth of consolidation in the United States in the last twenty two years, with some estimate of its value, in these periods, in the promotion of rural education; (2) methods of organizing for consolidation in various sections of the country; (3) difficulties in the way

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of consolidation and analysis of one of the major difficulties—transportation; (4) a few notable achievements in the field of consolidation; (5) recommendations for securing effective consolidation.

Growth of consolidation in the United States, 1902-1912 and 1912-1918 —In 1912, six years prior to the creation of the present Committee on Rural Education, an earlier committee on the same topic was appointed from the National Council of Education, whose findings were never published. As a member of this earlier Committee and chairman of a sub-committee on consolidation, the chairman of the present Sub-Committee undertook a study of consolidation through a series of questionnaires sent to each of the forty-eight States in the United States. Replies were received from three fourths of the States, together with special bulletins, papers, and description letters that came from thirteen States.

In order to have a basis on which the States might furnish statistics, a tentative definition of a consolidated school was submitted as follows:

"A Consolidated school is a school to which children may be transported at public expense from abandoned schools and which offers better facilities for their education than the abandoned school." But it was evident this defining statement was disregarded in furnishing data and each State compiled the information requested in terms of its own interpretation of a consolidated school.

The returns of this survey may be summed up as follows:

1. (a) In eight of these States the first steps toward consolidation were taken in the years 1900-1902; in eight, from 1905-1912; the "star" years for the initial steps in consolidation being 1900 and 1907. (b) In eleven States the work of consolidation was initiated by permissive law, in two by individual effort, in four by sentiment, and by provision for transportation, in one by efforts of State Teachers Association and in three by consolidation of weaker districts.

2. In seventeen of these States consolidation was very limited up to the year 1912, consisting of from one to twelve small consolidated districts. In two other States progress had been much more rapid, though in one of these, the seven hundred small schools abandoned were re-united in small groups of two or three, and in few cases were consolidated schools of several rooms built. In six of the States there had been almost phenomonal progress in consolidation. In two of these, four fifths of the townships furnished some transportation; in another some beginnings of consolidation had been made in every county; while in the remaining four States consolidation had affected practically every part of the State.

3 and 4. Such good results of consolidation as (1) "lessening of mortality in school life," (2) organizing of social centers; (3) maintaining of longer and better schools, (4) employment of more experienced and competent teachers, (5) building of better schoolhouses with better furnishings and equipment, (6) lengthening of the school term, (7) increasing the per cent of daily attendance and (8) creating local pride, were enumerated by many States.

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A few States in 1912 had not been able to observe any changes for the better through consolidation, such conditions as lack of unity in the large district, poor drivers, destruction of local interest, lax officials, long distance for transporting pupils, etc., having quite overcome any good effects from the new organization.

5 and 6. The obstacles to consolidation were found in (1) inability of local districts to let go of the little schools (6 States) (2) desire for a school in every community (7 States), (3) bad roads, long distances, and the uncertainty of the legality of furnishing transportation (4 States), misunderstanding of the law, depreciation of local property with fear of building up another neighborhood at the expense of their own.

7 and 8. The most successful methods for promoting consolidation when once initiated were (1) proper legislation, (2) permissive consolidation, (3) State aid for consolidation, (4) continued abandonment of small schools, especially when pupils were within walking distance of other schools, (5) propaganda for consolidation (6) improvement of roads and methods of transportation (7) observation of actual educational results.

9 and 10. Some States felt that consolidation was a logical step in rural school evolution wherever the law and good roads made it possible to unite the community, while others declared they were studying the problem with open minds but were more interested in two other problems; *i. e.,* (1) how to create rural schools that will readily serve the people and (2) how to advance public opinion in favor of such schools.

From one State came the reply that only reasonable, *never complete* consolidation would be possible unless rural school communities increase in population. From another the statement that the only real obstacles to consolidation in a State are the physical features.

The present sub-committee was organized in 1918, six years after the earlier study was made, with the same personnel, and again, as a division of a larger Committee on Rural Education the personnel of which with the exception of this sub-committee is new.

In resuming the investigation on consolidation a second questionnaire was sent out in 1919 to ascertain: (1) The increase in number of consolidated schools from 1912 to 1919; (2) effect of consolidation as compared with that from 1902 to 1922, upon (a) the per cent of pupils in rural schools completing the eighth grade, (b) per cent of those completing the eighth grade who enter high school (c) per cent of those completing high school who enter higher institutions of learning; (3) how consolidation of rural schools has affected the introduction into the curriculum of such subjects as music, art, manual training, household arts; (4) how consolidation of rural schools has affected the organization of vocational schools, departments, or classes in agriculture, trade and industry and home economics; (5) whether propaganda for consolidation of rural schools is still needed in the States; and (6) how consolidation would be ranked as a force working for the betterment of the rural school.

This questionnaire was sent to forty-eight States of which twenty-four responded. Of these twenty-four, four furnished no statements or statistics

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whatever. Four New England States had union schools but not consolidation in the way the West interprets the term. Connecticut had three or four hundred fewer one-room schools than it had ten years before. In Maine the school district had been abolished by law and the town or township was the smallest unit which makes for union schools. New Hampshire had union schools, Vermont had two or three consolidated schools and some union schools, but owing to the mountainous country the problem, because of transportation difficulties, was to bring the school closer to the home.

The consolidated school was unquestionably growing in favor through the South. Arkansas answered that with the coming of good roads consolidation would make great headway. Alabama was authorized by statute in 1915 to incur expense for transportation and since that time forty-eight of sixty-seven counties had some consolidation. Of the two hundred and eight consolidated schools one hundred and forty-one were in the open country, fifty-eight in rural villages and nine in cities and towns. Mississippi in 1902 had no consolidated schools, in 1912 there were two, and in 1919, three hundred and forty. North Carolina in 1902 had no consolidated schools, and in 1912 about three, and while there were no statistics available as to the number in July, 1919, data showed a steady decrease in the number of one-room schools in North Carolina. In South Carolina the 1918 report showed that during the year there was a gain of seventeen consolidated schools, the total number of joint districts being ninety-two. Texas had eighty-eight consolidated schools.

In the East, Rhode Island had long had consolidation. New York in 1902 had nine, but from 1913 to July, 1919 there had been two hundred and fifty-eight consolidated schools organized affecting five hundred and ninety-three districts.

In the West, Colorado in 1902 had none, in 1912, six, in 1919 thirty-eight. Idaho in 1919 had eighteen. Montana in 1902 had none, in 1912 two or three and in 1919 forty-two. In 1902 Washington had two consolidated schools while in July, 1919, it had two hundred and forty consolidated districts, fifty-four of which were organized in 1918-1920. All of the thirty-nine counties in Washington except two had these schools. California in 1919 had twenty-eight union grammar schools in seventeen different counties. In the central west Illinois had four or five, but as she was authorized July 1, 1917, to incur expenditures for transportation, it was anticipated the work would go rapidly forward.

It is interesting to note that the States of Arkansas, Alabama, Connecticut, Mississippi, New Hampshire, New Jersey, Rhode Island, Virginia, Washington, and Wyoming, offering no reports in 1912, were among the first to respond to the 1919 questionnaire.

Only one State was able to give the per cent of pupils in rural schools completing the eighth grade in 1918-1919, as separate statistics were not kept for rural schools. This State (Idaho) gave seventy-five per cent.

As to the per cent of grammar school graduates in rural communities entering high school, Idaho gave 12¾ per cent and Connecticut replied that four per cent of children entering high school came from towns not maintaining their own secondary schools.

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No replies were received as to the per cent of pupils from rural schools, completing the high school, who enter higher institutions of learning and none as to the extent to which any of these statistics have been influenced by the consolidation of rural schools.

It is probably true, however, that in certain localities in the different States some investigations of this kind were being carried on, but the materials were not on file in the State departments to which these questionnaires were addressed, for in Rural Leaflet No. 1, on School Consolidation and Rural Life, issued by the U. S. Bureau of Education we find the following:

The county superintendent of a progressive rural county in Ohio, who has observed the influence of the consolidated school on rural life for a number of years in that State, made a study of school enrolment extending over a period of six years in two distinctly rural townships, one with centralized and one with non-centralized schools. There are no towns in either township, and both are about equally distant from any town. He finds that in the case of the township with non-centralized schools the school enrolment has steadily decreased, the percentage of decrease for the five-year period being approximately 17 per cent. In the centralized township the enrolment during the same period has increased 24 per cent.

The county superintendent, who has been a resident of the county for many years, believes there is but one way to account for this loss and this gain in enrolment. The explanation is found in school conditions in the two districts; one holds the pupils in school, the other does not. In both townships there has been a slight and approximately equal decrease in percentage of total rural population. If the figures were brought up to 1920, the enrolment in the centralized township would be 124 in the non-centralized, 195; that is, during the seven-year period the one has gained 100 pupils, while the other has lost approximately the same number. The percentage in both cases is approximately 33 per cent, one representing a gain, the other a loss. The people will keep their children in school if they see benefits from the school, and they will not keep them in school if they do not.

In the centralized districts of the same county in Ohio the holding power of the schools is noticeable throughout the upper and especially in high-school grades. In rural schools one commonly finds a large enrolment in the primary grades, gradually decreasing in the grades beyond. In the one-room schools in this county it is found that the enrolment decreases in the upper primary grades, increases in the intermediate grades, and decreases again in the grammar grades. The increase in the intermediate grades in this case is due to failures caused by irregular attendance. In the one-room schools of the county 41 per cent of the boys in the fifth grade are over age. Many of these pupils, when they reach the compulsory age limit, drop out of the one-room schools, leaving a low enrolment in the grammar grades, while in the centralized districts of the county there is little falling off in attendance in the upper grades.

In the fall of 1920 of those completing the eighth grade in the consolidated schools 84 per cent entered high school. In the non-centralized township only 33 per cent entered high school, although there were high schools within 4 or 5 miles of every child. Indeed, the high school is one of the advantages of the centralized school. Pupils will enter if the high school is at the same place they are in the habit of attending throughout the grades. Many will drop off if new associations are to be formed, the school course to be completed in new surroundings, and transportation facilities lacking.

This is illustrated by a comparison of high-school enrolment in one of the other townships to which reference has been made before. In this township the number of pupils attending high school the year preceding centralization was 9; attendance at high-school the first year after centralization was 20; the second year, 30; the third year, 47; and the fourth year 52—a gain of 478 per cent in four years. Con-

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sidering the high-school enrolment for the whole county in which this township was located, there was an increase of 58 per cent in the six years immediately following consolidation.

Enrolment in the freshman year in the county shows a gain of 66 per cent during the same period. This represents an increase in the relation of freshman to total enrolment of from 3.7 per cent to 6.3 per cent. These years cover the war period, when high-school enrolment generally dropped off.

Colorado, Idaho, Montana, Mississippi, Pennsylvania, Virginia, Washington, and Wyoming claimed consolidation had greatly favored and encouraged the introduction into the curricula, of art, music, and manual training.

Alabama reported consolidation had aided agriculture when taken in conjunction with the Smith-Hughes Act. Colorado had found it helpful in the promotion of vocational subjects, as had Idaho. Mississippi had vocational education only in county agricultural schools and consolidated schools. Rhode Island had noticed no effect on vocational work while Virginia stated that consolidation had made it possible for her to accept the Smith-Hughes Act. Wyoming answered that it had greatly encouraged vocational education.

Alabama, Colorado, and North Carolina needed propaganda work, Connecticut, Montana, Maine, Mississippi, Rhode Island, Virginia, Vermont, Washington and Wyoming did not especially need it. Idaho would welcome it in some sections. Idaho, Virginia, Vermont, and Wyoming claimed transportation, due to the mountainous nature of the country, the chief obstacle to consolidation. Montana reported that a recent survey showed that half of the consolidated schools were not considered a success by teachers because of sparse population and bad roads.

North Carolina, Virginia, Washington, Idaho and Mississippi placed consolidation first in factors for rural school betterment, Colorado, Montana, New York, and Wyoming placed it among the foremost factors. Maine placed it second. Montana thought it ranked high where it was feasible, but that it was not feasible where distances were too great. Rhode Island did not think consolidation a significant factor, placing trained supervision first.

In this second inquiry no attempt was made to set up even a tentative definition for a consolidated school and each State responded according to its own interpretation of the term.

The difficulties apparent in an endeavor to define a Consolidated Rural School are very well set forth in a Rural School Circular under date of April 1, 1922, prepared by Edith A. Lathrop, specialist in rural education, and published by the U. S. Bureau of Education under the title, "What is a Consolidated Rural School?"

Miss Lathrop explains that this bulletin is the outcome of the following question received recently in the Rural School Division of the U. S. Bureau of Education:

Where may I secure accurate information on the number of consolidated schools in each State? By consolidation I mean a union of two or more districts offering high-school advantages and furnishing transportation.

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The Bureau could not supply the data asked for because no State has collected and tabulated information in conformity to the definition of consolidation given in the request. The Bureau could furnish the approximate number of consolidated schools in each State, but no statistics are available as to whether these consolidations are formed by the union of districts or of schools; whether high-school instruction is offered or transportation is furnished. The facts are that in most States the aggregate number of consolidated schools reported represents all types—from those with only two teachers to those maintaining a graded elementary school and a fully accredited high-school, and including those with and without transportation.

How to organize to bring about consolidation—For the summer meeting of the National Council of Education in 1920, the chairman of the full Committee on Rural Education requested a brief Round Table discussion from the sub-committee on Consolidation on "How to Organize for Consolidation." In preparing for this Round Table ten States were selected representing the various sections of the country; *i. e.*, (1) Indiana and Iowa (the Central East), (2) New York and Massachusetts (Eastern States), (3) Mississippi and North Carolina (Southern States, but remote from each other geographically), (4) North Dakota and Oklahoma (the North and South of the Middle West), (5) Washington and California (the North West and Middle Pacific Coast).

The results of this study showed Indiana and Iowa to be convinced that the best method of organizing to bring about consolidation is that of getting the people to believe in consolidation. Indiana had done this recently through the use of lantern slides. The State Department of Public Instruction has two lanterns with approximately one hundred and fifty slides to show buildings, equipment, etc. In Iowa the law itself is thoroughly democratic and no consolidation is attempted until town, village, and outlying communities want it. Over one sixth of the territory of that State was under consolidation, in 1920, over twenty-seven hundred one-room schools had been closed and the graduation of eighteen hundred boys and girls from the twelfth grade made possible. During the first twenty-nine days of March, 1920, thirty-three consolidations were effected in Iowa.

New York seemed to depend on an educational campaign which presents clearly and tactfully to the people of the community a real appreciation of the lack of educational opportunity they possess where consolidation is absent. Tactful coöperation rather than forceful methods was considered the best course in remote communities. Again much was accomplished through the influence of a community which had really done something worth while. A new method was just going into operation in New York whereby committees, appointed by rural organizations such as the Farm Bureau, Grange, and other related organizations were to make a special study during the summer of the educational conditions in the rural communities of the State and it was anticipated that one result of such a study would be the promotion of consolidation. In Massachusetts it was felt that the unit of administration (which is the town rather than the district) as well as the prevalence of cities and towns, aids consolidation. Geographical conditions in some places in the State seemed to offer insuperable obstacles, as the hill towns with sparse population, low valuation, and poor roads which interfere with

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proper transportation of children; nevertheless a recent inquiry shows that in two hundred and ninety-five, out of three hundred and four muni-

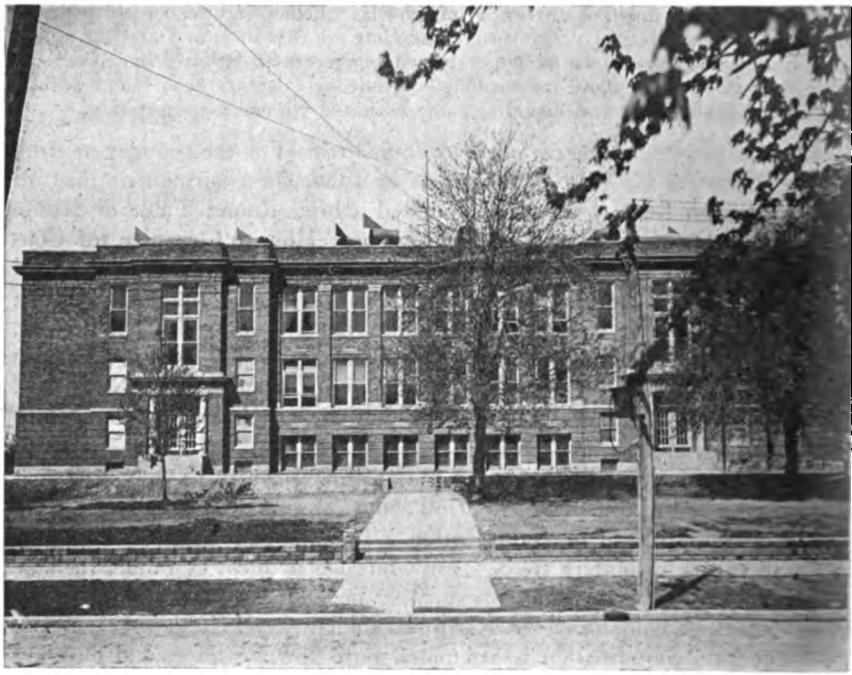


Fig. 1—*The Greentown Consolidated School, established in 1912, serves an area of 23 square miles. It cost $120,000 and has equipment worth $8000.*

In Indiana the Greentown Consolidated School was established by uniting seven districts, seven schools, and abandoning six small buildings. The area of the school grounds is one and two thirds acres, valued at $1000. The building cost $120,000 and contains equipment worth $8000. The total value of the school property is approximately $129,000.

The school building is equipped with special rooms for music, a library, physics, home economics, and manual training laboratories, a separate gymnasium, two rooms for shower baths, and a teachers' rest room. There is an auditorium that will seat 260 people.

The school is organized on the 6-6 plan. There are 254 pupils enrolled in the elementary school and 220 in the junior and senior high schools. Seven teachers are employed in the grades, ten in the high school.

Transportation has been carried on in the district for 10 years. There are four privately-owned motor-driven vehicles and three publicly owned horse-drawn vehicles, transporting approximately 150 children daily. Eight transportation routes are maintained and children are transported an average distance one way of four to five miles, taking from 20 to 30 minutes for the trip. The average cost per mile per child is from five to six cents. The district spends approximately $5000 a year for transportation.

The school carries on such community activities as lyceum courses, lantern slide entertainments, plays, and operettas.

cipalities ninety-six per cent of the teachers and ninety-seven and five tenths per cent of pupils were found in graded schools of two or more rooms.

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In North Carolina a round table of two or three leading citizens from each small community, who favored consolidation, was called together by the County Superintendent to go over the plan. If agreed upon they decided whether to put it to a vote of the people or let the County Board of Education make the decision alone. Either plan was permissible in the State. Public meetings addressed by a good speaker who stimulated and encouraged the supporters of consolidation, or public school debates affording opportunity for an intelligent discussion of the subject were also used. A county paper with a progressive editor, a live wire, was of great service to the

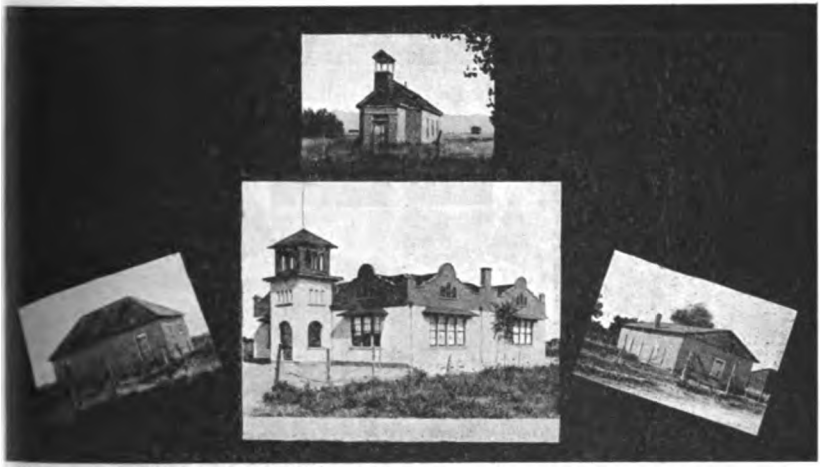


Fig. 2—*Griegos-Candelarias Consolidated School, showing abandoned schools.*

The Griegos-Candelarias Consolidated School, located in Bernalillo County, New Mexico, was established in 1915 by uniting Districts 2, 22, and 8 to form a larger District No. 22. This four-teacher school is the result of a six-year campaign. Children are here given instruction preparatory to entering the large central high school at Albuquerque. The central building is the consolidated school; the three smaller buildings were abandoned to make way for the larger one.

cause. Haste in attempting to organize the entire community in one year often proved disastrous. In Mississippi an effort was first made to secure on the part of the patrons, the united desire for consolidation, and then by petition the County Board of Education was advised of this desire. Public interest must be overhwelmingly for consilidation or it was postponed. The State Rural Supervisor on receipt of a letter from patrons in the County, in regard to consolidation, first took it up with the County Superintendent to secure his coöperation and then with him visited communities and attended meetings. The greatest difficulty here seemed to be the location of the building. With this in mind the approach had been made in two ways: (1) Convert the people to consolidation and then select site for building; (2) select site for building and let all arguments for consolidation hinge on that. The State Rural Supervisor of Mississippi wrote that he preferred the latter as the former method seemed to necessitate reconversion to consolidation after the building was located.

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North Dakota county superintendents arranged for a mass meeting with an outside speaker to explain consolidation whose talk was supplemented by that of the County Superintendent who discussed the local situation. Before and after the mass meeting those in the community interested in consolidation agitated for the change. Following the mass meeting an election was held. Oklahoma advised that the County Superintendent be first converted and then the people in his several school districts. The community unit was regarded as more favorable to consolidation than the district unit.

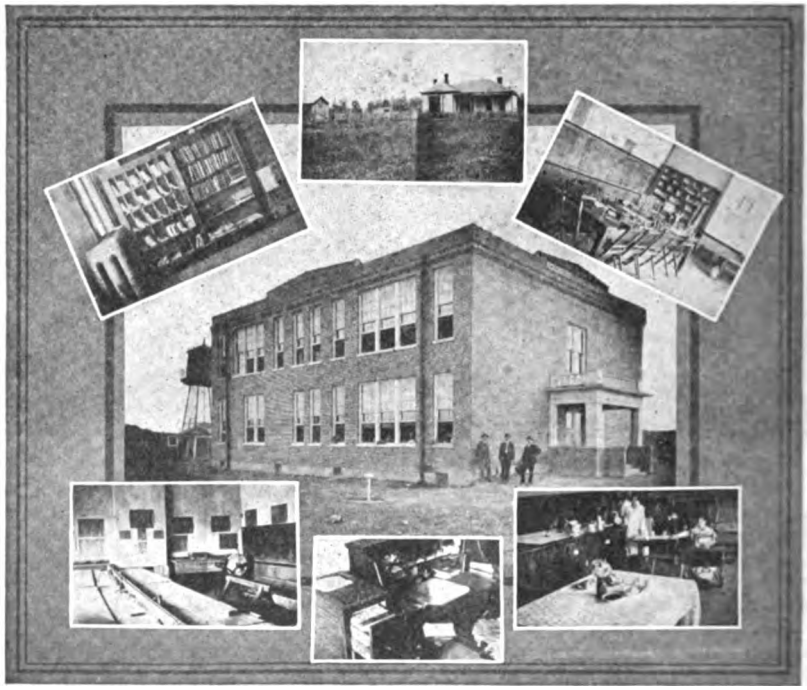


Fig. 3—*This school is Horn Lake Consolidated School, in De Soto County, Mississippi. The principal's home of eight rooms is well furnished. The grounds contain ten acres. Out of 125 pupils in the district, 120 are enrolled—with a daily average attendance of 95.*

In California the fundamental to consolidation is " good roads." If transportation can be arranged without too great expense, people vote for the unionizing of districts, if at all practicable. In the State of Washington a bonus was given by the State and county of two thousand days additional attendance by each, for every school district less one in the number of districts entering consolidation; *i. e.,* approximately $300.00 per district. If two or more districts consolidate supervision was given equal to that allowed in a second-class school district. A steady effort was made by the field workers from the State Department to coöperate with County super-

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intendents for consolidation. In this State, too, consolidation was carried on with the Community Center movement. People were made to understand just what consolidation meant and what would be expected of them. Again the serious problem was transportation. A great variety of conveyances for school children was used, from the school wagon to interurban cars and even gasoline launches and row boats. As the State Department Publication indicates, airships were about the only means of conveyance not yet used in the transportation of school children in the State of Washington.

The results of the inquiry then as to how to organize to bring about consolidation showed that (1) The consolidated school has become a part of every section of the United States. (2) The conversion of the people through propaganda is essential to successful consolidation. (3) The greatest obstacle is lack of proper facilities for transportation. (4) New methods or those not hitherto reported as emphasized are: (a) The influence of a community that has really done something worth while. (b) The appointment of Committees by rural organizations, such as the Farm Bureau, Grange, and related organizations to make a special study of educational conditions in rural communities of the State. Such a study would necessarily deal with consolidation. (c) Legislation to provide that the County, rather than the district, be the unit of school administration. (d) Round Tables of leaders in the district who favor consolidation. A plan for consolidation determined upon solidation. A plan for consolidation determined upon whereby either the County Board of Education consolidates without the assent of the people, or the people are first converted to consolidation and then the organization made. (e) Bonus offered for consolidated schools. (f) School debates on the subject. (g) Community Center Movement.

Difficulties in the way of consolidation an analysis of a major difficulty, transportation—At a meeting of the full committee on Rural Education in February, 1921, it was decided to enlarge the committee and seek coöperation for further work outside the Council membership, among specialists in rural education, and make a final report to be made in February, 1922.

J. C. Muerman, of the U. S. Bureau of Education, accepted the invitation to work on the sub-committee on Consolidation and in conference with him the next step to be undertaken, it was mutually agreed that although there are many agencies that promoted consolidation and many situations that hinder it, some are far more crucial than others and that two would lend themselves to the present service of consolidation and might with profit precede the study of others:

1. The limits of the district within which consolidation can successfully be made cannot be fixed arbitrarily, but depend wholly on the economic and geographical situation, and the site of the consolidated school should always be the economic center of the community, if there is one. How to determine the economic center, how to determine the geographic center, where the two coincide, etc., would be a profitable study.

2. Conditions that hinder consolidation—what are they? How overcome them?

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Some of these conditions are: (a) Difficulties of transportation; (b) poor legislation; (c) lack of initiative on part of county superintendent; (d) lack of information on part of people and teachers as to merits of consolidation; (e) lack of administrative and social qualities on part of principal; and (f) inefficient teachers.

Heading the list of Conditions that Hinder Consolidation we find Difficulties of Transportation, and as the sub-committee was not informed of any special study of transportation that had been made relative to consolidation, it was decided to take as the next piece of work, and investigation of Transportation. Introductory to this, the sub-committee developed the following questionnaire, which was sent out by the chairman and the returns tabulated and compiled by Mr. Muerman.

QUESTIONNAIRE ON TRANSPORTATION

1. To what extent has free transportation of rural school pupils influenced the building of better roads and vice versa?
2. What is the minimum distance children are conveyed one way?
3. What is the maximum distance children are conveyed one way?
4. What is the average distance children are conveyed one way?
5. What is the maximum time any child in en route one way?
6. What is the relative cost of transportation according to types of conveyances used? (a) School wagon; (b) motor bus or truck; (c) trolley; (d) railroad; and (e) other methods.
7. Indicate types of conveyances used and number of each type.
8. What is the relative cost of transportation according to methods of operation? (a) Operated by owner; (b) owned by school and driver paid a salary; and (c) private contract.
9. Number of partly school-owned conveyances.
10. Send copy of contract with driver.
11. How are drivers selected, and on what basis is their fitness determined?
12. How is their efficiency as drivers checked up?
13. What is the most common type of transportation for the consolidated schools in the open country?
14. What is the most common type of transportation for the consolidated schools in the village?
15. Other types of rural schools with free transportation. Most common type of transportation in the State.
16. In 1920-21. (a) Number of rural pupils in State transported at public expenses; (b) total cost for transportation; (c) average monthly salary of drivers—maximum-minimum; (d) total number of school-owned conveyances; (e) total number of private conveyances; (f) average time of drivers to make route.

The returns from this questionnaire together with such material as was available in the U. S. Bureau of Education were compiled by Mr. Muerman and published by the U. S. Bureau of Education April, 1922, in Rural School Leaflet No. 2, under the caption of Transportation of Pupils at Public Expense.

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Because of the limited space the content of this leaflet is not inserted here but copies can be procured from the U. S. Bureau of Education.

Notable achievements in consolidation—A request for notable achievements in consolidation was sent a few months ago to nine States, representatives of different sections of the county and today four have responded as follows:

Iowa—The most notable event in connection with consolidation in Iowa has been the building of many splendid buildings of fire-proof construction, with gymnasium, auditorium and laboratories for manual training, domestic science, and agriculture.



Fig. 4—*Brown's Mill, Antrim Township, Franklin County, Pennsylvania.*

Indiana—As far as the progress made in school consolidation in Indiana is concerned the rapid growth of the high school spirit is one of the outstanding features.

Another feature in the growth of these high schools in Indiana, is the "six-year" high school. Many communities have found it much to their advantage to organize the 7th and 8th grades and the senior high school together. The idea has grown among patrons that the rural children are entitled to as good schools as are maintained for boys and girls in the cities. Supervised study has worked its way into many rural schools.

These changes are results of consolidation, and would not have occurred under the old scheme of school organization.

Mississippi—It is difficult to state the outstanding achievements within the last year or so because the progress made in consolidation is within itself an

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achievement to be proud of. Along with this there are a great number of teachers' homes. The fact that it is possible to furnish plans and specifications for school houses has been a wonderful help in improving the type of these buildings.

Massachusetts—The abolition of the district system was, of course, absolutely essential before any widespread consolidation program could be carried out. This was accomplished through the stimulus of Horace Mann who recognized in the district system one of the greatest barriers to educational progress. The abolition of the district was not easily accomplished. It was first abolished in 1859 but the resentment on the part of many towns was so keen that it was speedily restored by the Legislature in the succeeding fall. In 1869 the district was again abolished, but virtually restored by the Acts of 1870, which permitted any town to re-establish school districts by a two thirds vote. Twelve years later, 1882, the district control of the schools finally terminated. This act broke down both political and economical barriers that stood in the way of school consolidation.

Another very significant development in this field is the extent to which the one-teacher school has been eliminated. In 1838 when Horace Mann made his famous report on school houses, there were approximately 3000 school buildings in Massachusetts. Nearly all of these were of the one-room district type. In spite of the tremendous growth of population since that time, we now have fewer school buildings in the state than in the days of Horace Mann; and the number of one-teacher schools has been reduced from nearly 3000 to 768; more than 97 per cent of our pupils are attending schools of two or more rooms.

Conclusions and recommendations—The purpose of consolidation is to aid as far as possible in establishing optimum conditions for the education of children in rural communities.

Consolidation makes this contribution by enlarging the amount of taxable area, thereby increasing funds for plant, equipment, and salaries of teachers; by bringing together larger numbers of students and faculty, thus creating a real social life, among them and by affording the community a social center in which a coöperative school spirit is fostered, which reacts to the good of rural education and rural life.

But such results are dependent on the conditions under which consolidation is made. As to

(1) Methods of bringing about consolidation. These have been dealt with in an earlier section of this report. When consolidation was in its first stages of development it was probably necessary to consolidate in many instances in the fact of large opposition. The movement was new and only educational prophets could visualize the outcome. But now, when outstanding achievements in rural education through the benefits of consolidation are so numerous and widely distributed in the country, effective consolidation undoubtedly results, where the patrons give intelligent support to the movement, and the growing tendency is to delay consolidation until such support is assured.

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(2) Selection of site. Locality and quality are the watch words. The site should be on a main road as near the center of the district as possible. If there is a well-defined economic center which contains the church, store, post office, etc., this location should be considered, provided it is within the limits of the new consolidated district, within easy access of all patrons of the new district, and on a well-travelled road.

Land that is in a desirable part of the district that is good in itself, and will submit easily to modifications, for attractiveness should be sought. It should be level, well-drained and well-fenced or otherwise protected. There should be attractive walks that are always kept clean. The area will vary from three to ten acres, in accordance with enrolment of school. For a three-room consolidated school the minimum should be from three to five acres and in a six-room school, or larger, ten acres. A garden plot and a good athletic field are needed.

Provision should be made for a good track and a "Straight-a-way" for the dashes. The track should be of cinders of sand so that it is in good condition at all times for use.

(3) Plant and equipment. In order that a school may be adapted for instruction in the broadened curriculum that characterizes the modern conception of education, there must be ample facilities not only for class-room and laboratory work, but for agriculture, industrial training, and home economics, with equipment duplicating as closely as possible the farm, shop, and home conditions under which these activities are normally conducted.

Provision for music, art, and visual instruction is needed.

Health instruction, a large factor in any educational system today, calls for recreational facilities by way of gymnasium and apparatus for outdoor sports.

To give the largest social life to the school and enable it to serve as a community center, one of its very important functions, there must be a good auditorium, well-lighted, heated, ventilated, and equipped for such entertainments and other legitimate uses as the school and community may seek.

A library with good supplementary and reference books, periodicals, bulletins, etc., is essential, with conveniences for getting them into the hands of the pupils.

It goes without saying that the teacher is the main factor in school success and one great advantage of the consolidated school is that of inviting capable teachers because of improved conditions in and about the school and larger salaries. Good living conditions have a wonderful influence in attracting teachers to a given locality and therefore, in every consolidated district it would be well to provide a teacher's home. It will be noted in the body of this report that at least one State regards the teacher's home as a notable achievement of consolidation, and many States are considering this an essential adjunct to the school plant.

A good warm garage or sheds for transportation vehicles is needed.

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All of this means that foresight on the part of school boards, trustees, and architects is necessary in planning buildings for consolidated school districts to provide all the educational benefits possible to be derived from such a grouping.

Safe buildings, properly wired for lighting, and for the use of slides and films, good fire protection, and such material conditions in all respects as mean health and satisfaction must be in the minds of those responsible for the location and construction of consolidated school buildings.

(4) Teachers. Reference has been made to the importance of the teacher in the consolidated school, as in all educational organizations.

Aside from scholarship and training that are commonly accepted qualifications, the teacher in the consolidated school may well be a social worker with preferably some special training in that line.

The principal or superintendent of a consolidated school must be a man or woman of not only broad education and training but a capable executive. The problem is a complex one. Ability to be a "good mixer" and a leader is needed. The principal or superintendent serves the community in many lines and his judgment is sought and accepted upon points which the superintendent of the city schools can turn over to one of several different social organizations, ready and competent to render helpful opinions and judgment.

(5) General. In any election called for the purpose of deciding whether a district should be consolidated with another, any methods that would permit a small but persistent minority to offset the will of a majority should be avoided. A majority of votes cast should decide the question and these votes should be counted that when three or more districts wish to consolidate, the adverse vote of one district would not prevent the others from forming the consolidation.

Legislation should be enacted that would give the proper school officials power to survey local school conditions and determine whether consolidation is profitable or not. District lines should not be considered fixed forever. They should be flexible.

Consolidations where the valuation is not sufficient to pay good salaries to instructors and provide efficient transportation to pupils of abandoned districts are not recommended.

Consolidated schools are not cheaper schools—but they are, without doubt, better and much more effective schools when good and secure transportation is provided.

Bibliography—A number of important publications on rural-school consolidation has appeared since 1910, the banner years for these publications apparently being those of 1911, 1913, 1917, and 1919. Because of limited space, no list of bibliography on consolidation is included here, but a recent list of bibliography on consolidation of rural schools has been compiled by the U. S. Bureau of Education, copies of which can be secured on request.

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Professor Neale, of the Stevens Point, Wisconsin, State Normal School, makes the following contribution to Consolidation:

PROPOSED PLAN OF CONSOLIDATION AND SCHOOL REDISTRICTING

1. The redistricting of the several counties of the State by the County School Board or County Board of Education and the County Superintendent.

2. Such districts so far as possible shall be of standard size of about 24 square miles. When advisable this area may be increased or diminished.

3. It is the duty of this committee to plat and establish school house sites and boundary lines of proposed consolidated districts within the county.

4. When this work has been completed a date is set by the committee for a hearing at the county seat where any school elector may file objections to the plan recommended, after which the committee may make any changes in its map deemed advisable.

5. Twenty per cent of the electors of the proposed consolidated district may within 40 days file a written protest and appeal to the State Superintendent, who shall hold a hearing after a due notice of two weeks is given, at the office of the County Superintendent.

6. The approval of the State Superintendent is necessary or he may order a rearrangement.

7. When twenty per cent of the electors of the plotted consolidated district petition the County Board of Education, an election shall be held whose purpose shall be to determine the establishment of the consolidated district. Consolidation will follow upon the affirmative action of a majority of the electors voting on the question.

DEFECTS OF PRESENT CONSOLIDATION LAWS

1. They fail to make proper distribution of territory in a county.

2. They require a majority vote of each district. Failure of majority vote in any district defeats consolidation.

3. They fail to include all territory in any county in proposed consolidated districts.

4. They propose no effective plan or initiative in consolidation.

5. They include no intelligent plan of arousing the people to the need of consolidation.

SUGGESTED CONSOLIDATION SCHOOL STANDARDS

1. Viewed from the standpoint of the country children, it is desirable that the school be located in the open country.

2. A definite reorganization of the curriculum should be brought about to meet the specific needs of country life.

3. College and normal school entrance requirements should be generally altered to the end that graduates from such a reorganized course could enter standard institutions of higher learning.

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4. A more or less complete series of new texts, adapted to the specific needs of rural life, is urgently needed.

5. The school should consciously and earnestly seek to inculcate a respect for farming and a love for country life.

6. Agriculture of a genuinely vocational character should be taught.

7. Project work should be encouraged.

8. Courses in farm shop work and farm machinery are to be preferred to general manual training.

9. Instruction should be given in the social and economic phases of farm life, such as coöperation, marketing, etc.

10. Boys' and girls' club work should be actively promoted.

11. Home economics, properly adapted to the needs and conditions of rural home life, should be taught to all girls.

12. Farmers' short courses, institutes, demonstrations, etc., should be brought into the school as a regular part of its work.

13. The school should have as one of its chief aims the making of the social life of the young people satisfying and attractive and to this end should become a genuine community center.

14. A varied program of school activities, including athletics, literary clubs, musical organizations, etc., should be carried on.

15. The school should provide the widest possible variety of purely social and recreational activities for the young people.

16. Community gatherings for *all* should be promoted.

17. The school should coöperate closely with a community church.

18. The school should exert its utmost endeavor to put farming on a more profitable basis as a necessary condition to contentment on the part of the young people.

19. To the same end, the school should encourage actively the installation of new comforts and conveniences in the home.

20. The school should encourage parents in making their children actual partners in their farming business.

21. The principal should be a person in genuine sympathy with country life, trained in agriculture, and country-reared.

22. It is desirable that he set an example of interest in agriculture by engaging in such phases of it as he is able, such as the raising of poultry, small fruit, etc.

23. The teachers should be interested in country life, in full sympathy with it, and preferably country-reared.

24. Teacherages should be provided.

25. State and National aid should be given in substantial amounts to consolidated schools meeting some such standards as the foregoing.

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THE RURAL SCHOOL CURRICULUM

HAROLD W. FOGHT, PRESIDENT, NORTHERN STATE TEACHERS' COLLEGE
ABERDEEN, SOUTH DAKOTA

Introduction—Your sub-committee finds that in the past both our teaching and our educational system in rural communities have been, to a large extent, city school systems moved out to the open country—systems which have poorly answered the needs of our agricultural population; and which, in all probability, have tended to wean the rural-minded people away from the land, and have drawn them instead into the activities of the organized industrial cities. By this we do not mean that agricultural people can get along with less education than can people who live in towns and cities, nor should their education differ much from the education of the latter, so far as the so-called fundamental and cultural elements are concerned. The chief difference should lie in the practical application of school studies to environment and life occupation more than to anything else.

It is well to be clear on this point that the new type of education ought first of all to be more broadly cultural than it has been. Without question, the American farmer is suffering as much today from the lack of being broadly read, and from the want of knowledge of the best of literature, history, and social science, as he is from want of technical and practical preparation for his life work. Education for rural America of today should prepare men and women for wholesome, attractive, and remunerative life upon the land. However, this education should not be so narrowly organized as to exclude our best young people from entrance to other occupations and professions.

This investigation is limited to a study of the rural school curriculum. The committee has based its survey on the following fundamentals in curricula building:

1. That the rural schools of our country should teach what a modern agricultural population ought to know in order to get the greatest good of life.

2. That the schools should provide the kind of instruction required to keep rural people in enjoyment of good health and sanitary surroundings.

3. That the schools should prepare rural people to earn remunerative living from the land.

4. That the schools should direct rural people to become useful, responsible members of the community and State.

5. That the schools should inspire rural people to devote their margin of wealth and well-earned leisure to ethical and æsthetical pursuits in the country for self-improvement and the upbuilding of the community.

On these fundamentals the curriculum of study for one-teacher and consolidated schools should be formulated.

What is meant by this modern conception of education—The course of study thus formulated has two phases or stages. In the first place, it calls for a good mastery of the ordinary tools of education. It must teach rural people how to read fluently and write a legible hand, how to express them-

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selves in good English, how to figure correctly and make the simple calculations that fall within the realm of ordinary usage. These are the beginnings of rural education—the open sesame to the precious and essential things of a full, rich, agricultural life.

The second phase in the education of a rural people must harmonize their daily lives with the nature environment in which they dwell and labor, so that they will love it and understand its wonders and mysteries. It must make them broad enough to know and care about the great physical and social world lying beyond their own precincts. This second step will tend to make rural people independent thinkers and leaders and enable them to take their place side by side with the urban population in directing, controlling, dictating the affairs of the Nation.

Plans followed in this study—This course of study for rural schools is based on the following:

1. A thorough elimination of everything that does not seem to meet the test of present useful purpose.

2. The introduction of such materials as are adapted to help rural people to attain happy, healthful, and remunerative life conditions.

3. The re-direction of whatever has been retained in the curriculum after the first eliminations, to give it more direct application and utility.

Elimination in the common branches—The limited space allotted to this study forbids a detailed rejection or elimination of the worn-out subject matter. The details should be worked out by the teacher. The test of useful purpose must invariably be applied. In arithmetic, for example, tables of weights and measures belonging to the special trades and professions, complicated problems in percentage, partnership, exchange, and the like cannot pass the test of present usefulness in rural education, and should accordingly be eliminated. In English, for the same reason, the children will no longer be obliged to struggle with interjections, appositives, conjunctive adverbs, formal parsing, and diagramming. In physiology we will omit the old anatomical catalog of bones, muscles, and parts of the alimentary canal, better suited for embryonic medical students. Similar eliminations will occur in spelling, geography, history, civics, etc.

Re-direction of the old subjects in relation to the pupils' activities—The fundamentals of the "common branches" are not disturbed. The stress is placed on local application to bring the problem within the experience of the children's daily activities. In the arithmetic classes, for example, it would quicken a pupil's interest and add to his practical knowledge and efficiency to send him with pencil, pad, and three-foot rule into the school yard to calculate the cost of erecting a hog-tight fence around the premises, using definitely specified materials, or to give him problems in growing farm crops, dairy problems, and poultry problems. Nature environment and practical farm activities can furnish him materials and themes without number for his reading and composition classes. Even the spelling words can be gleaned from the experiences of daily life. Similarly, in his geography classes he will learn to spend less time on the location of Timbuktu and Pernambuco,

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Sunkok and Teheran, and more to the study of land and water forms of the community, the farm as an industrial center and its commercial relations to the larger community, and other equally suggestive topics. The field of adaptation is wonderfully large even in these old formal subjects.

The industrial arts definitely included in the rural curriculum—The new rural program included the industrial arts—agriculture, manual training, and home economics. Of these agriculture as meant here is really elementary science combined with practical agriculture, or nature study agriculture. Manual training in this sense comprises all useful handwork for boys and girls, aside from what is included in the term of home economics. The latter embraces what is generally known as domestic science and domestic art.

In the United States about 75 per cent of the Nation's wealth comes out of the land in one form or another. The farmers are the great wealth producers, although not the greatest wealth keepers; for under the present system of agricultural organization, the farmers are able to keep only a small portion of this wealth for themselves. The schools must teach new things not alone in agricultural production acre for acre, but must be of real assistance in preparing the products for the markets and in their ultimate marketing. Agriculture in our rural schools must not be taken up as a concession to farmers and farming. As a matter of fact, in our rural sections, it should always have been part of the school curriculum. We must be careful not to limit the teaching of agriculture to textbooks and manuals. It must be taught in the great laboratory of the outdoors. The school ground, including experiment plot and garden must be used. Then there are orchards and cornfields and meadows which can be used; and corn and cereals, barnyard fowls, and other animals which can be brought to school and studied. Then there is seed corn to be tested and trees to be budded and grafted, etc.

The curriculum of the one-teacher school—Probably 210,000 schools of the single teacher type can still be found in rural communities, the only means of education open to a majority of rural children. It is now accepted as good national policy to reorganize all these schools to answer the needs of the new era in agricultural life. Many of the small schools can never be made into large centralized schools for topographical reasons. If, on the other hand, these natural obstacles do not exist and the only drawbacks are entrenched in old traditions and the failure of the people to understand modern educational needs—then it would seem the teacher's duty to champion the centralization movement, rationally and energetically. However, where consolidation is not now feasible, it is quite possible to reorganize the one-room pioneer school as a modern one-teacher school. The difference of the two lies in a re-vitalization brought about by a new community-serving teacher, who is fully abreast of modern methods of teaching, of modern reorganization of the course of study, etc.

The one-teacher school curriculum based on a three-year experiment—The curriculum and daily program for the one-teacher school is based on a three-year study carried on under the direction of the sub-committee by the Rural Department of the Northern State Teachers' College at Aberdeen,

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South Dakota. Credit for this work is largely due Mr. L. B. Sipple, head of the department, Miss Alice Florer, Miss Margaret Briscoe, Miss Lauretta Lawless, and other members of the department.

The experiment is twofold. The first problem is to make of the pupils a homogeneous group—to develop a unified, wholesome atmosphere. This may be accomplished through a well-planned system of supervised play and pupil participation in school affairs and through the agency of a Young Citizens League. Team work, school pride, responsibility, respect for schoolmates, self control will slowly but surely be developed. This Homogeneity may be further increased by the coöperation of the parents through the Community Club. No opportunity should be missed to have the children entertain their parents or visitors with regular school activities or special programs; nor to have them act as hosts to other nearby rural schools. The first step, then, is to get the children into the right attitude towards each other, their work and their part in it.

The second problem set is to reduce the total number of class periods to a reasonable number for one teacher to handle in a day. This may be accomplished through grouping of the pupils, through combination and correlation of subject matter, and through the elimination of useless material.

Instead of the regulation eight grades, the school in question is divided into three groups. Group I corresponds to what was formerly the 1st, 2d and 3d grades. Group II corresponds to the 4th, 5th and 6th grades, and Group III corresponds to the 7th and 8th grades.

In this scheme the subjects are combined and correlated so that fewer classes are necessary than under the old organization.

In Group I, reading and language are combined; nature study and oral geography are combined. Spelling and phonics are correlated with all subjects. Arithmetic is correlated with other subjects where opportunity offers, and in addition, a regular course in arithmetic is given to all but beginners.

In Group II, history, geography, reading, and language are combined, also reading, language and hygiene. Spelling and writing are correlated with all subjects. Arithmetic is correlated with other subjects wherever possible, but a regular course in arithmetic is given.

In Group III, history, geography, and civics have been organized into a social science course. That subject predominates or is emphasized most on which the real problem of the class centers. In Group III, also English and bookkeeping are correlated with arithmetic, such as the writing of business letters, checks, drafts, receipts, bills and farm accounting. Silent reading permeates every subject. Language is correlated intimately with the social science course and the courses in hygiene and industrial work.

Each group works separately in music. Groups II and III unite in a "spelling bee" every Tuesday in the place of opening exercises. These groups have two weekly class periods of forty minutes each in industrial work, the girls having cooking or sewing and the boys manual training.

By means of this scheme the number of classes each day has been reduced to eighteen. It should be emphasized that this is not final. The pupils

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are classified partly by the use of mental tests, physical examination, and subjects tests.

DAILY SCHEDULE

Time	Primary or Group I	Intermediate or Group II	Group III	No.
9:00–9:15	Opening exercises (1)			
9:15 to 10:15	Beginners (2) 2d, 3d, 4th Study and recite	Reading (2) Word study Study and recite	Reading (2) and English Study and recite	4
10:15 to 10:30	Out-doors plays and games or seat-work (3)	Music	Music	1
10:30–10:45	Recess	Recess	Recess	
10:45 to 11:15	Music Construction work correlated with regular lessons	Word study Spelling Study and recite	Study	2
11:15 to 12:00	Numbers Hygiene (4)	Arithmetic	Arithmetic Farm accounts	3
HOT LUNCH AND SUPERVISED PLAY FOR ALL GRADES				
1:00–1:15	Story period—Opening exercises—Current events			
1:15 to 2:15	Beginners phonics and word study, 2d and 3d Oral history, geography, language, nature study	Social science (5)	Social science	4
2:15–2:30		Writing or drawing		1
2:45 to 3:30	Games and stories in language, geography, history nature study	Hygiene (4)	Study	2
3:30 to 4:00	Study period or industrial work (6)		Reviews or industrial work	1

NOTES ON DAILY SCHEDULE

The Young Citizens League has several general meetings during the year from 3:20 to 4:00 P. M.; standing committees of children are appointed who report as often as necessary.

All recitations are "*seasoned*" with "*citizenship,*" especially the social science courses. Each group has developed a creed for good citizenship which they thoroughly believe in. These creeds appear in all History booklets.

It should be emphasized that the entire schedule is flexible. The correlation is flexible, subject to change as the situation demands. Even the time allotment is flexible. Thus, the total number of recitations may vary from 19 to 21.

(1) Opening exercises consist of reports by teachers and pupils on famous pictures or poems, lives of great men and women, industries, inventions, etc.

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(2) Not more than four reading classes which are grouped according to the ability of the pupils. The plan may be as follows: Beginners; 2d and 3d grades; 4th, 5th, 6th, grades; and 7th and 8th grades, or beginners, 2d grade; 3d, 4th, 5th, grades; 6th, 7th, 8th grades.

(3) Primary plays and games may be directed by older pupils who have learned them under the direction of the teacher.

(4) Primary hygiene according to course, with practical applications each day. Intermediate hygiene including practical applications in every day life.

(5) Social science in intermediate grades consists of history, language, geography by means of text, pictures, poster and booklet making, letter writing, etc. Each pupil in class writes to commercial clubs, R. R. officials, etc., for material on South Dakota history as outlined in Course of Study. Each pupil in class makes illustrated booklets setting forth the resources, industries, and beauty spots of South Dakota.

Social science in grammar grades consists of history, geography, civics, combined. Texts, reference books, pictures, maps, charts, drawings, stories, etc., used.

(6) Industrial work consists of construction work, sand table, clay modeling, etc., in the primary grades, manual training for boys in the intermediate and grammar grades, cooking and sewing for the girls of the intermediate and grammar grades.

Curricula for consolidated and rural high schools should be organized in accordance with the above principles.

RURAL TEACHER TRAINING AND DEMONSTRATION SCHOOLS

JOHN F. SIMS, PRESIDENT, STATE NORMAL SCHOOL
STEVENS POINT, WISCONSIN

I. CONCLUSIONS BASED ON QUESTIONNAIRE

The following conclusions on rural education are based largely on questionnaires sent out to every superintendent of public instruction:

First, the rural communities do not realize the condition of the rural schools, hence a campaign must be undertaken to arouse a local demand for better educational facilities. Without such a local demand, little permanent progress can be accomplished. This local interest should be organized in the direction of securing competent teachers, and of arousing local people to the point of realization that such teachers are professional people, with a career to make and a life to live. It is idle to expect missionaries to do the work: there are not enough to go around. Rural communities should demand rural teachers, not those who are left after the towns have taken their choice. The State Department of Education, and the National Bureau must work together to create these demands.

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Second, many rural communities cannot meet the expense of the schools they need. Therefore, State and National funds must be made available. The localities which need the best efforts of leaders in the rural school line of work, are the ones which can afford the smallest outlay, and consequently get the poorest service. Outside help must come to such places.

Third, the one-room school is inadequate to the demands of a twentieth century education, therefore consolidation, a dynamic movement—the most highly consequential movement now under way, looking toward the creation of better educational facilities—twelve full years of schooling *at home* should be fostered wherever possible.

Fourth, to get the people needed, special facilities must be created to train rural teachers. Such facilities do not now exist except in few instances.

A considerable percentage of rural teachers has had no training at all.

Only a small percentage has had adequate academic training.

A smaller percentage has had any professional training. Very few have had any special training to fit them for rural teaching.

Fifth, young people will not prepare for this work as long as the wages paid are less than those of a housemaid in the large cities. The rural schools will never get more than they are willing to pay for. Better wages and a more attractive life must lie at the bottom of any wide improvement.

The problem in rural education is essentially different from that confronting the city superintendent—however small the city may be. He is an inspector seeing the details frequently enough to be an aid as a fact; to readjust often enough to steer clear of wrong habits and to use wisely emulation, competition, and ideals—creating elbow-touching enthusiasm for right spirit, which makes for right thinking and right behavior—the two most important functions any one of us is called upon to perform.

II. NATURE OF TEACHER'S DUTIES

The teacher's duties are of a complex nature, and can be satisfactorily performed only when they have been thoroughly mastered. Character is the end for which we strive—the power to do what ought to be done and done well at the proper time, as well as the power to resist temptation to do wrong. Appreciate with all the power of your mind and heart, the mother's hopes for her child, and realize the functions of the public school. As the mother is the soul of the home, so the teacher is the soul of the school. This end is not achieved through any occult virtue in the subjects taught, but through proper instruction. The first essential of good teaching is to realize that instruction is to aid in the physical, mental, and moral growth of the child, and next to understand that this growth comes only through the activity of the body, mind, and conscience of the child. The potentiality for development is in the child, not in the curriculum, and it is by cultivating his powers that he reaches a high status of development.

Yet is the course in rural schools of highest importance in that we have purpose and means in close proximity if we are to cultivate the child for his

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own needs, contributing to his own personal good, and giving him the training whereby he may act intelligently on public matters, thereby measuring up to the duties of citizenship and as of a membership in the social order.

III. ESSENTIALS OF COURSE OF STUDY

Manifestly we must give the child an insight into the world about him and skill in using the tools of the civilization into which he is born, as well as the ideals and discipline to improve that civilization. The following must be stressed: (1) The three R's with health habits, history, geography, business essentials, literature, and nature. (2) Some skill in the lines of practical numerical calculations, music, physical training, thrift or personal economics, agriculture, farm mechanics, cooking and sewing, debating and public speaking. (3) The appreciations of art, music, nature, social intercourse, courtesy or social amenities and education. (4) The ideals of patriotism, industry, coöperation, fair play, and achievement.

The course of study will cover the eight years of the elementary grades in the one-room school or the mere or more grades of the consolidated school, and hopefully the twelve grades of the rural high school will in a very few years be multiplied and universalized. City child, or rural child, he is entitled to the heritage of permanently employed, well-remunerated teachers, to be retired on a pension when their active years of service are over.

IV. BETTER TRAINING FOR RURAL TEACHERS AND SUPERVISORS DEMANDED

The inevitable corollary is better teacher training for the rural schools. Successful teaching in the rural schools of the Nation calls for specialized education and teaching ability of the highest order on the part of those who are giving the training.

The problems of the city grade teacher are simple when compared with those of the one-room rural teacher who must teach the many subjects of eight grades with little or no supervision. He is thrown upon his own resources, often too meager, and receives no assistance except what his own ingenuity provides, and when it serves its purpose it is thrown aside, and serves no other purpose as a guide and inspiration to others.

Yet graded and high schools demand not only scholarship on the part of their teachers but evidence of professional preparation as well as proof of successful experience in teaching. In Wisconsin, urban communities are demanding not only high school education but two, three, or even four years of normal school education beyond. In some a college diploma is demanded. Up to the present time rural teachers secure legal qualifications with but three years preparation beyond the eighth grade. The disparity of preparation is evident, and States can be cited where the disparity is greater.

Some rural schools have accomplished much—stand out as mountain peaks of achievement above the average. Let all rural schools do what a few have done. The time is ripe for making rural teaching a distinct profession, for making the teacher a rural leader by investing him with the attributes of leadership.

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V. AGENCIES FOR TRAINING RURAL TEACHERS AND SUPERVISORS

The present agencies for training rural teachers are colleges, normal schools, county training schools, and training courses in high schools. This National Council of Education and the National Education Association will be traitors to their ideals in education if they do not go on record with resolutions to which they solemnly pledge their sacred honor and influence to secure enactment into law, as soon as possible, the mandate that high school graduation be an entrance requirement into institutions training teachers for rural schools; and in further demanding and carrying into execution that the courses of study in such institutions include special instruction in agriculture, farm mechanics, farm accounting, cooking, sewing, home furnishing, sanitation, home gardening, rural sociology, public speaking, community center work, boys' and girls' club work, and other kindred subjects closely related to rural life, in addition to the academic and professional work essential in teaching, and lengthening the courses to two, three, and eventually four years, and certified to teach only in rural schools of whatever class including high schools and consolidated schools. The hope of the country for an adequate supply of well-trained rural teachers rests with the public normal schools, says President H. W. Foght, Aberdeen, South Dakota, formerly specialist in the Bureau of Education. W. C. Bagley, Columbia University, sounds the same note.

An integral and vital part of the rural teacher-training institution will be the rural demonstration school, located preferably in a rural community, in charge of expert teachers thoroughly familiar with the needs of rural schools. In these schools prospective teachers observe skillful work done in a rural school, and have opportunity for practice teaching under competent supervision.

VI. CONTENT OF COURSES FOR TEACHER AND SUPERVISORY TRAINING

Professional	Academic	Environmental
Psychology	Common branches	Community health—recreation
Principles of teaching	Agriculture	Production and marketing of farm products
Methods	Seat work	Consumption of goods needed on farm
Observation	Farm mechanics	Coöperation of farm with other agencies
Rural school organization	Cookery and sewing	Club work
School management	Music and drawing	
School supervision	Parliamentary law	
Study of manual	Rural economics	
Educational tests and measurements	Rural sociology	
All culminating in: Appreciations, Skills, Social amenities, Ideals	Picture study	
	Public speaking	
	Nature study	
	Literature	
	Plays and games	
	Library work	

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The following detailed courses are suggestive:

ONE-YEAR RURAL SCHOOL TEACHERS' TRAINING COURSE FOR HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATES

First semester		Second semester	
First term	Second term	Third term	Fourth term
Geography	Seat work	Mgt. and law	Rural econ. and soc.
English	U. S. hist.	Wis. history	Nature study
Observation	Civics	Home econ. or man. training	Agriculture B
Prim. methods	Read. and methods	Drawing, spelling and penm.	Music
Hyg. and san.	Theory and art	Manual practice	Catalog. and story telling
Gym.	Gym.		Practice

TWO-YEAR RURAL SCHOOL TEACHERS' TRAINING COURSE FOR HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATES

FIRST YEAR

First semester		Second semester	
First term	Second term	Third term	Fourth term
Arithmetic	Arithmetic	Psychology	Gen. methods
Geography	Geog. and methods	Civics	Rural econ.
Gen. science I	Gen. science II	Home econ.	Observation
Mgt. and law	School sup.	Agriculture gen.	Agriculture gen.
Hyg. and san. I	Catalog. and penm.	Spell. and penm.	Nature study

SECOND YEAR

First semester		Second semester	
First term	Second term	Third term	Fourth term
Drawing and ind. work	Drawing and ind. work	Music I	Music II
Grammar	Composition	Rural sociology	Picture study
Manual or practice	Practice	Practice	Practice
Read. and methods	Prim. meth.	Juv. literature	Live stock
History	History and meth.	Wis. hist.	Seat work
		Ed. diag.	Tests and measurements

A rural teacher finishing the above course should be given a bonus of $10 or $15 per month.

TWO-YEAR COURSE FOR RURAL SCHOOL SUPERVISORS

JUNIOR YEAR

First semester		Second semester	
First term	Second term	Third term	Fourth term
Ed. psychology	Ed. psychology	Observation	Public speaking
Reading meth. (prim.)	Reading meth. (gram.)	Practice	Practice
Arithmetic	Arithmetic	Geography	Geography
Juv. literature	American lit.	Industrial arts	Fine arts, sp. and penm.
Phys. education	Rural recreation	Grammar and comp.	Grammar and comp

SENIOR YEAR

Rural sch. mgt. and org.	Rural supervision	Hist. rural ed.	Manual training
Rural econ. and soc.	Rural com. org. and survey	Agriculture	Agri. and nature study
U. S. history	U. S. history	Dom. sci. (hot lunch)	Civics
Pub. sch. music	Pub. sch. music	Practice sup.	Picture study
Hyg. and san.	Tests and meas.		Practice sup.

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Public health	[illegible]	
Literature [illegible]	[illegible]	
Art work	[illegible]	
Phys. education	[illegible]	

FOUR-YEAR COURSE TO [illegible]

SCHOOL [illegible]

Psychology	[illegible]	
Recent [illegible]	[illegible]	
Grammar [illegible]	[illegible]	
General [illegible]	[illegible]	
Introduction to [illegible]	[illegible]	
Electives	[illegible]	
Physiology and [illegible]	[illegible]	
Arithmetic	[illegible]	
Secondary [illegible]	[illegible]	
Medieval [illegible]	[illegible]	
English literature	[illegible]	
Drawing and [illegible] work	[illegible]	
American literature	[illegible]	
Juvenile literature	[illegible]	
School organization and administration	[illegible]	
General course	[illegible]	
Music	[illegible]	
History of [illegible]	[illegible]	
Educational tests and measurements	[illegible]	
Practice teaching	[illegible]	
Reading method	[illegible]	
Electives	[illegible]	
General science	[illegible]	
Expressive reading	[illegible]	
Remedial work and home hours	[illegible]	
Story telling	[illegible]	
The short story	[illegible]	
Sociology	[illegible]	
Parliamentary law	[illegible]	
Public speaking	[illegible]	

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A three-year course for rural school supervisors, county superintendents, county training school assistants, teachers of training courses in high school, can be easily organized from the two-year course for rural school supervisors, and the four-year course for the training of county superintendents, county training school assistants, teachers of training courses in high school and rural supervisors.

The following suggestions on observation, practice teaching and the Demonstration School, by Professor O. W. Neale, of the Stevens Point, Wisconsin, State Normal School, are of high value.

VII. PLAN FOR OBSERVATION AND PRACTICE TEACHING

1. Observation and Participation, 9 weeks.

Practice teaching should be the most important activity of the student's training—the center around which all other work revolves. It should be extensive rather than intensive. A minimum of fifty minutes per day is recommended. There should be enough differentiation to emphasize rural work, which later may be adopted to the particular needs of the rural school.

The plan suggested is for a year's observation and practice teaching, specialized to fit the needs of rural teachers.

Taking for granted that the school year is divided into four quarters of nine weeks each, part of the first quarter is devoted to a systematic study of the "Lesson Plan." Much time is spent during these nine weeks observing under expert supervision the work in the normal training school, and in the rural demonstration school following my discussions in class of observations made. This work makes a basis for a course in Principles of Teaching which follows later in the year.

2. Participation.

The student begins with simple duties as, distribution of material, the preparation and care of material, dismissal of pupils, hall duty and sometimes assists in the grading of easy papers and the making of records. This work is done in the practice school under the supervision of the critic teacher. The object of participation at this time is to acquire habits of routine work by actual doing.

3. Group Teaching.

During the early part of the next term the student teacher will have work in making reports, grading recitations, supervision of playground, use of tests and scales, educational diagnosis and individual instruction. A grade is divided into groups among different student teachers; this gives a unity to lesson plans and discussions which follows with critic teachers.

During the first nine weeks of observation and participation, special emphasis is laid on what constitutes a drill lesson, a study lesson, a project, and appreciation lesson. The majority of our students get twenty-seven weeks of actual teaching; thus providing for training in lower, middle and upper form work.

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On the desk of each critic teacher you will find an "Efficiency Curve" for each student teacher. This indicates the strong and weak points of his teaching. This enables the student teacher to eliminate his particular points of weakness. A very careful summary is made of the results of practice teaching which aids the school board in the selection of a teacher. If this student teacher should be weak in his assignment of lessons, this may be made known to the rural supervisor of the county where he teaches. Help along this line may be given early in the year and when most needed.

NO. YR. 192..... OR.....

NAME

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
SUBJECT										
GRADE CLASS PERIOD										
E-EXCELLENT G-GOOD P-POOR										
V G-VERY GOOD F-FAIR FL-FAILURE										
ENGLISH										
MANNER										
INITIATIVE										
COOPERATION										
RESPONSIBILITY										
PREPARATION										
PRESENTATION										
RESULTS										
TRAINING IN CITIZENSHIP										

100
95
90
85
80
75
70
65
60
55
50
STANDING WKS.

VIII. RURAL DEMONSTRATION SCHOOLS

The State Normal School at Stevens Point has two rural schools, affiliated with the Rural Department. A contract is entered into by the Normal School and said districts in which the president asks the privileges of nominating the teacher, teacher's salary to be paid by district in part and remainder by the Board of Normal School Regents. In order to qualify for the position of demonstration teacher one must have had at least two years' training above high school with at least four years' experience, two years of which must have been in a rural school. In this contract the normal school has the privilege of sending students for observation and practice teaching.

Both schools are located in the open country, one five miles east and the other five miles north of the city—in the heart of a large Polish community. At this school we have the teacherage. We have furnished the same from the proceeds of plays given in different parts of the county bearing on the rural problems and community life.

So far as possible each student of the department spends one week at each of the demonstration schools. The student teacher conducts about one half the classes each day under the supervision of the regular teacher. She also has charge of the playground work.

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While at demonstration school the student teacher makes a complete report of equipment of the school; textbooks used, library, heating plant, daily program, etc. A report is made to the Director of the Department in writing of what he has observed in this school as to teaching methods and government. Our students are always delighted with the week at each school because of the first hand professional information they get of a real rural school.

A report of the work of the student teacher is made by the regular teacher. In this report we gain information relative to the native and acquired efficiency of the student teacher. From this report we learn of his general health, personal habits, etc; also rating as to neatness in work, preparation and assignment of lessons, class management, control of voice, housekeeping, pep and tact.

SUMMARY OF PRACTICE WORK

Two kinds are necessary:

I. General—which aim to fix principles and habits fundamental to all good teaching. This work is done in the regular grades of the practice and city schools.

II. Special or Rural—designed to meet the actual conditions and done in rural demonstration schools. Our students are taken in groups of from ten to twelve to the demonstration schools and the best rural schools where they have an opportunity to judge instruction, weigh values and observe the work in general.

IX. SCHOLARSHIPS

Is the time not ripe for the State to offer scholarships in the normal schools to attract the best of our rural-minded young men and women into this field? Scholarships of two or three hundred dollars per year offered to the best fourth of a high school graduating class would improve the output of rural teachers and give to rural teaching the standing it sorely needs. Given the proper supply rural communities will choose these competent teachers. During the War the S. A. T. C. was organized in the normal schools and colleges to meet the crisis. Is it not now the part of wisdom to follow such a practice in meeting the educational crisis?

X. TEACHERAGES

If the hope of rural education lies in the multiplication of consolidated schools, and rural high schools, and in making executive work for twelve months of the year in such schools a distinct profession, manifestly should provision be made for the teachers' home in districts which maintain such schools. When the district maintains such a home—teacherage—it forms a channel of close association between the school and the patrons, becomes the basis of more effective community center work, and makes possible the opportunity for efficient progressive local leadership on the part of principals and teachers.

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XI. LEADERSHIP

The rural teacher, supervisor, or county superintendent, wielding the baton of authority must endow himself, under guidance, with the qualities of leadership, for after all, it is his own struggle. He must cultivate himself and "carry on" in the spirit of Browning's optimistic hero, as one,

> "Who marched breast forward and never turned his back,
> Never doubted clouds would break,
> Never feared the right were worsted, wrong would triumph
> Held we fall to rise, are baffled to fight better, sleep to wake."

Briefly, the elements of leadership are plus health, adequate scholarship, clear vision, skill in execution, an open as well as optimistic mind, initiative, and indomitable will power, all leading to mastery of the situation. The leader includes the opinions of others, and extends beyond them pointing the way to what must be done for betterment. He must be tactful, alert, aggressive and willing to lead, be imbued with courage and altruistic purpose, and an unconquerable desire to serve others. His responsibility is commensurate with his degree of leadership and in these trying times, when Bolshevism is rampant this leadership is responsible for immersing the great masses of the people in the spirit of a truly democratic government, making them realize that it is their government, and that it is their solemn duty to understand it, appreciate it, and take an active part in it in order that they may preserve and perpetuate it. No field of human endeavor calls so loudly for such leadership today as the rural school.

XII. A MATTER OF STATE AND NATIONAL CONCERN

The imperative need is for more money—more money for the salaries of rural teachers, more money for equipment, school farms, school gardens, and salaries of teachers in rural teacher-training institutions; more money for salaries of expert supervisors, and more money to keep highly trained teachers in service. Education is not a local problem for the integrity and perpetuity of the State and Nation are concerned in its solution. State and Nation must make large contributions. Most of the States are now making such contributions, and if the Sterling-Towner Bill is enacted, and to secure its enactment into law the enthusiastic coöperation of every friend of education in America is necessary, provision will be made for the apportionment among the States of $15,000,000. annually for the preparation of teachers, especially of teachers in the rural schools, and $50,000,000 annually for the equalization of educational opportunity.

By molding and directing the power of public opinion, by securing State and National approval and action in the way of greater appropriations, we shall be successful in the bringing of the best men and women into this great work. America must believe with all its heart that a true educator is infinitely more important than a plutocrat or a captain of industry or a stock manipulator.

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RURAL SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION AND SUPERVISION

N. C. MACDONALD, OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY, COLUMBUS, OHIO

This report will consist largely of a discussion of the officers of State and county superintendents of schools as related to State and county boards of education. There is no rural school supervision worthy the name in many of the States when compared with the city school supervision.

Every State has a chief school officer. This officer is elected by popular vote in thirty-four States, appointed by State boards in eight, and appointed by the governor in six. The tendency is from the selection by popular vote and appointment by the governor to appointment by the State board. The tendency is for the tenure to be longer, the salary and qualifications to be higher, and the supervisory staff to be larger where the superintendents are appointed by the State board or by the governor.

There are forty States having general State boards of education. The tendency is toward a non-ex-officio, non-professional, non-salaried board of seven members with a six-year term. The number of State boards is on the increase, four having been organized within the past two years.

There are thirty-nine States having the office of county superintendent of schools. The county superintendent in twenty-five of these States is selected by popular vote. In the other fourteen States he is appointed. The tendency is for the elected county superintendent to possess on the average less training, to have shorter tenure, to receive a smaller salary, and to have less field help than where this officer is appointed. Unbelievable as it may seem, in the elective group the tenure is longer for those with less training. The tendency is from the elective system of selecting county superintendents to the appointive system, four States having made this change within the past two years. A few States have special forms of rural school supervision, that yet have to prove their effectiveness. The most hopeful form is probably found in Ohio.

Twenty States have general county boards of education. The tendency is toward a non-ex-officio, non-professional, non-salaried boards of five members, with a four-year term. The number of States providing for county boards is increasing.

There are three principal units of supervision: The union district found in six States; the supervisory district in three States; and the county unit in the remaining thirty-nine States. The local unit of administration and supervision should be co-extensive, the county being the unit. The district system militates against efficient rural school supervision. It should be abolished in every State and the country unit plan with lay representation for each school substituted for it.

It is very essential that the people have some voice in the administration of their schools. The lay representative should be elected annually for each school by the patrons of the school. He should serve in an advisory capacity to the county board of education.

State and county boards of education, having among other major powers the power to appoint the chief State and county school officers, are to be

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preferred to elected State and county superintendents; because these boards: (1) Are better able to act in a legislative and judicial capacity; (2) develop and sustain to a larger degree the morale of superintendents and teachers; (3) have a greater influence with legislative bodies and the public generally; (4) are more representative of the people, and tend to keep the schools out of partisan politics; (5) are in a position to be more considerate of the professional welfare of the field and office staff; (6) are in a better position to formulate progressive school programs and politics; (7) come to their work without the handicap of ill-will and suspicion on the part of many good people; (8) do more to hasten and extend the consolidation of rural schools; (9) are able to secure and retain for longer periods of time better trained and better paid chief State and county school officers and to provide larger supervising staffs; (10) tend to produce more efficient rural schools—the chief end or purpose of any system of rural school administration and supervision.

Other things being equal, groups of States having all or a major part of the six items that make up the modern State-county board plan (State board, appointed State superintendent, county board, appointed county superintendent, county unit of administration and county unit of supervision) have the most efficient school systems. This can be shown by comparing Ayres' State Index efficiency rating for homogeneous groups of States with their per cent of the items that make up the State-county board plan. For the forty-eight States the coefficient of correlation is very high.

We therefore recommend that the system of elected State and county superintendent of schools be abolished and that there be substituted for it the system of State and county board of education with power to appoint the chief school officers, that local district boards be abolished and that powers be taken over and exercised by a county board and that there be a local lay representative for each school.

A FEW MAJOR OBJECTIVES FOR THE NEXT TEN YEARS TO ACHIEVE IN ORDER THAT THE CHILDREN OF RURAL AMERICA MAY HAVE OPPORTUNITIES FOR EDUCATION EQUIVALENT TO THOSE OF HER CHILDREN IN THE MOST FAVORED URBAN COMMUNITIES

I. The organization of rural departments in all State normal schools, State colleges and universities to train teachers for the rural schools and to prepare principals and superintendents for leadership and supervision in the rural education field. Higher education has failed miserably in this respect.

II. Millions have been poured into the organization and operation of new and untried departments but in most of these institutions little or nothing has been done for the rural schools. The result is that many of the consolidated schools are functioning at a low level on account of poorly or improperly trained teachers and supervisors.

III. The providing for, on the part of the State and Nation, financial aid for the improvement of rural schools. This aid to be distributed on the basis of well-trained teachers, consolidation, high school privileges, and aggregate-days-of-attendance.

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IV. The substituting for the district system the county unit plan, preserving local autonomy by having people elect one lay representative for each school.

THE COUNTY SUPERINTENDENT

H. R. STEINER, STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, STEVENS POINT, WISCONSIN

This office prevails generally throughout the Nation, and the holder of it must be regarded as one of the most important officials in the betterment of rural education. He should:

1. Possess high qualifications, academic and professional, covering at least the following: (a) Graduation from university, college or normal school; (b) at least one year of professional training; (c) at least two years experience in rural schools; (d) executive ability; (e) tact, sympathy, and enthusiasm; (f) qualities of leadership, combined with a sense of humor (g) plus condition of health.

2. Be selected by a County School Board or a County Board of Education, the members of which are to be equitably distributed geographically and elected by the people.

3. Have a sufficient number of assistants for supervisory work to be appointed by the County Board of Education from nominations made by the County Superintendent.

4. Be given adequate powers of administration: (a) Power to nominate teachers for the several districts to be appointed by the County Board of Education; (b) power to make all arrangements governing the transportation of pupils subject to the approval of the County Board of Education, (c) power to insist that buildings, grounds, and equipment conform to State standards; (d) to ask and secure the necessary reports from teachers; (e) maintain the proper relationships with the State Department of Education and the United States Bureau of Education.

5. Be given general power of supervision of instruction: (a) Inspect actual work of the teachers and rank them according to established standards; (b) improve teachers in service through teachers' meetings and teachers' institutes; (c) direct the professional reading of his teachers; (d) organize curricula to meet needs of the community; (e) provide ways and means of giving the standard tests; (f) organize and, by and with the coöperation of his teachers, carry on community center work, including health and recreational activities.

6. Be given adequate financial support: (a) Adequate salary for himself, assistants, and clerks in order to secure best type of service; (b) yearly allowance for transportation, postage, stationery, and other office supplies.

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CERTIFICATION

SAM A. BAKER, STATE SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION
JEFFERSON CITY, MISSOURI

Order is the first law of progress. Success calls for an agreed method of procedure. Impartiality is absolutely necessary in dealing with the people at large and is reached only by a uniform course of action. To be recognized as one fitted to perform special duties in which the welfare of the individual and the state are concerned there must be in the possession of the person, who renders such service, a document, setting forth the legal rights involved. To obtain such a document necessitates sufficient preparation, a test of ability, and officiating authority. These are the fundamental principles of teacher certification.

Throughout the country certification is commonly made legally valid for county, city, or State, the official granting authority being vested in city, county, or State superintendent. In some States Boards of Education or school committees are given such authority.

Immorality, incompetency, or breach of contract on the part of the teacher is made cause for the revoking of certificates in the several States, which however must be done according to due process of law. But contracts in all States may be dissolved by mutual agreement.

ISSUANCE OF CERTIFICATES

1. Certificates are issued by examination under competent authority.
2. Certificates are issued to graduates of teacher-training institutions and to college graduates who have taken prescribed teacher-training courses.
3. Certificates are issued, limited in time, to graduates of county training schools and teacher-training courses in high schools.
4. Some attendance at a professional training school is a pre-requisite in most States to the granting of legal qualification.
5. A premium is put on attendance at teacher-training institutions by the renewal of certificates without examination, or the granting of a higher form of certificate without further examination.
6. The trend in the issuance of certificates is now towards the certification of teachers by the State Department of Education on the basis of graduation from teacher-training institutions—a most commendable movement.

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TESTS AND MEASUREMENTS IN RURAL SCHOOLS[1]

FRED D. CRAM, TESTS AND MEASUREMENTS, EXTENSION DIVISION
IOWA STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE, CEDAR FALLS, IOWA

A. Scope of the field.
  I. Maximum survey.
    1. All rural schools in United States.
      a. One-teacher schools.
      b. Consolidated schools.
  II. Minimum survey.
    1. Sampling of schools.
      a. One one-teacher school in 100, or one to a county.
      b. All consolidated schools.

B. Present conditions unsatisfactory and inadequate.
  I. From teacher's standpoint.
    1. Little or no preparation.
      a. For selection of tests.
      b. For administration of tests.
      c. For interpretation of results.
      d. For remedial measures.
    2. Too busy.
    3. No funds.
    4. No sympathetic support from officers.
    5. No interest.
  II. From superintendent's or supervisor's standpoint.
    1. County superintendent usually sole supervisor—too far removed for close supervision.
    2. No other supervision possible generally—Exceptions: New Jersey, Ohio, etc.
    3. No preparation for the work.
    4. Often has no funds.
    5. Labors against apathy.
      a. Teachers.
      b. School officers.
      c. Budgetary officials.
  III. From school officer's standpoint.
    1. No understanding or misunderstanding of problem and procedure.
    2. No interest.
    3. Low funds.

C. Recommendations.
  I. Courses in tests and measurements required in all teacher-training schools.
    1. Test procedure.
    2. Statistical interpretation and use.
    3. Remedial measures.
  II. Courses in institutes and other short courses.
  III. Correspondence and credit extension for those in service.
  IV. Budget for examination, diagnosis, and reclassification.
  V. Educational campaign to convince general public.

D. Legislation.
  I. No additional statutory authority save financial support is needed in most States—certainly not in Iowa. Financial support depends a little too much on local sympathy and understanding.
  II. Recommended National Committee.
    1. Chairman for United States.
      a. In sympathy with rural life.
      b. In sympathy with testing movement.
      c. With knowledge of both.

[1] Professor Cram's excellent contribution is printed in full in Iowa State Teachers' College Bulletin, Vol. XXIII, No. 3, Part I, published in July, 1922.

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2. Vice-chairman. One to a group of 5 States, 10 in all.
3. State directors.
4. Numerous examiners and administrators.
   a. For tests of attainment.
   b. For tests of intelligence.
5. Training course.
   a. For examiners.
   b. At State school.
   c. At State expense. (Not including living expenses.)
   d. Maximum course twelve weeks for novices.
   e. Minimum course two weeks for experienced.

SUMMARY OF THE COMPLETE REPORT ON TESTS AND MEASUREMENTS IN RURAL SCHOOLS

The work of this committee was done in Iowa by Fred D. Cram, Iowa State Teachers' College, Extension Division; in New Hampshire by S. S. Brooks, District Superintendent, Winchester. Mr. Cram's report shows present status of rural schools as measured by standardized tests. Mr. Brooks' shows instructional and administrative uses of tests over a term of years.

The Iowa report has to do with testing Bath Township, Cerro Gordo County; Aurelia Consolidated School, Cherokee County; the rural and consolidated schools of Black Hawk County; and comparative scores from other places. Tests were made in general intelligence, reading, arithmetic, penmanship, spelling, history, geography, Iowa geography, and language.

The results are uniformly low in scholarship in one-teacher schools, and not much better in grade schools examined. Intelligence runs about the same in county as in town. Girls almost always make a better showing than boys. This is true of all subjects, including history and arithmetic. Danish children, in one township examined, test higher in general intelligence than the other children of the district. There is no striking difference between children living in town and those living in the country, in either attainment or general intelligence.

Tests of teachers and prospective teachers in silent reading and general intelligence show these groups to be about average in performance. They cannot be spoken of as a "highly selected group."

Children from five Iowa counties, tested by Monroe's Silent Reading Test, Form 2, during 1920 and 1921, returned the following scores in rate of reading:

	Grade									
	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Rural	24	57	67	76	76	95	..	..	..	..
Graded	20	42	68	76	79	107	71	72	74	76
Consolidated	13	39	65	76	78	90	71	72	78	72
Norms	63	77	98	116	130	133	84	90	98	104

and in comprehension:

	Grade									
	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Rural	3	8	11	11	13	15	..	..	..	..
Graded	3	6	11	12	13	20	17	19	22	25
Consolidated	3	5	11	11	13	17	17	21	23	21
Norms	8	13	17	18	26	28	25	28	31	33

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Repeatedly, the results show that, within certain limits, the younger the child in a grade, the better he is scholastically, and the higher his I. Q. Older pupils in grades are usually of low native capacity, in the opinion of teachers, and as revealed by tests.

The next big problem of the consolidated school is to improve instruction, so far as Iowa is concerned. The task up to now has been the organization of districts, and the development of curricula and courses of study. Teachers must be specially trained, must have the "rural viewpoint," and must study their problem more carefully. Superintendents must have more time to supervise, and must be able to do it. Most of them at present are at best "teaching principals," and often are nothing more than "head teachers." Occasionally, the last given title is rather flattering, when one considers the so-called superintendent's actual position in the school. Boards of Education must pay the salaries necessary to secure adaptable teachers, and must supply them with more and better equipment. The school buildings are usually excellent—new and usable. Frequently, the equipment is lacking; sometimes, when supplied, it is not used.

Reading scores at Aurelia were greatly improved by a systematic campaign to make better silent readers. The results were as follows, fractions dropped if less than .5. Rate is given first, comprehension last.

	Grade									
	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1921	..	67	87	84	90	107	83	81	115	86
1922	44	93	98	98	119	133	86	86	109	125
Norm	52	70	87	90	100	106	83	85	90	96
1921	..	12	15	18	17	21	26	28	30	35
1922	6	15	18	24	29	28	23	29	40	35
Norm	7	13	18	19	23	26	23	25	27	30

These figures show what consistent effort can accomplish.

A set of suggestions for improving silent reading in the Black Hawk County rural schools brought the following results. Form 1 of Monroe was given in the fall, Form 2 in the spring. Fractions are dropped if less than .5. Rate is given first, followed by comprehension.

	Grade					
	3	4	5	6	7	8
Fall	26	46	62	63	67	89
Norm	52	70	87	90	100	106
Spring	56	67	83	89	94	110
Norm	60	79	94	96	104	108
Fall	3	6	12	13	15	19
Norm	7	13	18	19	23	26
Spring	10	12	15	16	20	27
Norm	9	15	21	21	25	27

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The improvement is probably due to maturation, familiarity with testing, familiarity with administration, and improvement in method.

Idaho test results, as found by Messrs. Madsen and Harlan, show the rural schools of that State to be lower than the graded schools in silent reading.

Arithmetic tests show the rural schools, and to varying extent graded schools, are weak in fundamental operations, poor in long division, and very unsatisfactory in fractions of the simplest kind.

Tests given by teachers in arithmetic and silent reading bring higher results than those secured by the specialist, but not greatly so. Teachers show the greatest difference when the time is short. They seem to do better when the time is such that a few seconds difference in time make no great difference in results.

Older children in lower grades can add and subtract more rapidly and with greater accuracy than their younger classmates, frequently; probably on account of the practice element. They have gone through the operations so frequently that they have picked up certain combinations regardless of the quality of instruction.

Such subjects as spelling and writing, which are relatively easily standardized and taught, are not handled much better than, perhaps not as well as, the more complicated subjects. Writing scored reasonably high in Black Hawk County.

Locational Geography of the U. S. is well taught in some schools, poorly in others. Perhaps this subject varies as much as any according to teacher. Drill on placing States and Cities bring worth while improvement.

An improvised Iowa Geography Test revealed to the teachers the weakness of their pupils and the laxness of their teaching in respect to things local.

Rural pupils tested fairly well in the use of the common language forms.

An attempt to improve instruction in Music, following the use of the Fullerton Music Test, brought definite results, in the form of improvement.

NOTE—Extracts may be made from the Conclusions and Recommendations if desired.

OBJECTIVES FOR A TEN-YEAR PERIOD

I. A determination of the minimum essentials of education, dictated by social betterment and not by arbitrary mandate.

II. Shaping of the school day, the week, the term, and the year, as well as the development-age at which withdrawal from school could be permitted, to provide these essentials.

III. Consolidation of schools as rapidly and as fully as circumstances warrant with a high-school education for all who can profit thereby.

IV. Provision for recreation and leisure-time activities, with intelligent direction thereof.

V. Sufficient salaries to tempt teachers to the rural communities, good housing and other living conveniences.

A minimum salary should be worked out scientifically, on some such plan as the following: (1) provision for satisfactory board, clothing, and shelter;

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(2) provision for growth in service; (3) interest on the investment incurred in securing an education; and (4) provision for saving enough each year to create an estate of at least $12,000 in 25 years of service.

This takes no account of differences in teachers as to length of service, development, adaptability, personality, efficiency, and the like; all of which attributes should demand a wage. Superintendents would get additional salary for managerial ability, just as any other foreman does.

PUTTING STANDARDIZED TESTS TO PRACTICAL USE

This is a report of how standardized tests have been put to practical use in a newly organized New Hampshire Supervisory district over a period of three years. We have many reports of surveys of city school systems by means of standardized tests and these reports are usually accompanied by recommendations for improving unfavorable conditions found to exist. We hear of many spasmodic and limited attempts to put such tests to practical use by principals and individual teachers who are awaking to the need for objective measurement of classroom work. However, so far as the writer is aware, he is the first superintendent to carry out a fairly complete testing program to its logical conclusion, throughout an entire supervisory district and for a period of years.

Three times a year—fall, midyear, and spring—tests in all the elementary school subjects for which well-standardized tests and scales are available have been given to all the elementary school children in his district above the second grade. The results of these tests have been used, (1) for classification of pupils, (2) for measuring progress of pupils in their studies, (3) as a partial basis for promotion, (4) for motivating school work, (5) for measuring the efficiency of teachers, (6) for evaluating teaching methods, and (7) for diagnostic purposes.

For the most part the tests used were as follows:

Monroe's Silent Reading Tests.
Courtis' Silent Reading Test.
Woody's Arithmetic Scales.
Monroe's Reasoning Test in Arithmetic.
Ayres' Spelling Scale.
Monroe's Timed Sentence Spelling Tests.
Ayres' Handwriting Scale (Gettysburg Edition).
Thorndike's Visual Vocabulary Scales.
Holley's Sentence Vocabulary Scale.
Charters' Language Scales.
Starch's Geography Test.
Hahn-Lackey Geography Scale.
Courtis' Supervisory Tests in Geography.
Starch's History Test.
Harlan History Test.
Hahn History Scale.

HOW THE TESTING WAS DONE

Most of the work of giving and scoring the tests was done by the teachers. Since nearly all the teachers in the beginning were entirely unfamiliar with standardized tests and their uses, a series of teachers' meetings was held

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to arouse the interest and enthusiasm of the teachers—and to train them in giving and scoring the tests. These meetings were so successful that the intelligent and interested coöperation of practically all the teachers was secured from the start so that the amount of carelessness and inaccuracy in giving and scoring even the first batch of tests was surprisingly small.

After giving the tests, correcting the papers, marking the score plainly in the upper right hand corner of the front page of every test, and putting all the tests of each pupil together, the teacher delivered them to the superintendent for recording the results.

RECORDING RESULTS OF TESTS

The results of the tests for each testing period are recorded on specially designed graph cards which show at a glance the pupil's standing, in any or all subjects tested, in relation to his grade line. (See Fig. 1.) That is, they show in terms of grades how far above or below grade each individual pupil is in each study at the time of giving the test.

The "Class Record Sheets" accompanying most of the tests on the market were discarded early in the game as unsuited to our purpose. In the first place they take too much time. In the second place, they deal primarily with class scores while we are concerned chiefly with scores of individual pupils. In the third place, they are cumbersome for filing and for reference. Even supposing the names and scores of individual pupils are recorded on such sheets, there must be a separate sheet for each kind of test. Hence, if a battery of twenty tests are given at each testing period, it is necessary to search through twenty class record sheets in order to get a pupil's complete record for that period and even then the record is in point scores rather than in grade scores and so is not very significant or easily interpreted.

On the other hand, the above-mentioned graph card enables all the scores of a pupil in all the tests for a whole year to be recorded on a single small card that can be easily filed, quickly referred to, and readily interpreted.

Upon receiving the corrected tests from the teachers, the superintendent transfers the scores to the graph cards. This is easily and rapidly done since each pupil's tests are together and the scores plainly marked on the front page of each test sheet.

Figure 1 shows a graph card with the actual graph records of a pupil in one of our schools, together with the directions for use (Fig. 2, which are printed on the back of every card. Figure 1 illustrates and explains clearly our method of recording the scores of individual pupils in graphic form on a single card. Class records may be kept in a similar manner by using the median class scores instead of individual scores in making the graphs. If the standing of the several grades throughout a school system is desired, it is only necessary to ascertain the median score in each subject for each grade and to use these scores in making the graphs. For instance, if it is desired to show the average standing of all the fifth grades in a school system relative to established standards, the median scores of all the fifth grade classes in each subject are combined and transferred to a graph card in the same manner as individual scores.

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After the graph cards are made out in the superintendent's office, they are sent out to the teachers who make copies of them for their own use and guidance. Then the cards are returned to the superintendent's office and filed by schools, grades, and classes. As a result, the superintendent has on file in his office the complete record of every pupil in his district and each teacher has duplicate records of her own particular pupils. It will be noted that the graph card has spaces for recording the age, birthday, grade, mental age, and intelligence quotient of the pupil so that it takes but a minute or two for teacher or superintendent to look up all these facts concerning a pupil as well as his grade standing. This information might well be supplemented by facts concerning the child's physical record, parents' nationality, and occupation, home living conditions, etc.

USE OF RESULTS

The various ways in which these recorded results have been used for improving the schools are outlined below.

For grading purposes—Due to injudicious promoting and lack of definite standards, it will usually be found on making a survey with standardized tests for the first time in a school system, that the pupils are poorly graded. That is, many pupils will be found working, or trying to work, in grades above where they belong, and a goodly number doing work considerably below that of which they are capable of doing. The former are usually dull pupils, while the latter are usually the brighter ones. We used the results of our first tests as a basis for regrading the schools. In most cases the pupils were placed in the grades in which their graph cards indicated that they belonged. For instance, if a pupil's graph showed him to be fairly well up to fifth-grade standards at the beginning of the school year, he was placed in the sixth grade. Although some further changes had to be made, as experience dictated, the regrading on the whole has proved very satisfactory. For the most part the pupils have made normal progress and, contrary to our expectations, there was little objection or adverse criticism from parents at the time of the readjustment. In the few cases where disgruntled parents objected strongly to necessary demotion, a frank examination with them of the pupils' standing as shown on their graph cards usually served to convince them that such demotion was necessary and for the best interests of all concerned.

Another use made of the tests in this connection is in helping to place pupils who come into the schools from other places. The greatly varying grade standards in different school systems wherein standardized tests are not used, makes the proper placing of such children a real problem if it is to be accomplished economically. A child may bring a card showing that he has been doing satisfactory work in the sixth grade in the school which he has left. So he is placed in that grade in the school to which he comes. After trial of two or three weeks it is found that he cannot do the work and he is sent back to the fifth grade, where he can barely keep up. A few tests in the

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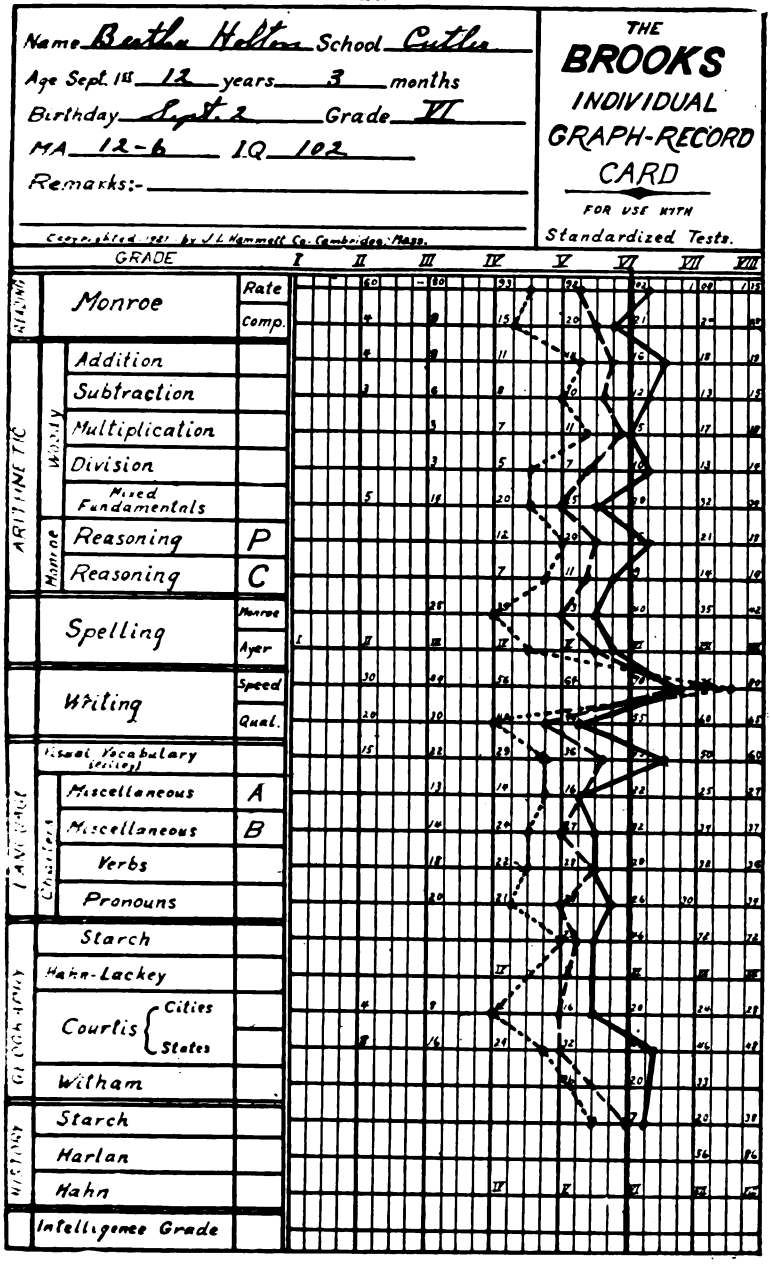


Fig. 1—*Pupil's card with ratings for each testing period*

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The Brooks Individual Graph Record Card

DIRECTIONS FOR USE

The horizontal lines on the graph card opposite the names of the tests are the "Test Lines." The vertical lines headed by Roman Numerals are the "Grade Lines." At the intersection of grade lines with test lines are printed the Standard Scores. For instance, the 5th grade standard score for Rate of Silent Reading is 93. The 6th grade score for Comprehension of Reading is 21. The 4th grade score in division is 5, and so on. In the Ayres Spelling Scale and the Hahn-Lackey Geography Scale the standard scores vary with the column from which the words or questions are chosen. Hence no scores could be printed for those tests. The grade numerals are repeated on these test lines merely for convenience. The standard score farthest to the left on any test line indicates the lowest grade in which that test is given. For instance, Monroe's Reasoning Test in Arithmetic is not used below the 4th grade, and Harlan's History Test is not used below the 7th grade.

The score of each test paper should be marked plainly on the front page and the papers sorted into piles so that each pupil's test papers are all together. Then these piles may be collected into a single pile and placed at the recorder's left. In this way the papers may be taken in order and yet each pupil's graph completed before taking up the next.

Suppose the test papers at the top of the pile are Mary Smith's. Fill in her name, age, grade, school, etc. on one of the blank cards. Since she is in the 5th grade draw a heavy line with a soft pencil over the 5th grade line on the card. This heavy verticle line represents the Pupil's Grade Line. Then take the first paper. It is the reading test. Her score for Rate of Reading is 93. Glancing at the card we find that 92 is the standard rate score of the 5th grade. Place a heavy dot at the intersection of the 5th grade line Reading Test line for rate. Her score for Comprehension is 17. This is about half way between the 4th and 5th grade standard scores for comprehension so place a dot on the test line halfway between the 4th and 5th grade lines. Her score in Addition is 16. This is the standard score for the 6th grade. Place a dot at the intersection of the 6th grade line with the Addition test line. Her score in Subtraction is 11. This is halfway between the standard scores for the 5th and 6th grades. Place a dot halfway between the 5th and 6th grade lines. Her score in Multiplication is 12. This is one fourth of the way between the 5th and 6th grade scores. Place a dot one fourth of the distance from the 5th grade line toward the 6th grade line, and so on for each of this pupil's tests. Then connect the dots by straight lines and the graph is complete. The points on the graph which fall to the left of the Pupil's Grade Line indicate in what subjects the pupil is below grade and how much below. Vice versa for those points which fall to the right.

The spaces between grade lines are divided by fine lines into fourths to facilitate interpolation of scores. The work of recording the scores as above described can be done very rapidly with a little practice. It is but half a minute's work to draw in a graph after the dots are located.

If the graphs are drawn in different colors the records of several periodical tests can be placed on a single card. In giving the tests three times a year, Sept., Feb., and June, the author made each card hold a pupil's record of progress for the year, with graph lines of red, blue and green.

Each teacher should be furnished with duplicates of the cards of her particular pupils, in order that she may discover and remedy the weaknesses of individual pupils. The author has found that copies of their graphs in the hands of the pupils themselves furnish one of the strongest of motivating influences in school work when the pupils know that they are going to be tested at regular intervals and the results of each test compared with their former records, and progress or lack of progress noted. They motivate the teacher's work as well. Everybody appreciates the definite visualized standards of accomplishment which these cards help to provide.

The tests named on the card are by no means the only good tests on the market. But after trying out on a large scale practically all of the tests available which were sufficiently well standardized, the author has selected these as being best suited to this particular scheme of measuring classroom products and the efficiency of teachers and recording results.

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Fig. 2—*Directions on back of Pupil's Rate Card*

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beginning, in a system wherein standardized tests are used as a regular feature of administration and supervision, would have placed the child at once where he belonged without annoyance or loss of time.

Measuring the progress of pupils—In our scheme, a full battery of tests, covering all the elementary school subjects for which sufficiently well standardized tests are available, is given three times a year; in the fall to get a starting point for the year's work, at midyear to see whether proper progress is being made, and in the spring for promotion purposes. Each graph card contains a pupil's test record for a year. As shown in Figure 1 there are three graphs on a card; one for each test period. By making each graph a different color the results of each test period are discriminated and the amount of progress in each subject, or phase of a subject, is clearly shown. Moreover, the amount of progress is shown in terms of grades rather than in point scores. And herein lies the most important feature of the graph card scheme, in that graphing the results of tests as shown in Figure 1 automatically translates point scores into grade scores which are much more significant. Take for instance the pupil's scores in Division in Figure 1. At the beginning of the year his score was six on the Woody Scale. This score means nothing definite until it is compared with standard grade scores. The dotted line shows that his score was half way between fourth and fifth grade standards and that he was a half year below grade in division ability at the beginning of the school year because, being a sixth grade pupil, he should be able to meet fifth grade standards at the beginning of the year. At midyear, this pupil's score in Division was 8, or two more than at the beginning of the year. However, this difference of 2 indicates nothing definite as to the pupil's progress in division ability until it is translated into terms of grades. The dash line shows at a glance that the pupil made three fourths of a normal year's progress in the first half year. In other words, it shows that he is making rapid progress in this phase of his school work. In like manner, the solid line shows that he made about the same amount of progress during the last half of the school year and that he was a fourth of a year above his grade standard at the end of the year. The total progress for the year in division ability is shown to be $1\frac{3}{4}$ grades.

For promotion purposes—The graphed results of the June tests show whether or not the pupil has come fairly close to meeting grade standards in all subjects and is ready for promotion to the next higher grade. If this graph averages pretty close to the pupil's grade line as indicated on the graph card, he is ready for promotion unless there are other known considerations which makes such promotion doubtfully desirable.

Although the results of the tests are probably not always valid as a sole basis of promotion, they are certainly of great help when used for this purpose in conjunction with the teacher's marks and judgments and the child's intelligence quotient. In practice we have found that it has aided greatly in cutting down the number of ill-advised promotions of poorly prepared pupils, and in bringing about extra promotions for the brighter pupils who deserve them. Furthermore, the graph records are a great help

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in convincing disgruntled parents that there is a real reason for the non-promotion of their children other than teachers' whims and prejudices, to which parents are often prone to attribute such non-promotion.

We have found that, after the schools have been graded with standardized tests, the great majority of mentally normal and near normal pupils make regular and consistent progress in most of their studies from one test period to another and from year to year.

For estimating efficiency of teachers—Although ability to impart knowledge and skill to their pupils is not the only factor in a teacher's efficiency, nevertheless it is a highly important one. Without it the other factors would be largely impotent so far as giving a child a real education is concerned. And how can the teacher's ability in this respect be measured except by measuring the actual growth of her pupils in skill, knowledge of subject-matter, and reasoning ability? Since standardized tests furnish the best available means of measuring the progress of pupils in their school work, they also measure, at the same time, the efficiency of the teacher as far as her power to develop skill and knowledge in her pupils is concerned. At any rate, with the consent and approval of most of the teachers in the district we have made the progress of pupils, as measured by standardized tests and recorded on graph cards, a large factor in rating teachers for efficiency. We hold that, given good health, good character, sufficient academic and professional training, interest and enthusiasm in her work, and a fairly attractive personality, the teacher is yet a failure whose pupils do not grow in knowledge, skill and understanding at least as fast as in the average school throughout the country. Hence standardized tests, as measuring fairly and objectively the progress of pupils in their school work, become the ultimate and deciding factor in estimating the teacher's ability to teach.

For evaluating teaching methods—The results of standardized tests are also of value in determining the relative efficiency of special teaching methods. To some extent we have used them for this purpose. For example, we had considerable discussion at one of our teachers' meetings as to whether oral or silent reading drill would develop silent reading ability the more rapidly. It was decided to experiment. Speed and comprehension were agreed upon as the essential factors in efficient silent reading ability. Two teachers were chosen for the experiment of about equal ability as nearly as could be determined; one an advocate of oral reading drill and the other an enthusiast in silent reading drill. Two groups of ten pupils each were selected, all with I. Q.'s between 90 and 110. The average I. Q. of each group was close to a hundred. They were all mentally normal fourth grade pupils. Each teacher was skillful in the use of her own method and worked in her own way. The same amount of time was devoted to silent reading drill in each group. Monroe's Silent Reading Test, Form I, was given by the superintendent to both groups at the beginning of the experiment. At the end of ten weeks, Form II of the same test was given. The results were overwhelmingly in favor of the silent reading group. The increase in rate of reading was nearly twice as great as for the oral reading group and the increase in comprehension

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ability nearly 50 per cent greater. The argument was settled as far as our teachers were concerned. In like manner any other two special methods could be compared as to actual educational results produced by their use in a controlled experiment.

For motivating school work—Our teachers soon discovered the advantage of showing the pupils their graph cards, explaining their use, and discussing with them the results of the tests. In the four upper grades, blank cards were furnished the pupils so that they could make copies of their graphs for their own use and to show to their parents. The graphs can be easily understood even by young children. They can readily see in what subjects they are below grade and are easily interested in trying to bring their work up to par when they know just what "par" means. Time and again I have gone into a schoolroom and found groups of pupils collected around the Willing Composition Scale (tacked to the wall) or comparing samples of their handwriting with those on the Ayers Scale, or drilling each other on lists of troublesome words, or clustered around the teacher's desk eagerly discussing their graph cards and what they should do to improve their work.

There is scarcely a teacher in the district but has testified spontaneously to the increased interest and initiative on the part of the pupils in their daily work. They discover their own weak points by means of the graph cards and seek advice from the teacher as to how they can improve their work in the subjects in which they are not making normal progress. And best of all, they work with a determination to succeed which the vague standards of accomplishment in the average fail to inspire. We are almost unanimously convinced that, in our use of standardized tests and graph cards, we have found a powerful means of motivating the work of the pupils in our schools. Personally I think that this motivating influence on the pupils' work outweighs all other benefits we have derived from the use of the tests. Surely, when we have aroused a real live interest and enthusiasm in the individual pupil, toward the accomplishment of his school tasks we have gone a long way toward solving the greatest problem in education.

Not only has the use of tests awakened interest on the part of pupils but has reacted favorably upon the work of teachers. Definite goals in the way of standard results to be achieved have given them new inspiration and encouragement, and the fact that their own ability as well as that of the pupils is being periodically tested, tends to keep them continually up to the mark in their work.

For diagnostic purposes—The diagnostic values of standardized tests are practically the values that have been most generally realized. And truly these values are great as regards certain tests at least. To find out that a pupil is below grade in addition ability and how much is but a small part of the total problem. It is necessary to know just what combinations of numbers or what types of examples cause his difficulties and are responsible for his low scores if remedial measures are to be economically applied. And the same is true of any other phase of arithmetic ability or of any other study.

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Specific weaknesses must be discovered and corrected if pupils' difficulties are to be overcome with the least expenditure of time and energy.

We have supplemented our regular periodic testing program with many special tests for diagnostic purposes. Some tests are much better than others for this purpose and those that are best suited to diagnosis are not generally the ones that are best suited for a general testing program to measure the progress of pupils in the various subjects. Hence the need for using special tests for diagnosis to a great extent. These tests are used between regular testing periods by the teachers and the results studied by them with a view to helping individual pupils with their special difficulties.

REACTION OF TEACHERS AND PUPILS TO STANDARDIZED TESTS

"I wish to thank you for introducing me to standardized tests and training me in their use. I do not know how I ever got along without them. I should not care to teach without them again."

These may not be the exact words, but they are the substance of what one of my teachers said to me a few days before schools closed for summer vacation last year. Such commendation at the end of two years of comprehensive and periodical use of such tests throughout the district was significant. They gave me an idea which I proceeded to carry out. At our last teachers' meeting for the year I submitted a questionnaire with the purpose of ascertaining in what specific respects standardized test had been of help to teachers in their school work. These papers were carefully analyzed and the advantages of the tests, as set forth by the teachers, listed under the following heads in the order of frequency of mention:

	Times mentioned
1. Value in motivating the work of the pupils	32
2. Diagnostic value	29
3. Value as a means of periodical accounting	26
4. Value as a basis for promotions	17
5. Value as a means of justifying teachers' work	11
6. Value in placing pupils entering from other schools	9

Only two teachers failed to note the increased industry and interest on the part of the pupils as a direct result of the use of standardized tests. Next to the motivating value of the tests, their diagnostic value is shown to be most in evidence. One of the most welcome advantages of standardized tests to teachers is that they provide definite standards of accomplishment and a means of making a periodical accounting which shows where there has been progress, lack of progress, or regression, and the amount of each since the last test was given. More than half of the teachers mentioned advantages in using the results of the June tests, in connection with the individual graph cards, as a basis for promotion. Another recognized advantage to the teacher in the use of standardized tests is that they furnish her a potent weapon with which to defend her work from unjust criticisms of superintendent or citizens. It is results we are after and the teacher whose work shows up well when measured by the tests has a right to feel sure of her

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ground when defending herself against charges of inefficiency by superintendent or parents. Nine teachers had occasion to use the tests in finding the proper grade in which to place pupils entering their schools from other towns outside the district. The aforementioned advantages of standardized tests to the elementary school teacher have been proved in actual practice in this district by teachers with no previous training in their use, with no preconceived ideas in their favor, and in some cases with actual aversion to any such innovation.

Most of the pupils, above the three lower grades at least, furnished concrete evidence by word or deed that they appreciated having definite standards of accomplishment in the different subjects. Furthermore, they evinced not only willingness but eagerness to have their work measured from time to time that they might know how near they were approaching to their objectives, namely, the grade standards for the end of the year. They knew they must measure pretty well up to the standards in order to be promoted. The periodical test periods were approached, not in fear and trembling, but with genuine enthusiasm. Time after time when I have arrived at a school during intermission the children have gathered around me eagerly inquiring when we were going to give some more tests.

TIME REQUIRED FOR TESTING PROGRAM

For the benefit of superintendents and others who pretend they haven't time to carry on any such program as that outlined above, I will add in conclusion, some of the facts concerning the actual amount of time required. Our teachers are allowed a week in which to give the full battery of tests, correct them, and return them to the superintendent. In less than another week the superintendent, without any clerical help whatever, goes over all the tests and transfers the scores of nearly 1200 children to nearly 1200 graph cards and draws in the graphs. Within two or three days more all the graph cards are in the hands of the teachers. The tests are distributed to the teachers, given and corrected, returned to the superintendent's office, and the graph cards made out and returned to the teachers, all within a period of less than three weeks. This program calls for about three weeks per year of special work on the part of the superintendent after he gets it started; one in the fall, one at midyear, and one in the spring. In the face of these facts it is useless for any superintendent to plead lack of time for such work. It is not time, but something else, that is lacking.

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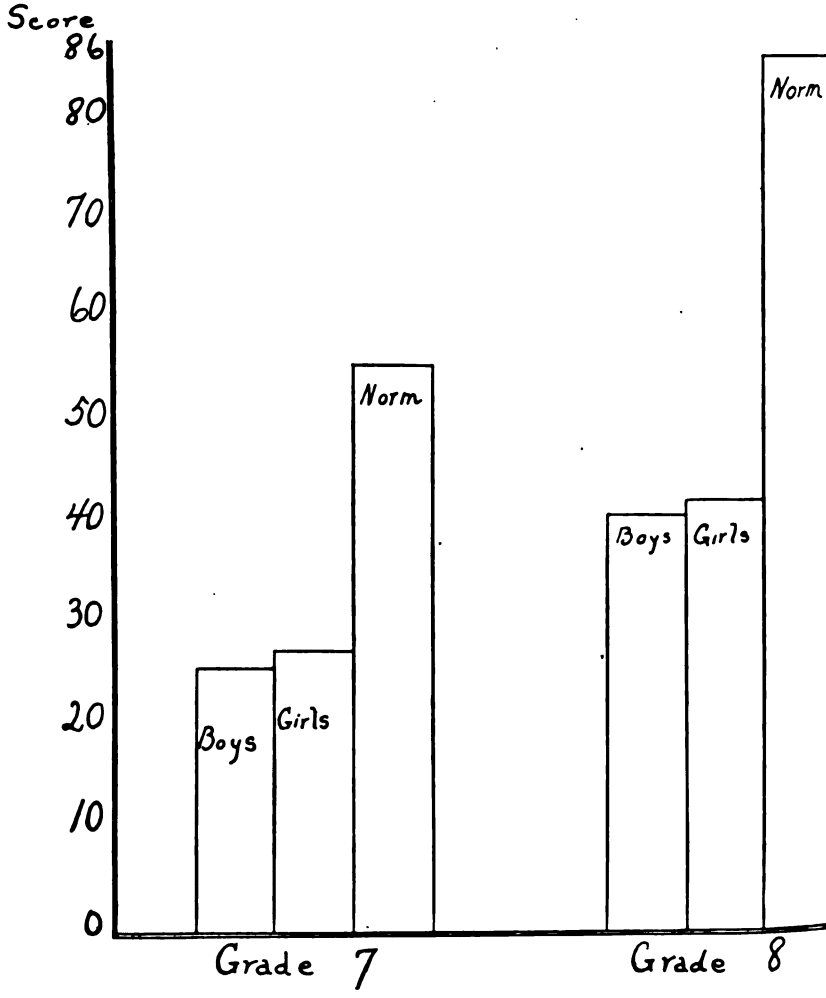


Fig. 3—*Comparison between results in seventh and eighth grades, rural schools of Black Hawk Co., Iowa, 1922. Harlan's Test of Information in U. S. History used. Boys and girls compared as indicated. To accompany Table XXXIII in Bulletin.*

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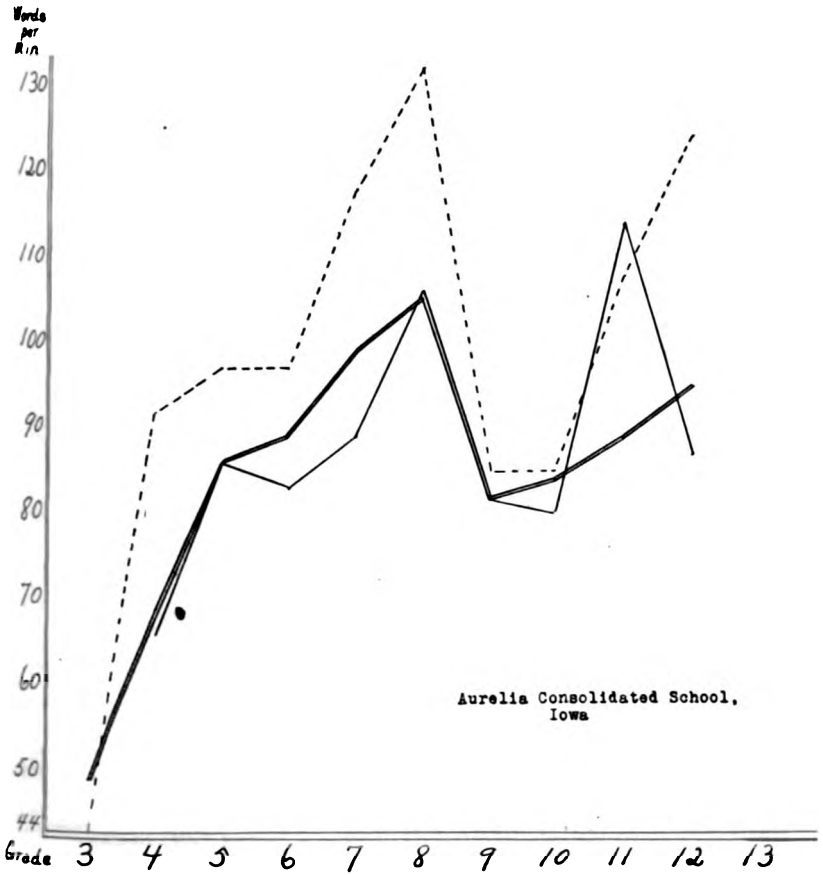


Fig. 4—*Improvement in Monroe Silent Reading Scores, following campaign for development. To accompany Table IXA in Bulletin.*

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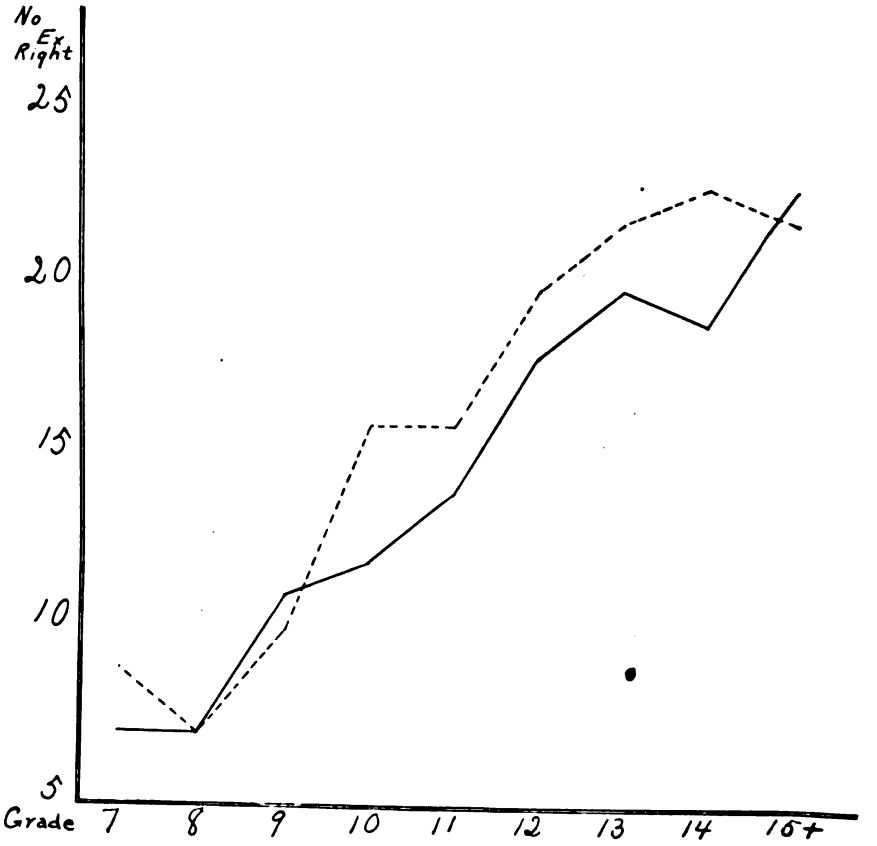


Fig. 5—*Comparison between one-teacher schools and a rural consolidated school in addition combinations, test A, Cleveland Survey Test; Black Hawk Co., Iowa. To accompany Table XXVII.*

Solid line = rural medians, by ages.
Broken line = consolidated medians, by ages. (7 = 7 yrs. 0 mo., to 7 yrs., 11 mo.; etc.)
Figures at left indicate number right.
Figures at bottom represent age groups.

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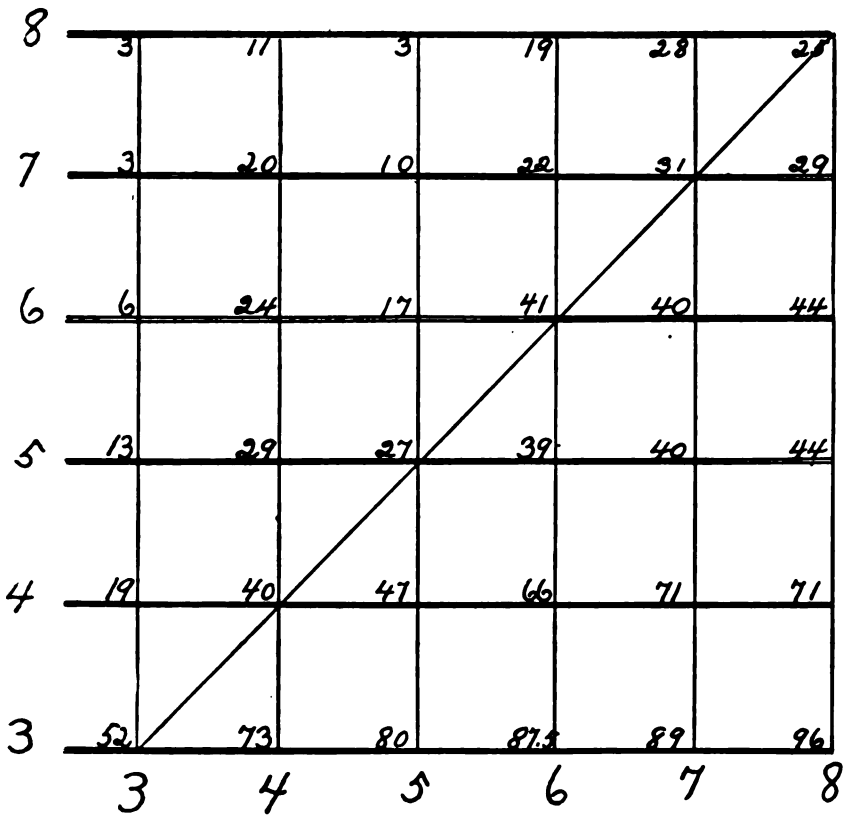


Fig. 6—*Percentages of children in each grade who are up to their own grade norm in reading rate as measured by Monroe Silent Reading Test. A typical Iowa rural county.*

Figures at head of horizontal lines indicate grades, and lines indicate norms, drawn arbitrarily.

Figures at bottom indicate grades of the schools measured.

Graph is read as follows:

52 per cent of measured third grade are up to grade standard; 13 per cent are up to fifth grade standard; and 3 per cent are up to eighth grade standard.

96 per cent of eighth grade are up to third grade standard (leaving 4 per cent in this advanced grade who still read more slowly than the norm for third grade); 71 per cent are up to fourth grade standard; but only 25 per cent are up to the standard for the grade.

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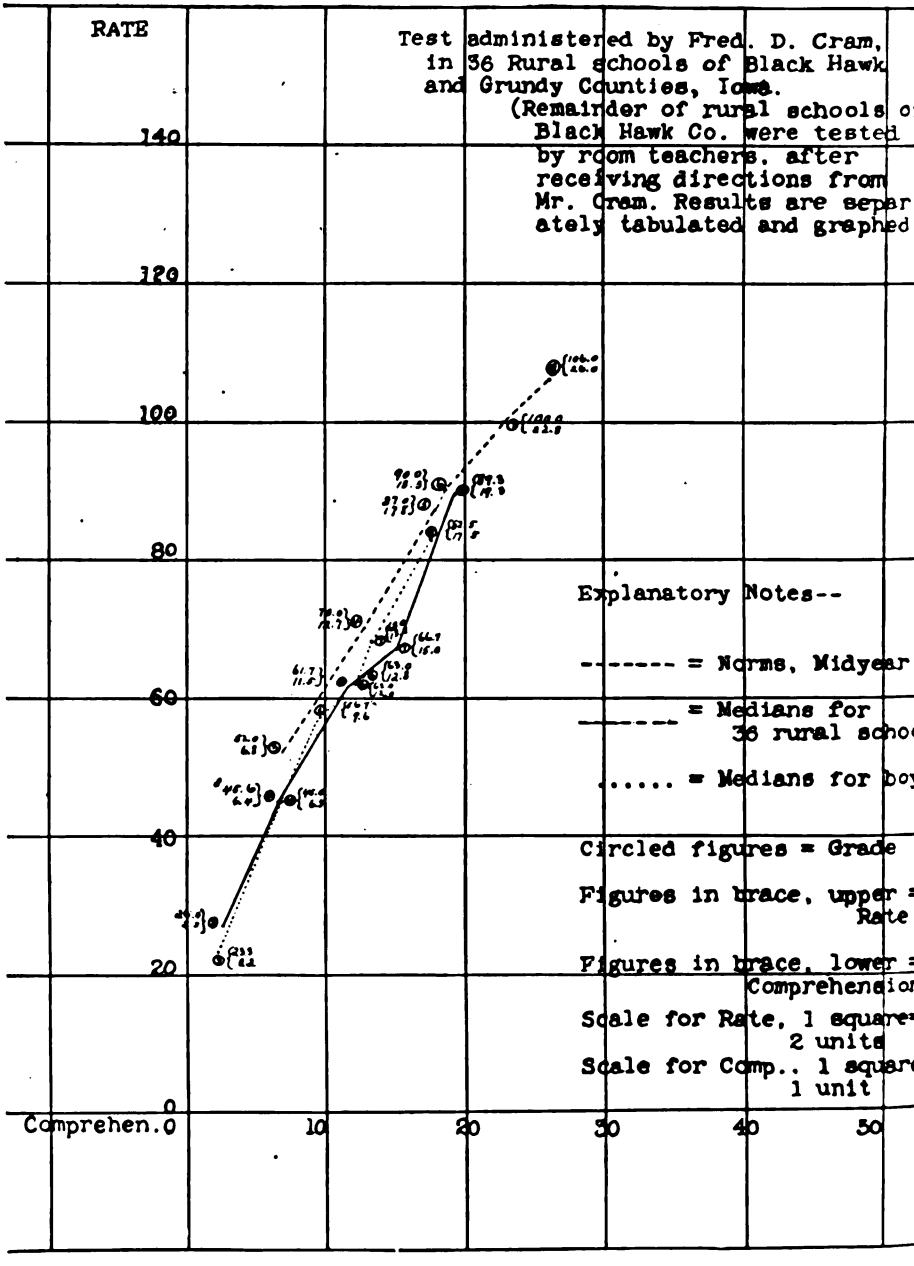


Fig. 7—*Monroe Silent Reading Rate and Comprehension Test, fall term, 1921.*

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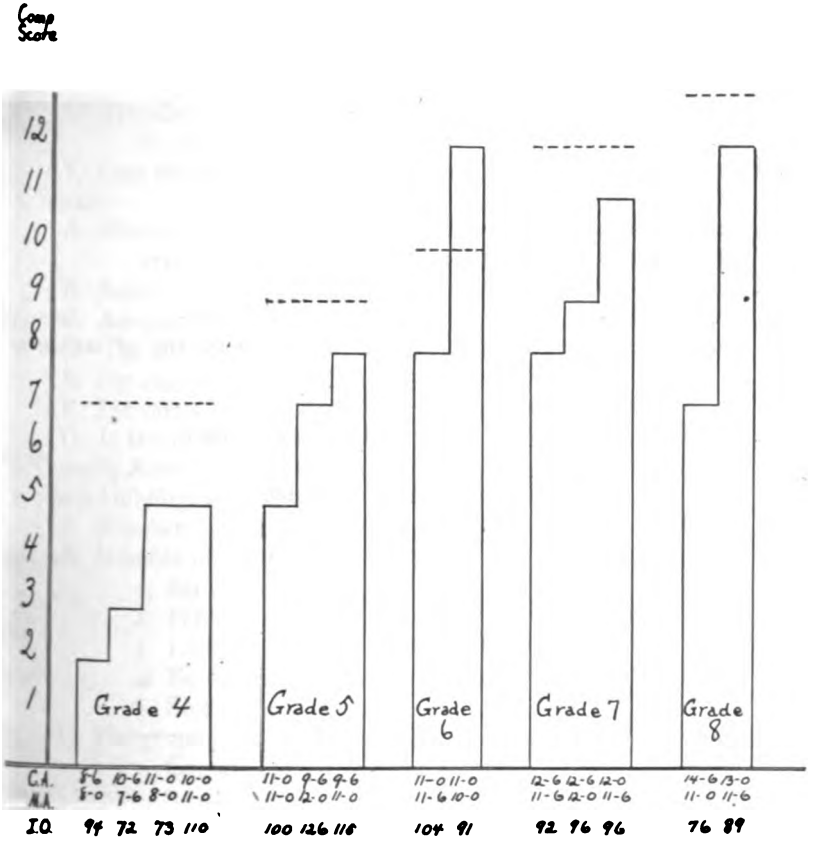


Fig. 8—*How to plat the standings of a rural school. These scores are for comprehension in the revised form of the Monroe Silent Reading Test. School in Calhoun Co., Iowa.*

Each vertical column represents one pupil.
C.A. indicates chronological age.
M.A. indicates mental age.
I.Q. is also shown.
Dotted horizontal lines indicate norms in Illinois examination.

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SUGGESTIONS FOR COUNTY SURVEYS

KATHERINE M. COOK, SPECIALIST IN RURAL EDUCATION, U. S. BUREAU OF EDUCATION, WASHINGTON, D. C.

COUNTY COMMUNITY SURVEY

1. Geographic factors.
    1. Accessibility.
    2. Soil and other natural resources.
    3. Climate.
2. Ethnic factors.
    1. Race prevailing.
    2. Minor racial groups.
    3. History of settlement.
3. Cultural factors.
    1. Literacy.
    2. Church membership-percentage of members, and of regular attendants.
    3. Subscribers to a large city daily paper.
    4. Red Cross, County Nurse and Health Centers.
4. Social factors.
    1. Social centers—What? Where located?
    2. Type forms of social intercourse.
    3. Percentage of families owning motor cars.
5. Economic factors.
    1. Per capita wealth.
    2. Products—per capita income.
    3. Taxation.
    4. Great facilities.
    5. Markets.

COUNTY EDUCATIONAL SURVEY

1. Administration.
    A. Kind of organization (town, county, district, etc.).
    B. Is there a county board of education?
    C. Facilities provided by rural and consolidated high schools.
2. Organization of schools.
    A. 6-3-3.
    B. 6-6.
    C. 8-4.
    D. 6-2-4.
3. Number of schools.
    A. One-teacher.
    B. Two-teachers, etc.
    C. How many consolidated and rural high schools?
4. Schools in session.
    A. Pupils enrolled—(total number of boys and girls whose names are on registers, counting each name once).

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B. Aggregate attendance—(sum of all days attended by all pupils in all schools during entire year).
C. Average daily attendance—(to secure average daily attendance for group of schools, add together the average daily attendance of each school and divide by the number of schools).
D. Number of days schools were in session—(only the number of days schools were open for instruction, excluding legal and religious holidays).
E. Attendance: percentage of enrolment—(how can this percentage be increased?)
F. Loss to district by non-attendance.

5. Support.
A. Sources of support by taxation—local, district, town, county and State.
B. Amount from other source.
C. Amount and percentage from each source.
D. Taxable wealth per school child.
E. Per capita cost—based on enrolment.
F. Per capita cost—based on average daily attendance.
G. Is farm tenancy a factor?

6. Compare *Rural* with *Urban* on Points 3 and 4 and 5 (graph).

7. School buildings and grounds.
A. Number conforming to State standard.
B. Number not conforming to State standard.
1. Sanitation.
2. Heating.
3. Lighting.
4. Equipment, including hot lunch.
6. Size in relation to accommodation of children.
C. Playground and playground equipment.
1. Grounds.
a. Area—does this provide for playground and garden?
b. Is there playground equipment?

NOTE—In States which have no other standard the Butterworth or Strayer-Engelhardt score card may be used.

D. Teacherages—number.

8. Teachers.
A. Number of white teachers.
B. Number of colored teachers.
C. Salaries (number receiving).
1. $500 or less.
2. $500 to $600.
3. $600 to $700.
4. $700 to $800.
5. $800 to $900.
6. $900 to $1000.
7. $1000 or more.

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D. Qualifications, number of teachers having:
   1. Elementary education only (eighth grade).
   2. Less than high school diploma.
   3. High school graduates only.
   4. One year additional to high school training in a professional school.
   5. Two years additional to high school training in a professional school.
   6. Three years additional to high school training in a professional school.

E. Teachers using intelligence and subject-matter tests.
F. Professional reading of teachers.
G. Other means of training in services, summer schools, correspondence work, etc.
H. Average tenure of teachers.
I. Estimated quality of instruction found in schools.

9. Total number of pupils in county (pupils accounting).
   A. Number and per cent under age for grade.
   B. Number and per cent over age for grade.
   C. Number and per cent normal age for grade.
      (Using September ages, and counting 6 years as normal entrance age for Grade I.)

10. Holding power of the schools.

NUMBER OF CHILDREN IN EACH GRADE BASED ON EVERY 100 IN 1ST GRADE
(Thorndyke)

	Grades											
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Enrolled September 1923	100	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Same January 1924	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Same June 1924	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Expectancy Survival	100	100	100	90	61	68	54	40	27	17	12	..

Do the schools of your county hold the pupils to your satisfaction?

11. Course of study.
   A. Do you follow a standardized course of study?
   B. Is there county or State uniformity of textbooks?
   C. Are agriculture, farm mechanics and home economics taught in your schools in the 7th and 8th grades or above?
   D. What provision is made for stimulating an interest in good literature?

12. Supervision.
   A. Who is the chief supervising and administrative officer?
   B. Number and titles of office assistants.
   C. Number and titles of other supervisors.
   D. Social activities such as Community Center Work-School Societies.

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E. Qualification, experience and salary of superintendents and supervisors.
F. Yearly allowance for transportation, office supplies, etc.
G. Relationship to State Department of Education.

13. Summary and conclusions.
A. Income and expenditure.
B. Preparation and salaries of teachers.
C. Attendance, percentage of enrolment, percentage of attendance, and length of school term.
D. Buildings, equipment and grounds.
E. Supervision and supervisory activities.
F. Adaptability of course of study to needs of community.
G. 1. Percentages of children completing eighth grade.
2. Entering high school and completing high school.
3. Over age children who drop out.
H. Accessibility to consolidated or high schools.
I. Health, recreation, and community centers.
J. Would the defects revealed above be measurably eliminated by the county unit plan?

14. A. Satisfactory. B. Unsatisfactory conditions as revealed by the survey.

15. How does your county compare with other counties in your State? Your State with other States?

16. How can we change what *is* to what *ought to be* in this county?

STANDARDIZATION OF RURAL SCHOOLS

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Definition of standardization—The following definition is a composite formed by a comparative study of the various endeavors on the part of the States, that are at present trying to improve rural school conditions by some form of standardization.

Standardization is an attempt on the part of the chief executive school-head of the State to improve rural school conditions by setting up certain minimum requirements, the fulfillment of which will bring certain results. A school that meets these requirements is usually called a standard school or a first-class school. For the attainment of its standards it is generally rewarded in some way, such as honorable mention, a door plate or a bonus of money. In most States the effort is confined to ungraded rural schools. In a few it includes all rural schools whether ungraded, graded, or consolidated.

Purpose of the movement—The purpose of this movement is, as the definition implies, the improvement of rural schools, especially those of the ungraded type. This improvement is in some States confined only to the

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physical plant. In others it included, in addition to the physical plant, the teacher, certain administrative and supervisory features of the school and community activities.

Scope of the subject—According to data collected in 1922, 34 States are promoting some sort of a plan for the standardization of rural schools. There is specific legal authority for this in 15 States. In the remaining 19 States it is carried on by a broad interpretation of the general duties of the chief executive educational officer of the State. Thirty States print all the details of the requirements for standardization either in department bulletins or on score cards. Thirteen States assign numerical values to the items. A school that meets requirements is sometimes rewarded by a certificate or a door plate bearing the words " Standard School " or given honorable mention in department bulletins. Nine States—Iowa, Minnesota, North Dakota, Pennsylvania, South Dakota, Vermont, Virginia, West Virginia, and Wisconsin, give State aid for meeting the requirements of standardization.

Some achievements of standardization—State departments of education report that the standardization movement has resulted in the improvement of one-teacher schools. In order to meet the improved standards school plots have been expanded providing ample space for playgrounds. Playground equipment has been installed. Old buildings have been remodeled in such a way as to furnish sufficient lighting area, and the proper entrance of light. New buildings have been erected in conformity to the best standards of architecture and sanitation. Outbuildings have been made fly proof, clean and wholesome; and in some instances chemical toilets have been installed within the buildings. Both the physical and instructional equipment have been improved. The length of the school year has been increased. Teachers' salaries have been raised. With the increase in salaries have come better prepared teachers. The good buildings, adequate equipment, and better salaries have been an incentive for good teachers to remain in the same districts from year to year. The average daily attendance has increased. And, best of all, there has been an awakening on the part of the community in education.

F. G. Blair, superintendent of public instruction in Illinois, says that the interest in school improvement aroused by the effort to standardize the one-room school resulted in the passage of the Sanitation Law by the General Assembly in 1915.

Plan of organization—Under organization two items are considered. The first deals with the score card itself. The second, with the manner of administering the plan in the State department. In order that there may be a proper background for the recommendations that follow, it is necessary to consider the existing score cards and the present plans of administering standardization in the various State offices.

1. *Status of the score cards*—An examination of the score cards issued by the various State departments show the following conditions:

(a) A few States score only buildings or buildings and equipment. The rest include most of the other elements that go to make up a good school.

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(b) The items on the score cards are often badly organized. For example, in one State, "the teacher" and "salary of teacher" are both main heads. The second is evidently a sub-head of the first.

(c) The requirements are often indefinite. Such an item as "Good pictures" means nothing unless there is a standard list of pictures from which to choose.

(d) Some score cards are so detailed and complicated that if the teacher enforced all the physical details there would be no time for instruction. Think of a rural school of 30 pupils where at all times the faces and hands of all are clean! It would need one or two assistants in order to live up to all the requirements on some of the score cards.

2. *Status of the administration of standardization*—What is said on the status of the administrative side of the plan is based on answers from questionnaires received from the State departments. In each case the number of replies received to the question is given.

(a) Twenty-eight replies were received on the nature of the standardizing committee. In 14 States it is a representative of the State Department of Education; in ten, the county superintendent together with a representative of the State office; and in the remainder, local authorities.

(b) Twenty-eight replies were received on the length of time for which a school is standardized. Fifteen States reported one year, twelve as long as requirements are lived up to. The other was indefinite.

(c) Twenty-eight States say that detailed records are kept in the State office of all schools standardized; three reported no records. The remaining States failed to report on this item.

(d) The States reported the following means now lacking for an effective promotion of standardization. Lack of financial aid, lack of supervision, better buildings and equipment, more definiteness in standards, sparsely settled areas and time.

Recommendations for improvement—In view of the present conditions of standardization your sub-committee offers the following recommendations for improvement:

1. With reference to legislation:

(a) States not promoting standardization should enact such legislation as will authorize State departments to promote in an effective manner the standardization of one, two, and three teacher rural schools.

(b) States already standardizing schools should make such improvements in existing legislation as will result in a better administration of the same.

(c) In effecting legislation for standardizing rural schools care should be taken that the plan in no way retards consolidation. The right kind of standardization should encourage rather than hinder consolidation. When rightly promoted the people will sooner or later realize that the best school for the country is the standardized consolidated school.

(d) A State or county should not undertake standardization without being assured of the proper machinery for effectively promoting the plan. This involves added office and field helpers and money for traveling.

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(e) Any legislation intended to promote standardization should provide an appropriation sufficient for the efficient administration of the plan in the office of the State department of education. The same is true for the office of county superintendent.

(f) Experience shows that State aid has a stimulating effect in inducing schools to measure up to requirements as well as in encouraging local initiative.

2. With reference to the administration of standardization:

(a) The committee on standardization is most satisfactory when comprised of a representative of the local board of education, the county superintendent and a rural representative of the State Department of Education.

(b) Standardized schools should be checked frequently enough to enable both State and county representatives to know when a school "falls from grace."

(c) A detailed report of all standardized schools should be kept in both the State and county offices.

3. With reference to the score card:

(a) The following items should be considered in scoring a school for efficiency: grounds, buildings, lighting, heating and ventilating, physical and instructional equipment, academic and professional qualifications, teaching ability; personality, salary and living conditions of the teacher; the hygiene of the school plant, important items pertaining to the organization of the schools, community interests and tangible results.

(b) The items on the score cards should be definite but not complicated. They should be logical in their sequence.

(c) Numerical values assist in determining the relative values of the various items on the score card.

Suggestive items for a score card—The following is a summarization of the items found on the score card of the various States. Your sub-committee recommends it as suggestive for State and county superintendents who are interested in improving one-teacher schools by standardization. It anticipates one-teacher schools that are standardized along all lines that contribute towards efficiency. The material is organized about the following ten points: site, buildings, lighting, heating, and ventilating, equipment, the teacher, organization, hygiene of the school plant, community spirit, and results.

I. Site.

A. At least two acres of land as near the geographical center of the district as is consistent with other conditions such as the center of the population, etc.

B. Accessible—avoidance of a hillside.

C. Well-drained, level and fertile.

D. A north or south frontage, if possible.

E. Selection to admit of the best possible light. A site in a narrow valley would make this impossible.

F. Avoidance of troublesome and dangerous nuisances such as street cars, barns, etc.

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G. Setting pleasing in its relation to the surrounding landscape.
H. A practical and artistic arrangement of buildings, playgrounds, agricultural plats, lawns, trees and shrubs.

II. Buildings.
A. School-house.
1. Exterior structure.
a. Type-compliance with school-house plans recommended by the State Department of Education.
2. Interior structure.
a. Number and relation of rooms.
1. Class-rooms.
2. Cloak-rooms.
3. Library.
4. Workrooms.
5. Teachers' room.
b. Walls—ceiled or plastered. Color scheme—cream—buff—light grey.
c. Ceilings—12 feet high. Color scheme—lighter than walls.
d. Floors—boards 2 inches wide, hardwood, double, waxed or oiled.
e. Class-room and workroom—226 cubic feet of air space and 15 square feet of floor space per pupil.
f. Finished basement with windows.
B. Other buildings.
1. Teacherage—comfortable.
2. Substantial fuel house, or provision in basement for fuel.
3. Proper shelter for vehicles.

III. Lighting.
A. Natural.
1. Windows.
a. Placement—in batteries on east or west side—breeze windows, placed near the ceiling either at the rear or opposite windows.
b. Distances from floor—3½ feet from floor—may extend to ceiling.
c. Adjustable—sashes on weights.
d. Glass area—one fourth of floor space for north latitudes; one fifth for south latitudes.
e. Shades—adjustable, translucent, light color.
B. Artificial.
1. Safe, adequate light for community meetings and dark days.

IV. Heating and ventilating.
A. Basement furnace or a standard heating and ventilating system or a jacketed stove with a fresh and foul air inlet and outlet.
B. Flues—safe.

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C. Thermometer.
1. Tested.
2. Suspended from ceiling in the center of the room or automatic control of furnace.

V. Equipment.
A. Outdoor.
1. Flag, at least 4 x 6 feet in size, mounted on staff, at least ten feet from ground.
2. Play ground apparatus.
a. Equipment for baseball and either basket-ball or volley-ball.
b. At least three of the following pieces of apparatus —ropes and rings, giant stride, coaster stride, swings, horizontal bars or teeter-board.

B. Indoor.
1. Pupils' desks—movable, adjustable, chair-desks.
2. Teachers' desk and chair, desk modern, drawers with locks.
3. Several extra chairs—for accommodation of visitors.
4. Kindergarten table with chairs.
5. Sand-table.
6. Book-cases—capacity sufficient to hold all books.
7. Supply case.
8. Blackboards—slate, 100 square feet, part 24 and part 34 inches from floor, chalk troughs and erasers.
9. Maps—world, each of continents, United States and State.
10. Globe—suspended, at least 12 inches in diameter.
11. Shelf for dictionary.
12. Pencil sharpener.
13. Equipment for specified subjects.
a. Primary reading—work and sentence cards, construction paper, scissors, paste, crayons, plasticine.
b. Arithmetic—scales, measures for teaching dry and liquid measures, compass and rulers.
c. Agriculture—bulletins, agricultural periodicals, soil and seed and wood and crop specimens. Spades, rakes and scuffle-hoes.
d. Domestic science—oil stove, and such utensils and supplies as are necessary for the preparation of one hot dish for luncheon.
e. Manual-training—hand-saw, hammer, square, pliers, screw driver, brace and bit, monkey-wrench, plane, several wood-chisels, work-bench, lumber and nails, screws.

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14. Textbooks—modern, selected from list approved by State Department of Education, and a sufficient number to supply school.
15. Library.
    a. Supplementary readers—at least two sets for each of first four grades.
    b. One unabridged and at least six abridged dictionaries.
    c. At least 50 books of fiction, science, travel, history and biography adapted to pupils. Selected from list approved by State Department of Education.
    d. Provision for cataloging and classifying library.
16. Phonographs with records—records selected from list approved by State Department of Education.
17. Pictures—at least four well-framed pictures, subjects selected from list approved by State Department of Education.
18. Stereopticon with slides or moving picture machine.

VI. The Teacher.
- A. Scholastic preparation—completion of four years of high school and a two-year normal course or the equivalent.
- B. Professional spirit.
    1. Cheerful compliance with and participation in professional reading courses and meetings called by the county superintendent, also reports to school offices.
    2. Daily preparation of work.
    3. Rating of supervisor.
- C. Experience at least two years.
- D. Character and personality.
- E. Instruction.
- F. Salary—at least $100 per month.
- G. Discipline.

VII. Organization.
- A. Trustees.
    1. Complete minutes of meetings.
    2. Prompt and accurate reports to town or county superintendent.
    3. Visits to school.
    4. Provision of suitable boarding place for teacher.
- B. Pupils.
    1. Not over 30 pupils per teacher.
    2. Enrolment—90 per cent of educables in district.
    3. Attendance—average daily—90 per cent of enrolment.
    4. Tardiness—not over five per cent for the year.
    5. Terms—at least nine months.

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6. Records and reports.
   a. All reports of teacher, school officers and supervisors and superintendent—full and accurate.

C. Program—well planned—posted.
D. Course of study—follows course recommended.

VIII. Hygiene of the School Plant.
A. The site—clean, sanitary.
B. The building.
1. Cleaning utensils and receptacles—brooms, dust cloths, sweeping-compound, wastebasket.
2. Facilities for drinking—covered water receptacle and sanitary cups or bubbling fountain.
3. Facilities for washing—sink and basin, or lavatory, soap and towels.

C. Toilets.
1. Outdoor.
   a. Type must meet regulations of State Department of Education.
   b. Entrances—screened.
   c. Provided with locks.
   d. Toilet paper.
   e. Urinals for boys' toilet.
2. Indoor—chemical or flush.
3. Care—clean, free from obscene markings.
4. First aid equipment—bandages, aromatic spirits of ammonia, iodine, adhesive plaster.

IX. Community spirit and activities.
A. The teacher's relation to the community.
1. Most of weekends spent in community.
2. Interest in community activities.

B. Associations and club—at least two community clubs such as parent-teachers' association or grange.
C. Community spirit—interest shown by community in school.

X. Results.
A. Accomplishment quotient.
B. Original work of teacher and pupils.
C. School spirit.

RURAL HEALTH AND SANITATION

JOSEPHINE CORLISS PRESTON, STATE SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, OLYMPIA, WASHINGTON

Leaders in education as well as all public welfare workers from the Atlantic to the Pacific seem suddenly to have awakened to the fact that our greatest human asset, good health, is being destroyed in countless, thoughtless ways. From coast to coast now comes this National urge for conservation and development of our National health and vitality.

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Public health authorities report that of the 20,000,000 American school children between six and fifteen years of age, one million have defective hearing, five million have defective eyes, five million are malnourished, six million have enlarged tonsils or adenoids, and over ten million have defective teeth. In short, three quarters of them suffer from preventable or curable defects. Of these 20,000,000 children, over 12,000,000 (60 per cent) are attending our 250,000 rural schools.

These startling figures and the revelations of the war have led to much far-reaching work in the field of educational hygiene. In the year 1920 the U. S. Commissioner of Education reports that 20 States have laws providing for physical education, all but one of them making it compulsory. He also states that the most significant feature of this legislation is the broad and comprehensive interpretation of physical education given either in the statutes themselves, or in the administrative programs adopted by the State Departments of Education. The most notable weakness is the failure to provide adequate financial support for administration and supervision and the failure to provide administrative means for making the laws locally effective.

Much remains to be accomplished, and only through persistent work and continuous coöperation of educators and the voluntary organizations in the field of educational hygiene may we hope to secure a national health program to meet the crying need.

A health program should include:

1. *Education*—(a) To stimulate an intelligent interest in health knowledge; (b) to convey standards of positive health; (c) to inculcate health habits affecting the individual relation to home, school, community, and State; (d) to give understanding of the dangers which the individual encounters; (e) to secure better preparation of teachers for health education and supervision; (f) to assure adequate physical education laws, well-equipped playgrounds with satisfactory guidance for activities; (g) development of bodily resistance by means of medical gymnastics; (h) to gain public coöperation; (i) to secure management and procedure in the school room that conforms to health standards.

2. *Regulation*—(a) Legislation to establish standards to prevent environmental conditions detrimental to individual and community health; (b) State supervision—inspection by governmental authority; (c) establishment of standards for rural homes and surroundings.

3. *Medical inspection*—(a) Physical examination of school children, with follow-up educational, developmental, preventive and curative work carried on; (b) provision for correction of remediable defects by medical care (dental and health clinics); (c) warm lunches for all children; (d) weighing and measuring of children—gains and losses recorded and sent home to parents as part of regular report of school work.

Recommendations—Adoption of standards set in reports of the Joint Committee on Health Problems in Education, "Minimum Health Requirements for Rural Schools" and "Health Essentials for Rural School Children."

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Physical education laws in all the States providing for adequate supervision of the health and physical condition of the children and practical instruction in the principles of healthful living. Provision for the administration of these laws.

Federal aid for administration and class instruction in Physical Education.

I was asked to give a report on the Rural Health and Sanitation of this Nation. On this subject, I sent out 3200 letters asking for information and requesting each county superintendent in the United States to send us a report of what was being done and then wrote a similar request to the State superintendents of public instruction. In reply I have received 434 letters. I have been informed of the condition in 387 counties which represent 44 States. I have received letters concerning the conditions in the State as a whole from 33 States. Out of the 387 counties there are about two per cent of that number have done nothing along the line of rural health and sanitation and 58 per cent have done some work.

I believe that the school nurse has come to stay. In many of the reports sent to me concerning the rural health and sanitation there is mention of the school nurse. In the trail of the school nurse follows examinations of the children's physical conditions, the betterment of sanitary conditions, the forming of health clubs, the inspection of school grounds and the correction of defects in the children.

Some of the most pronounced and universal outgrowths of the war are the nurses supplied by the Red Cross organizations in various places, the Baby Welfare clinics which are the first aid to mothers, the Health Crusades, Junior Red Cross Health activities, and the anti-tuberculosis campaigns.

The retarded child is another problem of the public day school system. It is stated by the U. S. Public Health Service Bulletin on Indiana that 50 out of every 1000 school children are having difficulty in keeping up with their work. The State of Indiana has made a special study of this question and states that in every case the slow mental progress of the child has been caused by such minor defects as tonsils, adenoids, defects in seeing, hearing, and in teeth defects and enlarged tonsils. Fifty per cent of these children when placed in a special class and after having their physical defects corrected have been able to keep up with the other children.

In California the State law requires physical training in every school in the State. Strict adherence to all the State requirements for proper lighting, heating, and ventilation are observed. An extensive hygiene course is taught in practically all the grades in all the schools. Practically all the counties from California report that although all the work along health and sanitation lines is new, a great deal of progress is being made. A course in public school nursing has been made a part of the California high school curriculum.

A fine example of intensified school nursing is found in Kent County, Michigan. For four years there has been a county nurse in Kent County. Three of the important features of the health problem in this county are: Traveling dental health clinic, the hygiene league and the anti-tuberculosis campaign. The Hygiene League, an organization which has for its motto

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"Perfect health for every child," has 558 members. The traveling dental clinics carry their own equipment with them and stay at one of the rural school houses for several days or a couple of weeks if need be. There were 22 dental clinics held in the last year, 14 townships were served, 42 schools were served and 154 cases were cared for by these dentists. The school nurse in this county reports that she has made 7047 inspections out of this number and there were 1898 with defective teeth. Health drills such as the proper methods of teeth washing are given in the Kent County schools.

An extensive health program is found in New York State. Here the children, teachers, janitors, and school buildings are all examined. Through health cards and reports on health, the teachers keep in touch with the parents of the children so that the watchful eye of the parents are on the alert concerning the child's health. In this way health supervision does not end outside of the schoolroom. The children are weighed and measured ever so often and comparisons made of their physical conditions each month.

These card systems are also followed out in many of the States. The teachers keep a file of the cards. This often develops a spirit of rivalry among the children and each strives hard for perfection in health. In Florida, Alabama, Oregon, Massachusetts, these cards are successfully employed as one of the corrective mediums. In New York the teachers are given instructions as to the care of their health as well as the children. Circular Bulletins are sent to them asking that they not only consider the health of the children but that they keep well, vigorous and physically fit to hold their position.

The standardization of schools is a forward step in the State of Kansas. This standardization includes the requirement of physical education in all the schools of Kansas, proper seating, ventilation, heating, slate blackboards, suitable cloakrooms, and the teaching of hygiene.

From Providence County, Rhode Island, comes a detailed report of the work there. Medical inspectors are provided in Rhode Island. The school nurses working under this inspector go into the homes as well as into the schools. This is one of the most commendable branches of the school nursing system of today. The change of good health to the homes, interests the parents in their own health as well as that of the children and standardizes the homes as well as the schools. Dental service in Rhode Island is given free to the children. The appointments with the dentists are kept during the school hours. The health authorities of Providence County point out that 85 per cent of the children of this county were in need of dental treatment.

It sounds almost unbelievable when you make the statement that the country children are often found to have more physical defects than the city child. Dr. Raphael Olsen, who conducted a clinic in Canyon County, Utah, recently points out that so often the country children are suffering from the lack of enough milk and green vegetables. The producers in the rural districts sell all their produce instead of having any on their tables. There were 936 children inspected in Canyon County in May of this year. Each child was usually accompanied by its mother. This was one valuable

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point as the mother almost always left the clinic, or the rural school building where the clinic was held, with thirst for more knowledge concerning the health of her child.

In Washington County, Utah, 1700 children in the district received medical and dental examinations. Records of the examinations are kept on file by the teachers. In Granite County, Utah, free clinic for the examination and removal of tonsils and adenoids is maintained.

Automobiles are greatly facilitating the work of the school nurses. Shelby County, Kentucky, has an automobile for the school nurse purchased with money from the sale of Red Cross seals.

In New Hanover County, North Carolina, there is a well-organized board of health. There is careful supervision of the sanitary conditions of the schools, free lectures on health are given and a campaign against flies and mosquitoes is now being made. This county has also extended its work to the homes and all out-houses in rural districts must be standardized and sanitary.

Seventy public meetings were held in Forsyth County, North Carolina, last year. More than 8000 persons attended these. Approximately three thousand children were examined in this one county. As in all the southern states one of the continuous problems of the southern schools is hook worm. Various problems like this are peculiar to various schools in different sections of the country, as hook worm to the south, malnutrition in the larger city schools, lack of proper ventilation in cold climates where the people fear too much fresh air and the like.

The county health boards in North Carolina are composed of the board of county commissioners, mayor of the county seat, town and county superintendent and two resident physicians.

A house to house survey is also being made in North Carolina. The people are advised by these sanitary inspectors concerning the sanitary conditions around their home relative to pure water, screened houses in the summer, and sanitary closets. One thousand one hundred children were treated at the permanent dental infirmary in Forsyth County, North Carolina, last year.

A startling fact is brought out in Dillon County, South Carolina, where the Women's Federation of Clubs started an investigation and are also working for a school nurse. The investigation showed that in one school in this county there were three normal children out of an enrolment of 87. In another one of the schools five per cent of the children were normal. The superintendent sending in the report says that Dillon County is no worse than the other counties in South Carolina.

Although the spirit expressed by most of the superintendents from the various counties is a plea for enlarged progress relative to health and sanitation, some of the superintendents show a deplorable lack of interest and are perfectly satisfied. One county superintendent from Texas writes "the county is sparsely settled. There are only 10 active schools in it and therefore there are no health and sanitation problems." The superintendent writing from Dillon County acknowledges that the health and sanitation

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needs attention there. It is safe to say that with the realization of the deplorable condition comes work and correction. The Texas Superintendent who writes no doubt is one of the persons who refuse to judge anything in his district critically.

In Calumet County, Wisconsin, following a health survey of the sanitary conditions of the school buildings and grounds it was reported that out of the 67 districts only five had sanitary conditions.

The patrons' club formed of volunteer physicians and the parents who meet to discuss the health of the children and to receive instruction from the physicians. There are five of these clubs in Beaver County, Oklahoma.

Health promotion week which has resulted in every week being a simplified health promotion week is another method used in the schools to interest parents and teachers in health problems. In Effingham and Washington Counties of Illinois health promotion weeks were held in May of this year and report that they were very successful.

Health Clubs have been formed throughout all the schools of Gloucester County, New Jersey. The clubs are carried on in connection with the school work and have one section for the teaching of patriotism and civics. So many credits are given to the various club members. These credits are not counted in the school work but develop a spirit of keen competition among the children which results in attention to health measures. For the school having the largest number of points each month a banner is presented.

School physicians, school nurses, open-air schools, and gardens are the successful medium of the good health among the children of Massachusetts. Hygiene is taught in the schools. Special attention is also given to the examination of all school sites and all school buildings.

And in the State of Washington we are paying more attention each year to the health of the school children.

There are practically one dozen of the visiting nurses traveling throughout the State all the time. A physical training law was passed by the recent session of our legislature providing for the installation of physical training courses in all the schools of the State. The report for one school year includes the following:

Time covered—Less than one school year.

Number of schools visited—106.

Number of school children examined—6375.

Ninety per cent of the children examined were found to be defective; 60 per cent of these defects were due to the teeth.

It has been impossible to do much follow-up work in the homes, but a large percentage of cases are reported by the teachers to be remedied.

A large number of orthopedic cases were found by the nurses and sent to the children's hospitals in Seattle and Spokane. Defects were also remedied in children under school age.

Every nurse makes an effort to meet as often as possible with the parents at the Parent-Teachers Meetings, and confer privately with them about their children. On her office days, usually Saturdays, the nurse arranges to

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accompany to physician or dentist children brought in for examination or operation.

Each nurse is assisting in examination of children for Baby Year, in some cases arranging nearly all the details for the work.

Several leagues have had exhibits at the County Fair with the nurse in charge to distribute literature and meet the public.

The nurse coöperates with the County Superintendent of Schools and the Probation Officer or Judge in case of mental deficiency or delinquency.

In conclusion we can say that although when taking these deplorable examples for consideration, we think that nothing has been done in the way of rural health and sanitation we must also consider that this is one of the newest of subjects in our schools. I believe both teachers and educators are awakened to the need of much work in the schools and are gradually interesting outsiders. Altogether the outlook is bright and hopeful. The right training of the right kind of teachers, the hiring of school nurses, an efficient system of keeping health records and the planning of health clubs and clinics, standardization of schools, State laws requiring certain sanitary conditions, free clinics, and installation of physical training courses are the largest helps to the rural health problem.

RURAL RECREATION AND SOCIAL LIFE

MACY CAMPBELL, HEAD OF THE DEPARTMENT OF RURAL EDUCATION
IOWA STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE, CEDAR FALLS, IOWA

A. *Scope of field, agencies, activities*—All persons must have recreation—must be constantly rebuilt—to be at their best. The inner self craves the nourishment and stimulation which come from frequent contact with one's fellows. This has been true of normal individuals in all lands since the dawn of civilization. The case of those living in rural communities is considered here not because these people are different from others in this respect, but because their surroundings have often made it difficult for them to meet the need for recreation or gratify the desire for social contacts.

As the farmer forms the habit of taking better care of his recreational needs and as he finds it possible to come more easily and quickly into contact with his fellows through improved transportation, it will be found that he is interested in and is helped by much the same recreational and social experiences as his city cousin who has had in the past a better opportunity to gratify these desires. The two outstanding new leisure time activities are moving pictures and automobiling. In the neighborhood of seven million people see the pictured story nightly in United States and some twenty millions find frequent relaxation in a motor ride. Farm folk are now sharing these on an equal basis with city dwellers. The two most universal and frequently repeated of the older forms of recreation and social stimulation, reading and music are now being enjoyed almost as generally by farm folk as by city dwellers. The radiophone seems to promise even greater

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possibilities of recreation and social stimulus for farm folk than it does for city dwellers. Improvements in the transmission of thought and in the ease and speed of locomotion are now making the American farmer a full participant in our civilization are tending to develop in all our people common habits and ideals.

"Eight hours for sleep, eight hours for work, and eight hours for leisure-time activities," is a familiar idealistic division of the day. This attracts our attention because of the large number of ours given to leisure-time activities and leisure time is the time for recreation and social contact. We should note that sleep is recreational time enforced by nature with a heavy penalty attached. That meal time is another very important recreational period and usually the most important social contact period in the home. Religious activities are usually recreational, refreshing the spirit and supplying a rest period for the body to rebuild itself.

Leisure-time activities to be of recreational and social value should build up and not tear down the individual participating. Different individuals will be differently affected by different forms of activity. Each must choose for himself. "What is one man's meat is sometimes another man's poison."

It is one part of the business of the school to develop attitudes and fix habits during childhood that will promote the proper use of leisure time in adult life. We know that it is from the improper use of leisure time that most of civilization's ills arise. While the farmer has little leisure time during the summer season he has much during the winter and the school should take particular pains to prepare him to use this leisure time profitably.

The consolidated school is best able of all agencies dealing with the unification and improvement of life in country communities, to develop attitudes and fix wholesome, helpful habits in the matter of recreation and social life. It is now functioning in thousands of rural communities throughout the United States, and thousands of communities will organize such schools during the next few years.

1. Here a better trained teacher of reading may be employed and she can be given a better opportunity to develop rapid reading so proficient in getting the thought from the printed page that they take pleasure in the act. This better teacher will take pains to create in her pupils a love of reading good things which will become fixed as a very valuable life habit. To constantly read good things is to constantly bring the mind into effective contact with the best minds of all time and the widest and freshest of sources of information. No other form of leisure time activity is more recreational in the sense that it builds up and no other form of social contact is more stimulating.

2. The consolidated school provides a better opportunity for all the young to develop some proficiency in the rudiments of music by taking part under the leadership of a good teacher. It is provided with the necessary musical equipment for cultivating appreciation of good music. Glee clubs, orchestras, bands, and community singing find their natural setting here. Special courses in vocal and instrumental music are often made available. From

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this fountain head of musical experience, an increased enjoyment of good music spreads into the homes of the country community. The Jordan Consolidated School at Sandy, Utah, is demonstrating effectively what may be done in this direction.

3. The consolidated school brings into the rural community the moving picture machine and an organization interested in selecting the best type of pictured stories. When the films have been carefully selected, the community movies furnish a very popular and helpful recreational and social hour. Hundreds of rural communities are now so supplied. The State of North Carolina has entered this field of recreation and social contact in rural communities on a State-wide basis. State funds are appropriated by the legislature, the State Department of Public Instruction selects the films and provides the operators who make a regular circuit of rural communities once in two weeks. The machine is carried on a motor truck. A community program is conducted in connection with the pictures. A State library of good picture stories is being selected from the best productions over the world. As such film libraries become available the picture story will increase in importance as a recreational and social activity in country communities.

4. The relation that the better education which the child in the country community is enabled to secure through the consolidated school bears to the more extended use of the automobile as a means to recreational and social activities is still somewhat problematical. Enlightened communities demand improvement in roads. This brings an increased use of the automobile and makes it a larger and larger factor in the recreational and social life of farm people. The better school should increase interest in the beauties and wonders of nature, in places of historical or geographical importance and in successful agriculture, causing more persons to motor about the country to visit such places during their leisure time. Such motor trips are often distinctly recreational and informational. Youth of high school age often need to be strengthened by the counsel of wise and tactful teachers against the moral lapses which the seclusion of some distant spot on the country highway, easily reached by automobile, encourages. The zone of acquaintance and of marriage among young people of rural communities is widening with the increased use of the automobile. This is a desirable social result.

5. Play, both of children and adults, is another recreational and social activity which the consolidated school is fostering among country people. Better play leadership by better teachers, the stimulation which is given to the play instinct of children and of adults by the gymnasium with its basket-ball, volley-ball, or dance floor, and by the athletic field with its baseball, football and tennis courts are real incentives to greater recreation through play—one of nature's most wholesome and valuable forms of recreation. There is no more encouraging field for the most natural and helpful forms of social contact than the athletic field or playing floor. Under such surroundings adults often enter spontaneously into play. At the Pisgah, Iowa, Consolidated School the farmers and business men of the community

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meet to play together every Monday night. In many parts of the United States at present consolidated schools form the rallying point for play activities among the people of the farms, and farm villages. In Michigan the State is taking an active part in encouraging play in all the schools of the State by providing trained play leaders under the direction of the State Department of Public Instruction to teach play activities in all the schools of the State. The consolidated school furnishes the best means of setting the children, and gradually the adults of the country community, to playing.

6. Social contact over larger and larger country communities is being stimulated by community meetings in the consolidated schools. These take on a wide variety of forms, all tending to beguile the people from their ordinary cares for recreational and social contact. The following list of community meetings in the Jessup, Iowa, Consolidated School during 1921-22, is suggestive of the variety possible.

Date	Auspices	Nature of program		Attendance
Oct. 4, 1921	Lecture course	Metropolitan Glee Club		150
Oct. 21	Lecture course	Chicago Novelty Entertainers		150
Oct. 21 P. M.	S. O. S. Literary Society.	2 numbers et farce	H.S.	55
Oct. 12	Epicurean Literary Society.	2 numbers et farce	H.S.	30
Oct. 24	Farm Bureau	Community singing Peder Peerson, farmer. Mr. Lee, county agent.		175
Nov. 4	Alpha Literary Society.	2 numbers et farce	H.S.	67
Nov. 11	Armistice program	Music and Rev. Orth		215
Nov. 16	Lecture course	J. Adam Bede		125
Nov 18	Epicurean Literary Society.	Miscellaneous and Mayflower	H.S.	34
Nov 22	1, 2, 3, 4 grades	Thanks pageant		225
Dec. 2	Literary Society	Miscellaneous program	H.S.	15
Jan 9, 1922	Declamatory Preliminary.	Dramatic class		300
Jan. 10	Declamatory Pre.	Humorous class		275
Jan 23	Declamatory finals	Three classes		200
Jan. 25	Literary Society	Miscellaneous program	H.S.	75
Jan. 27	Lecture course	Temple singers		175
Feb 3	Literary Society	Miscellaneous program	H.S.	25
Feb. 17	Literary Society	Miscellaneous program	H.S.	35
Feb. 24-25	County Basket Ball Tournament.			
Mar. 17	Jessup Fair Benefit	Miscellaneous program, $59.55		

Preble County, Ohio, which has a large number of consolidated schools may be mentioned as a good representative of the counties which are well organized to promote, through community meetings, around the school the recreational and social side of farm life. The Alberta Consolidated School in Minnesota is a good representative of those consolidated schools which have developed this side of farm life to a high degree.

A study by H. L. Eells, of Iowa State Teachers College, into what 1300 college students and 168 high school students who come largely from rural

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communities in Iowa, do for recreation, reveals the fact that the following percentages of each group take part in the various recreations listed.

Recreational and social activities	Percentage of 1300 college students	Percentage of 168 high school students
Movies	52	68
Dances	31	18
Automobile trips	51	71
Trips on train	31	31
Visiting (neighbors or otherwise)	49	64
Camping	23	18
Picnics	51	68
State Fairs	15	28
County Fairs	43	71
Operas	14	18
Fishing	23	39
Parties	51	41
Literary Societies	22	41
Community gatherings	27	36
Golf	2	2
Tennis	16	11
Hunting	7	28
Hikes	27	19
Roller skating	16	18
Ice skating	23	28
Boating	23	21
Play on piano	39	46
Use victrola	34	41
Singing schools	4	9
Nutting	19	26
Games	38	54
Library	36	36
Swimming in season	19	31
Horseback riding	19	41
Bicycling	9	21
Theatres	26	23

Probably the most common form of social contact in which a considerable number of farm people engage consists in visiting with neighbors and acquaintances on the streets of the market town on Saturday afternoon or evening. In this custom, which is prevalent in rural communities the Nation over, is seen the wide-spread desire for the pleasure and stimulation of social contact. This social instinct is being turned to better account than street visiting by many organizations which have developed some degree of recreational leadership in rural communities. Among these activities may be mentioned county-wide play days—the schools of the county coöperating, picnics of farm organizations, social and literary community clubs meeting regularly in the farm homes of the members, local county, and State fairs, church sociables, camping, boating, swimming, skating, fishing or hunting parties and various forms of excursions.

The chief organizations contributing to rural recreation and social life are in addition to the consolidated school, county-wide school organizations, State department of physical training, and bureaus of community service, rural churches, and county Y. M. C. A., the Farm Bureau and other farm

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organizations, boys' and girls' clubs, athletic associations, Boy Scouts, Campfire Girls, and community play associations.

Other factors contributing to recreational and social activities are automobiles, good roads, meeting places such as schools, rural churches, or community halls which are provided with auditoriums, gymnasiums, cooking, and serving rooms, play grounds, play apparatus, moving picture projectors, film library resources, and musical equipment. Dance floors, bathing beaches and amusement parks also contribute.

Conditions are unsatisfactory in a large proportion of rural communities because of: (1) Inadequate leadership; (2) inadequate organization; (3) inadequate teaching in the public schools; (4) inadequate earning power of the farm population which in some cases is unable to provide the necessary material equipment.

SOCIAL NEEDS IN RURAL LIFE

THE COMMUNITY CENTER

P. W. NEALE, STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, STEVENS POINT, WISCONSIN

Country communities are suffering from the lack of social gatherings where common experiences may be discussed and where the public mind is quickened by social contact.

The community center touches that great lower middle-class and working-class group who are usually the hardest to reach.

The country life club idea is growing rapidly. All over the country there is an increasing tendency to take up rural affairs on a community basis, making the school house, the church, or the community house the forum of the community, where the people may meet and discuss among themselves their common interests and devise methods of self improvement. The following topics were discussed in recent meetings of a Rural Life Club:

Beautifying home and school grounds.
Water and sewerage system for the country home.
Electricity on the farm.
Improvement of health conditions in the country.
How much education do farmers need?
Conveniences for the farm home.
The well-planned farm home.

The aim is to develop rural leadership from within and at the same time provide for the fundamental social instincts of youth known as recreation, play, friendship, and social life.

The organizations and societies which so far have factored in the rebuilding of community life are the Farmers' Alliance, Farmers' Grange, and Rural Improvement Clubs. It is here that the many-sided problems of community life may be attacked and hopefully solved. It is here that subjects ranging from good housekeeping to good roads may be discussed.

We appreciate the freedom of the farm residence, the health of mind, the body that comes from a life in the open country, the opportunity of a

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partnership in a business enterprise and the moral uplift that comes from the contact with nature. However, the majority of our farm homes will bear much study from the standpoint of conveniences of the farm home labor saving devices as well as house planning.

A great deal of farm life is of such a character that it makes it very hard for the mother of the family. The necessity of reducing drudgery in the farm home cannot be too strongly emphasized. Conveniences for outdoor work are likely to have precedence over those for household work. In general her life is more monotonous and more isolated, no matter what the wealth or the poverty of the family may be.

It is unfortunate that in so many rural communities we find the farm implements have all become riding implements, but the woman of the farm must carry the water, clean the smoky lamps, wash and churn by hand. In this community we find the high-priced touring car, pure bred stock, well-equipped barns, but the home equipment antiquated and fatally deficient in performing the functions of home-making.

Relief to the women of the farm must come through a general elevation of country living. Music and art helped to revolutionize rural Denmark. They should be made to contribute more to the influence of the home. We need good pictures, good music, good literature, as agencies to promote the welfare of the community. The opportunity for music and the better things of life should be stressed the same as agriculture for the rural family. It should be made an important feature of American country life.

We find many women's organizations in country districts discussing with profit such domestic subjects as the improvement and privileges of farm home life, the decrease of household labor coming through the remodeling of the farm home and installing up-to-date labor-saving devices.

Our farm women need a course in farm business, and training along the vocational side of life in order that they may be prepared for home making in the fullest sense. They should have training in home decoration, home management, sanitation, sociology, and economics. The betterment of country life rests largely with the country women. With the proper training the mother will not only be enabled to participate in community affairs but will be capable of changing the whole attitude of the home life and take the part that women should play in the development of the best rural living.

SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

JOHN F. SIMS, CHAIRMAN, PRESIDENT, STATE NORMAL SCHOOL
STEVENS POINT, WISCONSIN

The objective—The objective of all efforts made the improvement of rural education must be, if we hold allegiance to our American ideals, that the educational opportunities provided for children living in the rural areas of our country be made the full equivalent of those offered to children in the most favored urban communities.

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Country-wide inequality of educational opportunity exists today—This is revealed in the shorter school-year, the lack of proper equipment, the smaller amount of expenditure per capita, the smaller percentage of properly trained teachers, and inadequate supervision.

It is due among other causes to the following:

1. To the conservatism of rural people, who have too long been satisfied with an elementary curriculum only, and with inferior educational facilities. As the fountain cannot be higher than the source, so the school cannot be far in advance of the community whose educational wants it is designed to supply, and from which it derives its moral and financial support.

2. Rural communities lack the vision of what a good rural school is and what it will do for them and their children. Many districts maintain schools merely to comply with the provisions of the law. The almost insuperable obstacle in the way of previous efforts at regeneration of rural education is the isolation of the rural school (now happily being overcome). This makes for indifference to the problem.

3. Rural leadership, based upon a sympathetic knowledge of rural life and its needs, plus the constructive imagination which visions what ought to be in order to satisfy these needs, reinforced by an executive ability which can arouse to action rural people who are to be the beneficiaries of better schools, is to be found in rare instances only. Where there is no vision the people perish, and desired progress will come only when rural people want something better. The hope of tomorrow in education lies in the improvement and development of schools as they are.

4. The assessed valuation of many school districts is so low that people cannot provide sufficient funds by local taxation. The additional revenue from State sources is not sufficient, while National reservoirs of revenue have not yet been tapped.

5. In the 185,000 districts maintaining one-teacher schools are found 555,000 school officials, many of whom receive small salaries and enjoy the prerogative of holding office to such extent that any change reducing the number of officials is vigorously opposed.

How to change what is in rural education to what ought to be.

1. A larger unit of taxation and administration, the consensus of opinion being the county.

(a) Education is not a local problem for the perpetuity of the State and Nation is concerned in its solution.

(b) Many rural communities cannot meet the expense of the schools which they ought to maintain.

(c) A county tax equalizes the burden of taxation, while under present conditions districts of low assessed valuation too often pay the higher tax rate.

(d) Local revenue should be supplemented by funds from State and National sources. As was pointed out in 1922 at the Chicago meeting of the Department of Superintendence earnings, profits, and incomes must more and more be made a basis of taxation, in addition to property, or even in lieu of property.

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(e) Every friend of education should battle valiantly for the passage of the Towner-Sterling Bill, as provision is therein made for apportionment annually among the States of $15,000,000 for the better preparation of rural teachers, and of $50,000,000 for the equalization of educational opportunity.

(f) One half the States are now administering their schools by means of an elective County School Board or Board of Education, of from three to seven members, empowered in general:

1. To select an expert educational officer, known as county superintendent, to be its educational advisor and its executive officer.

2. To appoint upon the nomination of the county superintendent, assistant superintendents, and supervisory teachers.

3. To carry into effect the State course of study and the recommendations of the State superintendent.

4. To recommend to district boards competent teachers and principals and to approve their selection.

5. To change boundaries of districts, to consolidate schools, establish rural high schools, provide for transportation of pupils.

6. To make county community and educational surveys.

7. To elevate the standards of rural education in their county.

(g) Bulletin No. 44, U. S. Bureau of Education, states that in a county in Utah, after the adoption of the county unit plan the number of pupils who finished eighth grade increased fifty per cent and the high-school enrolment increased five hundred per cent.

2. Establishment of consolidated schools and rural high schools.

(a) The chief obstacles to consolidation are the small taxing and administrative unit; the traditions, prejudices, and conservatism of rural people; the fear of increased taxation and possible deterioration of property due to greater distance from the school; bad roads making transportation difficult, and the loyalty of adults to the school in which they themselves were educated who believe that what was good enough for them is good enough for their children. The educational harvest in rural communities must not, however, be gathered by antiquated machinery.

(b) Consolidation means better attendance, better teacher training, making the school a community center, enriched courses of study, the use of a stimulating environment in teaching, training which gives power to solve farm and community problems *as well as the development of power to excel in other vocations.*

(c) An adequate working law should be formulated in each State providing for consolidation. Perhaps two thirds of our 185,000 single districts could be so taken care of. Witness its growth in Ohio, Indiana, Iowa, in New England, in the South, and in the far West. Wherever the larger taxing and administrative unit prevails its growth has flourished most completely.

(d) Consolidation is a dynamic movement—the most highly consequential movement now under way, looking toward the creation of

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better educational facilities for rural children at home, and it should be fostered.

3. Better trained teachers.

(a) The teacher is the soul of the school. All instruction must minister through the child's own self-activity, to his development mentally, morally, and physically. Knowledge comes through exercise of his mind, while discipline implants the feeling of personal accountability, and recognition of the rights of others, demanding the exercise of conscience, and both making for right thinking and right behavior, the two most important functions anyone is called upon to perform.

(b) Active agencies for the preparation of rural teachers are training courses in high schools, county training schools, and State normal schools. Universities are now beginning to catch the vision.

(c) The content of courses for their training may be classified as professional, academic, and environmental. The professional makes for the development in teachers, of social amenities, appreciations, ideals, skills, and a sense of responsibility; the academic for scholarship which gives the teacher confidence in himself and inspires the pupils' confidence in him; while the environmental enables him to use the rich suggestive material which lies in close proximity in such a way as to make it dynamic in the child's development. The following must be stressed: (1) The three R's with history, geography, business essentials, literature, and nature; (2) some skills in the lines of music, physical training, agriculture, farm mechanics, cooking and sewing, debating and public speaking and community center work; (3) the appreciations of art, music, nature, courtesy or social amenities, and education, and (4) the ideals of health, patriotism, industry, coöperation, fair play, and achievement.

(d) All institutions training teachers and supervisors should maintain observation and demonstration schools of the highest degree of efficiency under their own direct supervision, and likewise afford in turn an opportunity for practice teaching in rural schools, and practical work in teaching and measurements.

(e) Courses of study should be extended to two and within a decade of to four years of professional training beyond the high school. It is modest to say that today the rural child has but one chance in fifteen or twenty to be taught by a teacher of the standard preparation of high-school graduation, plus two years of normal training.

(f) The standard of rural teaching must be raised. Our best rural teachers come from the rural areas. Special inducements must be offered in the way of remuneration. Young people will not prepare for this responsible work as long as the salaries paid are less than wages paid to unskilled labor. Says Vice-President Coolidge, "We have lost reverence for the profession of teaching and bestowed it upon the profession of acquiring." Rural communities will never get more than they are willing to pay for. Better salaries and a more attractive life, including teacherages, must lie at the bottom of any wide improvement.

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(g) Is the time not ripe for the State to offer scholarships in the normal schools to attract the best of our rural-minded young men and women into this field? Scholarships of two or three hundred dollars per year offered to the best fourth of a high-school graduating class would improve the output of rural teachers and give to rural teaching the standing it sorely needs. Given the proper supply, rural communities will choose these competent teachers. During the war the S. A. T. C. was organized in the normal schools and colleges to meet the crisis. Is it not the part of wisdom to follow such a practice in meeting the educational crisis?

(h) All of the professions are demanding higher training in order that their members may render better service. Why should rural teaching be a laggard? Surely it requires as skilled a practitioner to deal with the mind as with the body.

The arousal of interest of rural people in their own schools—

1. Rural schools must train the children for their own needs, sending them out from the portals of the school with a fund of knowledge, a capital of skills, and a character strengthened by wholesome discipline, fitted to cope confidently with their own local, State, and National problems.

2. For the first time in our history the urban exceeds the rural population, so that rural education becomes an urban problem, for the world must be fed, clothed, and sheltered.

3. Inequality of educational opportunity must give way to equality of educational opportunity.

4. Rural people must arouse themselves or be aroused to a sense of the problem. Detailed inspection by competent National State officials reveals the need for betterment, the coördination of what is with what ought to be.

5. These officials, and others associated with them—just as the "dollar a year" men a few years ago—must have wisdom allied with zeal and clear vision, to accomplish this wonder in education like that in industries, in transportation, in conservation of food, in unparalleled and almost unbelievable preparation for waging victorious war, and in philanthropy such as was witnessed in the recent war.

6. Nor should the enlistment in this cause of women, in whom faith in education is an enduring power, be overlooked. The organization of Woman's Clubs, with woman's active participation in political life, are unconquerable forces when once set in action, as they surely will be, to make equality of educational opportunity a living reality. Let no effort be spared to secure their enthusiastic coöperation.

7. Direct and indirect appeal through literature, cartoons, posters, moving pictures, the radio, victrolas, the press, and the platform must be made to give the rural children as good a chance in life as any children get, and to get that chance at home. It is not enough that the opportunity be found elsewhere. To seek it elsewhere is a transfer of allegiance, from the home school, which home school should be fostered with affection.

8. The voice of the rural people thus aroused must and will be heard in the halls of legislation, and when heard, just as truly as night follows day,

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shall succeed in having: (a) First-class schools in every community, rural as well as urban; (b) competent rural teachers who are high-school graduates with two and eventually four years of normal training, the result of better teacher training; (c) the county unit of taxation and administration; (d) the consolidated and rural high schools, and (e) equality of educational opportunity for twelve full years of school work at home. Said Lincoln, "The American youth are entitled to an unfettered start and a fair chance in the race of life."

9. To this program we pledge our loyal and continuous support until it is realized. Education surpasses in importance all other governmental activities, being the life blood of the Nation. Education must not be looked upon as an expenditure, but as an investment which pays large dividends in knowledge, ability, and character. The strength of the Nation is to be found in its mental and spiritual power.

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REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON TENURE[1]

HARLAN UPDEGRAFF, PRESIDENT, CORNELL COLLEGE
MT. VERNON, IOWA, CHAIRMAN

At no time has the problem of tenure been so important as at present. Tenure affects every member of the teaching profession from the individual classroom teacher to the highest school official in city, county, State, and Nation. During the year covered by this report serious attacks upon the merit system have been made in some of our largest city school systems, and within the past few weeks one of our most distinguished State educational leaders has had to decline reappointment to his high office because the conditions imposed were political rather than professional.

Uncertainty of tenure is one of the worst drawbacks to teaching as a profession. The teacher on the threshold of a career cannot but be concerned when he or she sees professional educational leadership in peril. Furthermore, the question of tenure is naturally more significant for the classroom teacher than for the school official of assured position, since few individual teachers have the necessary resources for maintaining economic and professional independence. The critical financial situation in which many school systems found themselves during the year has emphasized the problem of tenure in a special way, for, while the need for qualified teachers is still very great, there is evidence that some of the more short-sighted school boards have adopted the ruinous policy of replacing successful teachers of experience with recent graduates for no other motive than that of the temporary saving of money. School boards of this type inevitably oppose the adoption of an adequate tenure law because it will compel them to keep efficient teachers and pay the regular increases in salary the experience of these teachers entitles them to under the law. No better evidence could be afforded than this—that in contending for teacher tenure we are asking for essential protection, not for teachers alone, but for the schools and the school children.

EXISTING TENURE LAWS

In the report of the sub-committee on tenure at Boston last year a detailed statement of existing State tenure laws was given, and a tabular condensation of this and certain additional material was printed in the Association's *Research Bulletin* for January 1, 1923. It is therefore not felt to be necessary to reproduce this material in detail here. Of the eight existing State tenure laws, three (those of California, Colorado, and Maryland) were enacted in 1921. The operation of these most recent enactments on tenure will be watched carefully for the light they throw on future legislation. For this reason the California experience is given in a special statement at the close of this report.

That tenure legislation is still limited in scope is indicated in the material in the Association's Bulletin. The original New Jersey tenure law of 1910

[1] In the absence of the chairman, the report was made by Mrs. Emma L. Dacre, San Francisco, California. In addition to the chairman, this committee includes the members listed on page 25.

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is State-wide; so is the Maryland law of 1921. The Massachusetts act of 1914 applies to "every town in the State except Boston." The New York law applies only to the city schools, and the Oregon law to school districts having a population of over 20,000.

The probationary period specified in these laws varies, though it centers about two or three years.[1]

The procedure of removal in the various acts is as follows:

California—Board gives ten days' written notice stating charges, and time of hearing. Teacher may have counsel and witnesses. If charges proved, dismissal on majority vote of board.

Colorado—Charges filed with secretary of board of school directors. Thirty days' notice to teacher before hearing. If dismissal recommended by superintendent or principal, teacher may be dismissed without hearing on two-thirds vote of board.

Maryland—Written charges by county board on recommendation of county superintendent. Ten days' notice given to teacher.

Massachusetts—Notice given to teacher thirty days prior to school committee meeting. Dismissal on two-thirds vote if superintendent has recommended dismissal. Notice of charges against teacher to be given on request.

Montana—Majority of board gives written notice before May 1.

New Jersey—Charges filed with Board of Education. When examined and found true, reasonable notice given teacher, who may be represented by counsel.

New York—Hearing by Board of Education after reasonable notice. Dismissal by affirmative vote of majority of board. May be represented by counsel.

Oregon—Written notice of charges given teacher ten days previous to hearing. Teacher may be represented by counsel. If five of seven members of board concur, dismissal is final.

Varying provision for appeal is found in these laws. In California the appeal lies to any "court of competent jurisdiction on questions of fact and of law." In Maryland there is an appeal to the State superintendent of public instruction if the county board is not unanimous. In New York and New Jersey the teacher has the right of appeal to the State commissioner of education.

PENDING MEASURES

Two of the most significant efforts to enact tenure laws during the past year have been in Pennsylvania and Minnesota.[2] The Pennsylvania measure, drafted by a sub-committee of the Joint Committee of the Pennsylvania State Education Association and the State Teachers' League composed of Dr. O. P. Cornman, Philadelphia, and Elizabeth Baker, Harrisburg, provides as follows:

A Bill to Provide for the Employment of Teachers on Indefinite Tenure Amending Sections 1204 and 1208

1. The word *teacher* as used in this bill shall mean any person employed in the public school system of this Commonwealth as teacher, principal, supervisor, or director of a special subject, supervising principal, county superintendent, district superintendent, assistant district superintendent, assistant or associate superin-

[1] California, 2 years; Colorado, 3 years; Maryland, 2 years; Massachusetts, 3 years; Montana, [illegible]; New Jersey, 3 years; New York, 1-3 years; Oregon, 2 years.

[2] [illegible] drafted by the Ohio State Teachers' Association in 1921 appears in the National [illegible] Association Proceedings for 1922.

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tendent, assistant county superintendent, and any member of the instructional staff of the State normal schools.

2. The word *Board* as used in these sections shall mean the board of school directors of a school district, the board of trustees of a normal school district, or other committee by which the teacher is appointed.

3. Re-employment of a teacher in any school district of the State who has been employed three consecutive years in that district, shall be for an indefinite term which shall continue until retirement as provided by law, resignation, or dismissal as hereinafter provided, except that any teacher who has been employed consecutively for four or more years in any district in the State at the date upon which this act shall become effective shall be thereafter on indefinite tenure in that district.

4. When any teacher shall have been placed upon indefinite tenure in any district and shall afterwards accept employment in another district of the State said teacher shall be upon indefinite tenure in said other district after one year if re-employed therein; provided, that the period of probationary service may be extended by the board upon written recommendation of the superintendent for an additional period or periods not to exceed one year, the total probationary period not to exceed two years.

5. When a teacher, after an interim, is re-employed by a district in which said teacher had already served on indefinite tenure, said re-employment shall be upon indefinite tenure after one year if again re-employed therein; provided, that the period of probationary service may be extended by the board upon written recommendation of the superintendent for an additional period or periods not to exceed one year, the total probationary period not to exceed two years.

6. No teacher shall be placed upon indefinite tenure who does not hold a permanent State certificate issued by the Superintendent of Public Instruction of this Commonwealth.

7. The services of any teacher upon indefinite tenure who by reason of illness is unable to discharge his duties for a period of one school-year may be discontinued by the board.

8. Any teacher serving upon indefinite tenure may be dismissed at any time by the board upon proof that said teacher is physically or mentally incapacitated for discharging his duties, or upon proof of inefficiency, neglect of duty, insubordination or conduct unbecoming a teacher, but no teacher shall be so dismissed until furnished with a written statement of the charges against said teacher signed by the superintendent or the proper officers of the board, and given reasonable opportunity of refuting such charges at a hearing before the board, provided that the date of such hearing shall not be sooner than ten days nor later than thirty days from receipt by the teacher of said statement of charges. Pending a hearing on said charges and final determination thereof said teacher may be suspended by the superintendent of the board, but in case the charges are not sustained, such suspension shall be without loss of salary.

9. If after proper notification a teacher fails to make answer at the time and place set for the hearing, or after the teacher makes answer at the set time and place, the board may by a majority vote of its members dismiss said teacher from its service. Provided, however, the teacher shall have the right to make appeal from the decision of the board to the State Superintendent of Public Instruction before whom a hearing of the case shall be held. The decision reached at such hearing shall be final.

10. Any hearing as hereinbefore provided shall be public or private, as the teacher against whom the charges are made shall elect. At any such hearing the teacher shall have the right to be represented by counsel. No member of the board before whom a hearing is tried shall be qualified to vote who has not been present throughout the entire hearing.

11. No teacher serving upon indefinite tenure shall suffer a decrease in salary without said teacher's consent, except by reason of a salary revision affecting all teachers of the district holding positions of like character and grade. The neces-

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sary transfer of a teacher from one position to another having a lower salary shall not be considered a decrease in salary within the meaning of this paragraph. A teacher shall have the same rights to a hearing in regard to any such proposed transfer as are granted by this act in cases of complaint against a teacher.

12. Nothing herein contained shall be construed as limiting the right of a board to release a teacher serving on indefinite tenure when an actual decrease in the number of pupils or the discontinuance of a particular kind of teaching service in a school district renders such action advisable. Provided, however, that release for said causes shall take place only at the close of the school year, and that any teacher so affected shall be notified in writing not later than two months prior to the close of the school term that his services will not be needed the following school term with reasons therefor. Provided further, that in the case of decrease in teaching force due to said causes, the teacher or teachers dismissed shall be the teacher or teachers last employed by the district and engaged in the particular kind of teaching service suffering a reduction in teaching force. Any teacher dismissed under this proviso shall be given a statement of honorable dismissal and shall for one year be carried upon a preferred list for re-employment to fill vacancies that may occur in the district in the type of service from which the teacher was released.

The Minnesota tenure bill has been summarized as follows by Mrs. Elizabeth Haney, member of the legislative committee of the Minnesota Education Association:

A. Meaning of *teacher:* Superintendents, supervisors, principals, vice principals, and instructors.

B. Kinds of teachers: substitutes, probationary, permanent.
   What constitutes each?

C. Causes for dismissal
   1. Immoral or unprofessional conduct
   2. Incompetence
   3. Unfitness for teaching
   4. Persistent violation of, or refusal to obey, rules of board or school laws of the State
   5. Any other just cause

D. Process of serving notice of dismissal
   1. Ten days' notice in writing
   2. Teacher's demand for hearing in writing
   3. Board fixes time and place for hearing

E. Process for hearing
   1. Members cannot vote unless present at all meetings
   2. Majority vote necessary
   3. Hearing concluded fifteen days after beginning
   4. Counsel if desired
   5. Decision of Board final

F. Act shall apply to school districts employing at least fifteen teachers under supervision of principal or superintendent.

PRINCIPLES UNDERLYING TEACHER TENURE LAWS

With the growth of teacher organizations and the study by teachers of such professional questions as those of salary, pensions, and tenure, has come a more careful consideration of the underlying principles of all such legislation. There have been several recent studies of tenure principles. The following formulation, that of Ira Richardson, of the University

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of Oregon (slightly modified from the original) appears to represent with fair accuracy the conclusions of most of the recent studies of tenure:

I. Principles which should be present and operative prior to the institution of tenure laws:

1. Since education is a State function, a prerequisite training for teaching and a probationary period of service prior to permanent certification should be required by State law.

2. The State should prescribe a minimum salary schedule accompanying stages of probationary service based on scholastic and professional training.

3. Details of salary schedule, bases of promotion or demotion to or from grades or levels of salary schedule, ratings and measures of professional improvement following probationary service may be left to local authorities.

II. Principles which should control in the framing and operation of tenure laws:

1. All tenure laws should be associated with regulations governing training, certification, remuneration, and annunities or pensions.

2. Tenure laws should be devised and administered in the interest of better instruction for children and as a stimulus to better preparation and more efficient service on the part of teachers.

3. Participation in the benefits of a tenure law should be based on—

a. Evidence of a satisfactory preliminary training and service as shown by legal credentials of scholarship and professional training and of certification.

b. Evidence of ability as shown by ratings.

c. Evidence of professional spirit as shown by professional activity and continued study.

4. Dismissal from service should be based on clearly demonstrable causes.

5. Suitable provision should be made for those already in service without preliminary qualifications.

6. All groups and classes of public education workers should be provided for.

THE CALIFORNIA EXPERIENCE

The experience with the California tenure law of 1921 is of such importance that a summary of it is given here:

The California law was passed in spite of violent opposition on the part of many in authority. The law is generally regarded as unsatisfactory, first, because it is not of general application; second, because of the indefiniteness of the wording.

Briefly summarized, the tenure provisions are that after two years of probation in a school district of at least eight teachers, under a principal supervising at least two hours a day, the teacher becomes regular, either by vote of the board of trustees or automatically at the expiration of the two years. However, the probationer may be dropped at the end of the first year of probation without mention of any cause.. But during the years of probation, the teacher shall be tried for causes definitely specified in the law and the trial shall be conducted on the same plan as for a regular teacher.

Having become regular, the teacher is still confronted with all the technical interpretations of the law, and at the present time, two years after the enactment of the law, there are more cases of violation than had been expected.

It would appear that unless the wording of a law is definite, some boards of education will continue to act arbitrarily on the assumption that teachers are afraid to go to court or have not sufficient funds to do so.

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For information, it may be stated that in Calexico, Inyo County, Santa Cruz, Alameda County, Eureka, Lodi, and in other districts, teachers have been summarily dismissed, regardless of the explicit provisions in the code, or after distorted, technical interpretations, bordering on perjured affirmations.

Those who are familiar with the California situation believe that the political machinery has worked overtime in certain counties and smaller localities. The law needs revamping, re-editing, as well as abridgement, they assert. The opposition to tenure worked steadily and underground from 1921 to 1923, and at the last legislature presented a bill known as the Dozier Assembly Bill. It simply threw out all tenure provisions, and fortunately for the proponents of tenure emphasized the right of dismissal of teachers without cause, which aroused a storm of protest. The Assembly Educational Committee favored this bill by a slight majority, but the vote in the House was over 4 to 1 against the attempt to make the teachers of California political pawns.

There are three suits pending in the courts, all three on appeal. One is from Eureka, Humboldt County, and involves a principal of a Junior High School, dismissed at the end of the school year without trial or cause, and on the grounds that the tenure provisions do not protect principals. The case did not even come up in court, but is proceeding on appeal from demurrers.

A second one is in Alameda County, where a teacher was employed in a district of more than eight teachers, and under a principal. It is claimed by the school authorities that the principal only taught and did not supervise at any time. This case is on appeal.

The third is in Santa Cruz, and concerns a teacher, who, like her colleague in the preceding case, was dismissed for having married during her incumbency. This case is also on appeal.

The costs of these suits are borne by certain teacher organizations, and it is essential that full support be given to those who are endeavoring to secure the decision of the Supreme Court in order to make the law final and permanent.

The struggle for tenure is not over, and will last until all principals and teachers are placed under the provisions of the law, until they are guaranteed full protection, until those in authority realize that laws are made to be obeyed and not juggled with. The smaller school districts are not protected and the wave of reaction against progressive methods in education is actively engaged in creating a misapprehension of facts concerning tenure in the layman's mind.

Unless the public and parents are educated as to the needs of the teachers, tenure may be so neutralized that no further hope shall be entertained for stability in the profession.

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REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON PENSIONS[1]

PHILIP E. CARLSON, MINNEAPOLIS, MINNESOTA, CHAIRMAN

That suitable provision for the retirement of teachers is a vital need of our educational system is a fact to which the National Education Association has frequently called attention.

Through its committee the Association has been active in research and publication and has made important contributions to the progress of the pension movement.

When the committee was appointed in 1911, there was not, in the United States, a single public-school retirement system providing adequate benefits on a sound financial plan. Since that time great progress has been made, but even today, it cannot be said, that taking the country as a whole, the situation is satisfactory. Progress has been sporadic and local. Few States or cities have scientifically planned systems based on permanently sound methods of finance with adequate public support.

A brief review of some of the events of the year just past will indicate the difficulties in the way of progress.

In one State (Maine) a plan remodeling the retirement system upon scientific lines was bitterly fought by the organized life insurance interests on the alleged ground that it was a socialistic venture of the State into the life insurance business. The plan was, however, adopted.

In another State (Missouri) the teachers who are trying to secure a retirement system are confronted by a decision of the Supreme Court declaring the payment of public money for pensions to retired employees (not, however, teachers) unconstitutional.

In another State (Wisconsin) the Supreme Court has given a decision sustaining the constitutionality of the teachers' retirement law which levies a special tax and requires the teachers to bear a part of the cost of providing their own annuities.

In another State (Illinois) the reports of the retirement association show large funds on which no interest is received by the association.

Another State (Minnesota) presents an interesting state of affairs, which exhibits in a striking manner how far we are as a Nation from a satisfactory solution of the problem. In Minnesota, the State, and the three cities of the first class, have retirement funds.

The State fund and one of the city funds are of the type popular twenty years ago, and the State fund is now in financial difficulties and has found it necessary to reduce annuities. One city reorganized its fund two years ago upon modern lines. The legislature, at the session just closed, refused to approve a very limited reorganization of the State fund, but authorized the reorganization upon liberal modern lines which is now in progress in the third city.

The problem of retirement is not a purely local one. The difficulties and inconsistencies in the incidents cited above do not arise from local

[1] In the absence of the chairman, the report was read by Mary McSkimmon, Principal, Pierce School, Brookline, Mass. In addition to the chairman, this committee includes the members listed on page 24.

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causes; they arise from lack of understanding of fundamentals. Given sound doctrine as to fundamentals, adjustments to varying conditions is relatively easy; without it, confusion is inevitable.

The problem of retirement is essentially one of business management. Superannuation in employment is an economic waste; turnover in employment is an economic waste; failure to attract to an employment people of the highest character and ability is an economic waste; failure to retain trained and experienced employees is an economic waste. Inefficiency in the schools is far more deplorable than inefficiency in business, for it wastes not money alone, but the time and opportunity of the pupils. The training and qualifications required of teachers, and the conditions of their work are such that the beneficial effect of an equitable provision for their retirement is probably greater in their case than in any other employment.

Public expenditure upon a large scale is necessary to establish and maintain adequate provision for retirement in all the public schools. The responsibility that such expenditure be wisely planned is great, and falls especially upon the teachers because they themselves will be the beneficiaries.

The public will not consent to this expenditure unless it can be brought to realize the existence of a vital need and to understand the true function of retirement provisions; and at the same time be assured that the expenditure will be a part of the proper cost of the educational system for which a definite return will be received, and not a form of public charity to underpaid teachers.

The task is really National in scope. There can be no doubt of the great impetus to progress which would result if a great National organization could assume the leadership and bend to it its great resources. It is the duty of the National Education Association, both to its members, and to the public, to inform itself and to speak with authority upon a matter of so great importance. To this end, the Association should work out and adopt a definite program of constructive work to be carried on vigorously and systematically to a successful conclusion.

As a National organization, the National Education Association is concerned, and may properly use its influence and resources, to further the attainment of the following ideals:

I. That all of the schools of the Nation receive the benefit of adequate provision for the retirement of teachers, upon plans financially secure, and just to the teachers, and to the public.

II. That unwise plans, which may fail to benefit the schools, or result in repudiation of obligations, or place undue burdens on the taxpayers, be avoided.

In furtherance of these ends, it is the distinct duty of the National Education Association to ascertain what part, if any, may properly be taken by the Government of the United States toward aiding or encouraging the establishment of retirement systems in the schools.

It has been suggested that the National Education Association could render invaluable service by making provision for work along some or all of the following lines:

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I. Systematic investigations of the many fundamental problems which must be solved in order that a retirement system can be so planned as to give the greatest benefit to the schools.

II. Publication and discussion, for the education of both teachers and public, as to the proper functions of a retirement system, and the fundamental requirements of satisfactory systems.

III. Coöperation with State or local boards or associations by furnishing information and advice.

IV. Investigation of the extent to which the Federal aid to State or local retirement funds is feasible or desirable, and formulation of a suitable program.

There is no doubt that the Association, by undertaking a constructive program of this kind, can render a service of great value, and can save a very great amount of duplication of effort by State or local bodies.

To be of greatest value, a program must be planned with care, defining not only ends and means but taking into account the human element, which must determine the then, when, where, and how of each step. The situation must be viewed as a whole, as a National problem, and doubtless a first-hand field of study of the successes and failures, of the resources and obstacles, and of the personal and political elements, such as has never been undertaken, would be a first step in determining the policy to be followed.

We believe that the National Education Association should have a definite policy and program on this important subject, and we, therefore, recommend for adoption this resolution:

That the executive officers are directed to conduct inquiry into existing retirement laws in force, plans of operation, practices and methods; results and extent to which these accomplish their purpose and are satisfactory; proposed plans with progress and results and condition of public sentiment generally in all the States; and prospects for future action in the establishment of new or modified systems.

Pursuant to resolutions adopted at Salt Lake City, Des Moines, and Boston, your committee has given special consideration to the question of the desirability of Federal aid for teachers' pensions. Through the coöperation of Herman L. Ekern and Charles E. Brooks, both of Madison, Wisconsin, we have secured a great deal of valuable material. This material contains so much that will be helpful in determining the course to be followed by the Association that it should be published in connection with the report of the committee. The committee, therefore, respectfully submits the above report together with the material furnished by Herman L. Ekern and Charles E. Brooks.

FEDERAL AID FOR TEACHERS' PENSIONS

CHARLES E. BROOKS AND HERMAN L. EKERN

PART ONE

A proposal that the Federal Government of the United States give financial assistance towards the establishment and maintenance of retirement plans for teachers in the public educational institutions of the various

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States must be based on the fact that the public educational system is vital to the welfare and prosperity of our Nation and to its continuance as a free Nation and that the welfare and efficiency of the educational system will be promoted by the general adoption of sound retirement plans.

In this outline, we will not discuss the importance of an educational system from a National point of view but will confine our attention to the general need of sound retirement systems for teachers in the public schools of the country.

A retirement system is a financial measure for increasing the effectiveness of a group of workers by promoting their financial welfare in a way which builds up a more loyal, more experienced, and more enthusiastic group. It benefits the employees by giving them financial security as to their personal future, and it benefits the employers through the increased effectiveness of the employees working under such conditions.

There are three definite ways in which a retirement system operates to increase the effectiveness of a group of workers.

In the first place, it makes possible the removal without hardship of the superannuated, who constitute a very heavy burden. Retention of superannuated employees on the payroll is injurious to an organization, not only because they continue to draw full pay for inefficient service, but also because they occupy the space and use the equipment which could be more profitably used by more effective workers. Moreover, young and ambitious workers find their promotion blocked by the retention of the superannuated, become discouraged, and frequently pass into other employment to the great detriment of the service.

In the second place, the retirement system makes the conditions of employment attractive and tends to draw into the service persons of character and ambition. It is difficult to induce such persons to enter an employment with the intention of making it a life work unless they can feel assured that a lifetime devoted to the work will give them at least an adequate financial provision for their dependents and for their own old age.

In the third place, a retirement system which is soundly planned provides a strong inducement to continued service. It is especially effective in retaining persons of character, experience, and initiative in the service. Such persons necessarily form the most valuable element in any service, yet they are the very ones the most difficult to retain in a salaried employment.

There can be no doubt that the very conditions which a scientifically planned retirement system will remedy, are very prevalent in our public educational system. It is a matter of common knowledge that while the work of education makes a strong appeal to many who have the desired qualities of mind and character, the number who actually make teaching a life profession is small. In most every other walk of life, it is common to find persons of distinction who have been valuable teachers but have been driven from the employment because they could see no way of providing for their own old age or for their children and dependents in event of early death.

Wherever a careful examination has been made, it has been evident that there is a great amount of superannuation in the teaching profession,

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that the number of men employed in the profession has been constantly decreasing for many years, that the proportion of experienced teachers is low, and that the turnover in employment is very great. The cost of training teachers is high and is borne by the public, yet the average time the teachers remain in the service after they have been trained is very short. These are undesirable conditions which a properly designed retirement system can remove. It is frequently argued that a retirement plan is not necessary to correct these conditions, because the conditions are purely economic and therefore more liberal compensation to the teachers would go far to remedy them. There are two reasons for believing that it is not possible to make a great improvement in these conditions by any increase in compensation comparable to the cost of establishing a retirement system.

In the first place, it is quite well established that superannuation is not dependent upon salary rates but is more prevalent and often far more destructive of efficiency among those whose compensation is large than it is among those whose salaries are small.

The second reason is that the teachers' salaries are, to a considerable extent, competitive. When resources are made available for liberal increase in salaries, it is almost inevitable that the bulk of the increases go to young teachers whom the schools must secure in competition with many other employments, and that the middle-aged and experienced teachers who as a rule are not sought for by other employers, do not receive proportionate increases in compensation.

Recognition of the importance of providing for the retirement of teachers is almost world-wide. In nearly all civilized countries some plan for pensioning teachers has been adopted. The following list refers only to retirement plans in public schools. In private institutions and in the colleges and universities as well, the need for retirement of teachers is just as urgent, and is provided for in a large number of cases.

Partial list of public school teachers' retirement systems:

FOREIGN COUNTRIES

Italy	Japan	England
New Zealand	Belgium	Prussia
Transvaal	France	Austria

UNITED STATES

STATES

Arizona	Michigan	North Dakota
California	Minnesota	Ohio
Connecticut	Montana	Pennsylvania
Illinois	Nevada	Rhode Island
Indiana	New Hampshire	Vermont
Maine	New Jersey	Virginia
Maryland	Wisconsin	
Massachusetts	New York	

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CITIES AND COUNTIES

Denver	Minneapolis	Scranton
New Haven	St. Paul	Hamilton
New London	St. Louis	Springfield
Wilmington	Omaha	Toledo
Chicago	Albany	Tiffin
Peoria	Buffalo	Youngstown
Indianapolis	Cohoes	Erie
Terre Haute	Mt. Vernon	Harrisburg
Topeka	New York	Philadelphia
Louisville	Rochester	Newport
New Orleans	Syracuse	Providence
Allegany Co. (Md.)	Westchester Co.	Charleston
Baltimore Co. (Md.)	Cincinnati	Chattanooga
Baltimore	Cleveland	Salt Lake City
Boston	Columbus	Wheeling
Detroit	Milwaukee	
Duluth	Dayton	

Within the United States the necessity for making some sort of provision for the retirement of school teachers has been generally recognized. As shown in the preceding table, provision for some sort of retirement fund has been made in twenty-two States and in a considerable number of important cities. There is, however, nothing approximating a uniform system, and the schools of the country are by no means so completely covered as would be indicated by the above table, for the reason that some of the plans exist only on paper or are functioning very feebly, while others are limited to the common schools or to classes of institutions. Among these plans there exists such a wide variety of detail that it is impossible to summarize the situation except by giving a detailed list of the various plans. Such a list is published in Bulletin No. 12 of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching.

In only a small number of the plans has provision been made for the permanent and adequate financial resources. The State systems of Massachusetts, Connecticut, Vermont, New York, New Jersey, Wisconsin, Ohio, and Pennsylvania have been planned with due regard to the financial obligations undertaken; but even in these plans, the financial support is not always assured. In the New York City plan, the obligations of the pension fund are made obligations of the city of New York. In the Wisconsin State system, a special State income tax is levied which will provide a continued appropriation unless it should be repealed. Not only are the majority of the funds unsound financially, but in general it may be said that the conditions are neither fair to the teachers nor are they such as to promote the welfare and efficiency of the profession as a whole.

It is plain that, viewing the United States as a whole, we cannot say that there is adequate and proper provision for the retirement of teachers. In more than half of the States, no provision whatever is made. Even

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in the States where provision has been made, in less than half have the requirements for a permanent and sound financial plan been met. In general, it may be said that the conditions governing the contributions of teachers and the payment of benefits are not such as to give the schools the full benefit which can be derived from a properly planned system. In the majority of cases, teachers are compelled to make contributions to funds without any assurance that the expected benefits can be paid, but with the certainty of forfeiting not only their own contributions but the right to retirement which their services have earned, if they change their employment or if they fail to complete long service requirements.

Need of Federal action—The difficulties in the way of the establishment of sound and adequate retirement plans are great. The cost of an adequate system is large and the subject is so technical that the necessary process of public education is long and difficult. Unless some movement can be started which shall encourage the establishment of sound and permanent systems and shall discourage the establishment of unsound plans, our schools must suffer from superannuation for many years. Thousands of wornout teachers must face a dependent old age, thousands more must be disappointed by the failure of funds to which they had contributed and upon which they had relied, while thousands of the most capable and valuable teachers will be driven from the schools.

The problem is so difficult and the benefits to be derived from the satisfactory solution so great that it must be solved by a Nation-wide effort.

A proposal that the United States Government assist the several States in establishing and maintaining retirement systems for the betterment of their public schools would involve no new policy. The vital importance of education to the whole Nation has been recognized from our earliest days. Congress has, by a succession of grants, beginning in 1787 and continuing up to the present time, aided development of educational facilities throughout the land.

There can be no doubt that a system of Federal aid to State retirement plans administered along sound lines would be an inestimable boon to our educational system and would give a tremendous impetus to the solution of the problem of providing for retirement of teachers.

As an example of the stimulus which can be given an important public work by a system of Federal aid, the Federal highway law of 1916 may be cited. There are many points of similarity between the problem of providing adequate transportation facilities and adequate educational facilities for our Nation. An instructive parallel may be drawn between what has been done by the Federal Government to encourage the building of highways and what can be accomplished for our educational institutions by Federal aid for retirement funds. Transportation and education are vital to our continued existence and prosperity as a Nation. Our commerce in ideas, as well as in commodities, flows across State lines and advancing civilization demands that in neither must the flow be hampered. The prosperous and thickly settled portions of the country find that their material prosperity is seriously affected by means of transportation in remote and

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thinly settled regions from which their supplies of raw materials must be drawn and to which their manufactured articles must be returned. What is true of commerce is also true of education. Our Nation cannot maintain herself if education is confined to the cities and thickly settled regions. In a measure the education of our city dwellers is obtained in the rural and country schools. A democracy, no matter how prosperous and intelligent, will always be endangered by the existence of an ignorant citizenry in remote and inaccessible regions. There is in fact the same necessity that the more advanced and prosperous sections of the country aid the less fortunate sections in maintaining their educational system as there is for assistance in maintaining highways. Some form of Federal aid is the only method available to us for bringing about coöperation of this kind.

Form of Federal aid—As we pointed out above, Federal aid to education has been an established policy of Congress almost from the beginning of our history as a Nation, and Congress has not hesitated to grant financial assistance to the States for measures which might, at first sight, appear to be of purely local concern, when it has been apparent that a National service was to be accomplished. On the other hand, our traditions are against National interference in local affairs; and in general, Congress does not look with favor upon proposals to grant financial assistance when the chief motive is merely to lighten local taxation. In formulating a plan for Federal assistance to State retirement funds, therefore, it is of the utmost importance that Federal aid be planned in such a way as to accomplish, with the least burden upon the Federal treasury, results of National importance which could not be accomplished at all within a reasonable length of time without such Federal assistance. Therefore, in examining the various plans by which Federal aid to retirement funds could be extended, it is important to keep in mind the traditions of Congress and the purposes which it is sought to accomplish by Federal aid.

We may briefly summarize the requirements to which a retirement system must conform in order to produce the desired beneficial effect upon our educational institutions.

The retirement system must be sound financially and actuarially, and so planned as to provide readily for the elimination of the superannuated employees, to offer substantial and effective inducements to competent teachers to remain in the profession, and to permit free movement of teachers from one State to another and from one institution to another within the State. Federal aid is necessary because the difficulties in the way of establishment of retirement systems through local initiative are so great that many years must elapse before undesirable and unsound plans are eliminated and all of our teachers brought within the operation of sound plans, unless the whole problem can be dealt with on a National scale.

Proposals for financial assistance from the United States Government to promote the extension of sound retirement plans throughout the country fall into two general groups. One type of proposal contemplates that the United States shall assume, and as a fixed policy, continue, to carry a definite share of the cost of maintaining retirement funds established by

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the States. As an alternative, it has been suggested that Federal aid should aim to encourage the establishment of sound plans by removing the most considerable obstacles to their establishment, rather than by continuing to share the cost of maintenance.

It is quite obvious that if the United States should undertake to share in the cost of retiring teachers as a permanent policy, the ultimate cost to the Federal treasury would very greatly exceed the cost of a plan under which the Federal aid was limited to meeting the burden which has to be assumed when a retirement system is established, and gradually withdrawn as in the course of time the retirement fund reached a permanent basis. On the other hand, it must be noted that the two proposals are not mutually exclusive. In fact for the former proposal to be effective, it must include the latter, because the benefits to be derived from Federal assistance cannot be realized, unless the obstacles to the establishment of sound plans are overcome.

Experience shows that the greatest obstacle in the establishment of a sound plan is always the difficulty of meeting the accrued liabilities. When the accrued liability is provided for, the burden of carrying on an adequate plan is not a large percentage of the payroll, and in general is something for which a State or city can readily provide without Federal assistance.

The accrued liability of a retirement system is the financial obligation made necessary at the inauguration of the system in order to provide for those employees who must be retired immediately for the good of the system and those persons already in the service whose retirement must take place in advance of the time when contributions at the normal rate would provide for their benefits. This obligation is, of course, a legacy from the past. It is not properly chargeable either to the cost of operation of the service in the future, nor is it either fair or expedient to saddle this burden upon the funds contributed by members themselves as a group. It is in general quite impossible to ask those who create the accrued liabilities themselves to assume this burden. In many cases an important part of the prior service during which the accrued liability was incurred was not rendered in the local school system from which the teacher retires, but was rendered in the schools of other cities or States.

In general the value of the accrued liabilities will be comparable to the amount of a year's payroll. The difficulty of providing for such a large obligation frequently prevents the establishment of sound plans and results in the establishment of plans which have no provision for the accrued obligations. Such plans inevitably meet with disaster, unless financial assistance upon a large scale is forthcoming.

In view of the fact that no progress can be made until the immediate and pressing burden of existing superannuation is taken care of, it is suggested that Federal aid be granted in the form of financial assistance in meeting the accrued liabilities on account of service rendered before the adoption of the policy of Federal aid.

Reasons for proposing that Federal aid be given in this form are as follows:

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1. Failure to make adequate provision for the accrued liabilities inevitably brings about the ultimate insolvency of a retirement system.

2. If the accrued liability is not assumed or provided for in some way, a period of some thirty or forty years must elapse before the schools derive full benefit from the existence of a retirement system.

3. The accrued liability is a public obligation properly borne by the public which has profited by the services of the teachers for whom the obligation is incurred. It cannot, with justice, be placed upon the teachers themselves. Federal aid in meeting the accrued liability would be a recognition that the past work of teachers has been National service.

4. This plan will necessitate recognition and adequate provision for the accrued obligations, and condemn as unsound any system in which such provision is not made.

5. By this plan assistance will be directed to the point at which it is most needed and ordinarily most difficult to obtain, and thus the greatest obstacle to the establishment of sound and permanent systems will be removed.

6. Federal aid towards meeting the accrued liabilities would give every incentive to the establishment of a sound plan and the establishment of uniformity that could be obtained by other plans.

7. The difficulty of providing financially for the accrued liability has, in fact, led to the establishment of unsound systems in which no provision for this liability has been made and has also frequently made it impossible to secure the establishment of sound systems, the cost being felt to be prohibitive.

8. Even when retirement systems have been scientifically planned and the necessity for taking care of the accrued liabilities has been recognized the attempts to secure economy by reducing the total liability have often resulted in the adoption of undesirable features. The plans of finance for providing for this liability are in general far from satisfactory and do not give the requisite certainty and security.

9. Free movement of teachers from system to system is desirable and ought not to be retarded. One result of movement of teachers is that the accrued liability on account of any teacher is frequently due to service in other States. It is quite impossible for one State to protect itself from the assumption of a liability which is properly due to another State except by refusing to employ teachers from other States. Such a practice would be unfortunate.

10. The present teachers, the experienced and professionally minded teachers who at this time constitute the backbone of our schools are vitally concerned in the recognition and adequate provision for the accrued liability. For the most part their retirement will depend upon this as the remaining period of service is too short for the accumulation of a proper benefit by normal rates of contribution.

11. Teachers who are at present fairly advanced in service will profit directly by Federal assistance in this manner. If the accrued liability is met by Federal aid or by the State through the stimulus of Federal aid,

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these teachers wil receive something personally and individually which they would not have received without such Federal aid.

12. Federal assistance beyond meeting accrued liabilities will benefit present teachers indirectly but not directly, because, as to future service, retirement benefits provided by normal rates of contribution are, from an economic point of view, deferred pay, and must be earned by the recipient through his service. Federal aid in meeting the normal rates of contribution will therefore be an assistance to the State as a whole and not a direct benefit to the individual teacher.

13. Federal aid in meeting the accrued liabilities will accomplish the maximum of benefits to the schools and teachers of the country by immediately removing the present burden of superannuation and by encouraging the establishment of sound and permanent retirement systems without placing an indeterminate and constantly increasing burden upon the Federal treasury.

14. No retirement plan can give the beneficial results desired unless the accrued liability is met by some adequate and certain plan of finance. Any system of Federal aid must recognize this and secure, by some measure, such provision. If it does not do so, the difficulties which have confronted the establishment of sound retirement systems will remain and the same causes which have led to the establishment of unsound systems will continue to operate.

15. While large in the aggregate, the accrued liability is definite and ascertainable. The whole, or a definite fraction, may be assumed by the Federal Government and provided for by a definite and limited series of payments.

There are already in existence nearly one hundred municipal or State teachers' retirement funds. Of these, the majority are admittedly unsound from a financial point of view and fail to produce the desired effect upon the efficiency of the schools and also fail to do justice between different groups of classes of teachers. There are, however, a number which have been planned with care and are acceptable to the people and community in which they are in operation and which are likely to operate satisfactorily. It is probably not possible to draw one complete detailed plan which would be the best under all circumstances. If it were possible to devise a perfect plan, the attempt to secure its universal adoption would arouse much discontent and local jealousy and be met with other difficulties which a more elastic plan would avoid.

The plan more in accordance with American ideals, as well as the one most likely to produce the results desired, would be to prescribe necessary standards, conformity to which would insure permanent and successful operation, and to require conformity as a condition of Federal aid.

A few simple standard requirements, if wisely framed and clearly explained, should readily win general approval. It would be much easier to secure modification of existing systems to conform to such standards than to secure rejection of all other plans and the adoption of one uniform plan.

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Obviously, since an important reason for Federal aid to State retirement systems is to promote the extension of the benefits of such funds to all of the public educational institutions of the Nation, Federal aid to each State must take the form of encouraging retirement provisions for the whole State. The end to be sought is to give every public institution in the State the benefits of a sound system, with such uniformity as may be desirable. It does not follow, however, that one uniform State-wide system is the only, or under all conditions, the best method of accomplishing this.

The institutions of the State educational systems fall into many classes, such as common schools, normal schools, State universities administrative officers, private institutions receiving State aid, industrial schools, reformatories, and the like. The Federal Government can hardly undertake to discriminate between such institutions, and dictate to the people of the State what type of institution shall perform a certain function, because local conditions must often determine local policy. Then, too, teachers trained by the State go to all types of schools, and move from one school to another.

The advantages of a State-wide system over a number of local systems are fairly obvious. The machinery for administering Federal aid should be kept as simple as possible and should deal with the centralized authority in each State. It is essential, in dealing with life annuities, to have a group large enough to give statistical stability.

On the other hand, existing retirement systems have not in general developed along the line of comprehensive State-wide plans. In particular, the larger cities have often established and maintained independent funds

One reason for the development of retirement funds along institutional or local lines has been the feeling that each type of institution has its own special needs, and that these needs would suffer if merged in the larger group. This feeling is likely to be less pronounced as it becomes more generally recognized that a retirement system is essentially a financial institution, dealing with teachers as teachers in a common employment, and not as teachers of various subjects, pursuing various programs. Then, too, it has been found quite possible to place the business management of a retirement system under central authority, while leaving details affecting institutional or local interests to representative local boards.

The following suggestions are offered for consideration:

1. That Federal aid be given only to the State, not to local or institutional systems.

2. That to receive Federal aid, a State must provide a retirement system which will include, upon equitable terms, all teachers whose compensation is paid by public funds regardless of the type of institution or political subdivision in which they may be employed.

3. That the State may or may not provide for separate local or institutional funds supported by local taxation, but that Federal aid be given only if the ultimate responsibility for financial obligation is assumed by the State.

National education must continue, for many years to come, to carry the handicap of superannuation, unless provision is made for the retire-

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ment of aged teachers. There is but one practicable way of permanently removing this handicap from the schools. The United States Government must assume what is in fact an obligation of the whole Nation, the accrued liability under a system which will provide for the retirement of wornout teachers in all of the public educational institutions.

The accrued liability is the financial obligation which the past has imposed upon the present, by employing teachers under conditions which have allowed the burden of superannuation to grow, or by promising retirement benefits while neglecting to arrange for payment.

The truth is, there would now be no such obligation if every State had recognized the simple economic fact that every bit of teaching service rendered in its schools creates a proportional liability for a retirement benefit at some future date, and had set aside assets to match these liabilities.

The obvious requirements of the situation are that every State must recognize that, corresponding to every term of service rendered by every teacher employed, a liability for future retirement is incurred; and from this time on, make financial provision for meeting it on a wise and equitable basis. As a stimulus to such action by the State, and in recognition that the omissions of the past constitute a general obligation, let the United States, acting for all, make good the deficit by placing past service on the same basis as future service. That is, let the United States make good the cost of extending the plan back, so that all teachers will be retired upon the same basis, without regard to the fact that more or less of their teaching was done before the system was established.

The benefit which the Nation would receive from such a measure, through the betterment of the schools, and the encouragement of the teachers, is incalculable.

The cost from the point of view of National expenditure is almost insignificant. It can be asserted with confidence that a sum sufficient to carry out this project, and to establish the system on a permanent basis for every school of every State would not exceed the amount paid by the United States for highway construction during five years. As a matter of fact, the payments for retirement benefits which would require such a sum, with interest, would extend over a period of sixty or more years, and the annual payments during the earlier and later years of that period would be comparatively small.

In order to have basis for discussion, the following suggestions are for a plan under which financial assistance from the Federal government may be made available to States which maintain satisfactory provisions for the retirement of teachers in public educational institutions.

The essential features to be embodied in the plan are these:

1. The States must make adequate financial provision for the retirement of teachers employed in public educational institutions within their boundaries, upon fair and reasonable terms.

2. The United States will give financial assistance to any State which does make such provision by bearing that part of the cost which is attributable to teaching service rendered in the past.

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3. The United States will require conformity to requirements which are essential to the permanent success of the retirement system, but will leave to the States which meet these requirements full discretion to carry them out by methods which best meet local conditions.

Experience has demonstrated that a retirement system can operate permanently and successfully only if it merits the full confidence of the teachers, that all alike are justly treated, and that all promised benefits will be paid without reduction.

There is but one method by which this can be accomplished. The plan must be based upon a recognition that each act of service of each teacher in the system creates a proportional fraction of obligation, to pay a retirement benefit. To meet the liability thus created, a retirement fund must be provided. This fund must be built up year by year as the service is rendered, so that when the time of retirement arrives, the money to provide the benefit in full will be actually in hand. This fund must be recognized as the teacher's own, because it has been earned by service. The teacher cannot justly be deprived of any part of it, either as a penalty for failure to meet in full an arbitrary definition of old age, or as a contribution to make good a deficiency because the State has failed to accumulate the necessary fund for some other teacher.

We shall not have a satisfactory National system until every teacher can feel assured that an adequate retirement fund will be available at the end of service, even though the service has been performed in many different cities or States. To this end, the retirement fund built up by any period of service in any State must not be lost by removal from the State, but must be preserved intact for the teacher's ultimate need.

It is, therefore, essential that retirement benefits be provided by individual funds, built up by the States during employment, and that the teacher's interest in the fund be personal and non-forfeitable, and have the security of a contract between solvent parties.

The benefits under a retirement system must be designed to provide readily for the elimination of the superannuated teachers and at the same time to offer substantial and effective inducement to teachers of character and ability to continue at their work as long as they are able to render valuable service. In brief, the object of the retirement system is to make it possible for a teacher, who is employed upon a salary, to build up by long and successful service, an economic substitute for the estate which he might hope to have created if he had devoted the same ability and effort to a private business enterprise. It is essential, therefore, that the retirement benefit bear a proper relation to length of service and to compensation received. The humble worker in the ranks, after a life-time spent in teaching at a salary hardly sufficient for a bare livelihood, will become an object of charity unless the retirement annuity is substantially equal to the previous salary. Those whose earnings have been greater may, without hardship, be retired upon allowances which are smaller in comparison with their former salaries. Nevertheless, great ability and high position are no protection against loss of power in old age; and experience has shown

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that superannuation in important and well-paid positions is always detrimental and frequently disastrous in its effect upon institutions, and that it cannot be removed unless the retirement provision bears a reasonable relation to the standing and compensation of the position.

In all of the preceding discussion, we have had in mind a retirement benefit to be provided by the State for the teachers in public institutions. There are many reasons for believing that the best results are obtained under a retirement system which is supported in part by direct contributions from the teachers themselves. When sound plans of finance are not followed, contributions by teachers result in many injustices which cannot be tolerated. When sound financial plans are followed and proper allocation of funds maintained, contributions by teachers become practically payments to purchase definite increases in the benefits provided by the State. There are no definite principles involved which would justify the National government in asserting that contributions by the teachers are essential to a permanent and satisfactory retirement system, and upon which the exact share to be paid by the teachers could be determined. On the other hand, the retirement system which commands the most loyal support and confidence of the teachers will be the most beneficial to the schools. For this reason, it must be left to the States to determine, in coöperation with the teachers, whether, and to what extent, direct contributions will be required from teachers. The National government must, however, require that if teachers contribute to a fund, the fundamental requirements of soundness and fairness must govern the funds contributed by them.

Standard requirements, which will give effect to the suggestions discussed above, may be comparatively brief and simple. Details may safely be left to be worked out by the States in conference with the teachers concerned.

REPORT OF THE COMMISSION ON THE COÖRDINATION OF RESEARCH AGENCIES[1]

JESSE H. NEWLON, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS
DENVER, COLORADO, CHAIRMAN

This commission was created late in 1920, and has been at work a little over two years. We have been handicapped, as all similar commissions composed of busy men and women in executive positions are handicapped. The work must be done on such time as can be spared from other duties. It has been difficult to find meeting times convenient to all. Nevertheless, valuable work has been done. These accomplishments have for the most part been recited in the two previous reports, and need not be mentioned again here.

The commission has made a survey of the problems involved in the coördination of research activities in this country. For the first time it is possible

[1] In addition to the chairman, this committee includes the members listed on page 25.

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to state rather definitely many of the problems involved and a definition of problems is the first step in coördination. The members of the commission most familiar with the problems of research have given unstintingly of their time, and even of their personal means.

The commission is divided into four committees. A description of the work of these committees will be sufficient to outline the most urgent problems of coördination as the commission sees them at the present time.

Committee on Classification of Educational Materials—Very early in its deliberations, the commission came to the conclusion that one of the first steps in the coördination of research activities must be an adequate system of classifying educational materials. At present we have no adequate and generally used system of classification. Materials are classified differently in different libraries and schools. The result is much confusion. The research student is particularly handicapped because of inability quickly to locate the material which he needs in his studies. It is frequently impossible for institutions to exchange materials efficiently because of this confusion.

In the spring of 1922 a committee on classification of educational materials was appointed. This committee consists of Dr. Thomas H. Briggs, chairman, Dr. Burdette R. Buckingham, and Mr. S. A. Courtis. The committee has had a number of meetings. A special appropriation was set aside by the commission for the employment of a trained librarian to compile a tentative index under the immediate direction of Dr. Buckingham at Ohio State University. This tentative index is in process of compilation and will be submitted to authorities for criticism. It is hoped that, after this index has been thoroughly tested and modified to meet the needs of the profession generally, provision may be made for its periodical publication, if possible, by the National Education Association. Such an index will prove of immeasurable value to the profession.

Committee on Nomenclature—Students of education have been painfully aware, especially in recent years, of the misunderstandings which have arisen from the confusion that exists in our educational nomenclature. Close thinking will frequently be impossible until there can be a more exact definition of terms. A good example of the confusion that exists is found in the use of the terms "guidance," "vocational guidance," "educational guidance," and "moral guidance." These terms are frequently used interchangeably. Vocational guidance means one thing when used by one writer and an entirely different thing when used by another. Vocational guidance may refer to vocational information or it may refer to a system of placement of pupils who are forced out of school for economic or other reasons. These terms only illustrate the confusions which exist.

The committee on classification very early discovered that an adequate system of classification cannot be devised until there is a more complete agreement as to nomenclature. Already some progress has been made in building up a precise system of educational nomenclature. Dr. Bagley and Dr. Charles Hughes Johnson were leaders, and the U. S. Bureau of Education coöperated, but the work has never been adequately taken in hand.

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Recognizing the need of attacking this problem, the subcommittee on educational nomenclature, consisting of Dr. Withers, chairman, Dr. Charters, Dr. Buckingham, Dr. Kilpatrick, and Dr. Seybolt, was appointed in April of this year. This subcommittee has had one meeting and has outlined a program of work, which is stated briefly in a letter written by Dr. Withers under the data of May 28, from which I quote.

1. The committee considers itself chiefly as a service committee to the subcommittee on classification.
2. It will not, therefore, attempt a complete dictionary of educational terms, but will confine itself to terms suggested by the following:
a. The subcommittee on classification, upon which we shall rely as our chief source;
b. Various research agencies in the field of education;
c. Terms suggested by our own committee which arise in our effort to deal with those from the other sources;
d. Graduate schools of education.

It will be readily apparent that this program will supply this subcommittee with a very large number of terms with which they will need to deal within the next year.

Subcommittee on the Coördination of Research Agencies—In April of this year a subcommittee on the coördination of research agencies was appointed, consisting of Dr. S. A. Courtis, chairman, and Mr. Frank G. Pickell and Mr. E. S. Evenden. The first activities of this subcommittee, as outlined by the chairman, will be

1. To formulate . . . . a statement in regard to the desirability of coördinating questionnaire activities, and requesting that the experiment be tried of sending out questionnaires from the central office of the Association.
2. A statement of "don'ts" for those who prepare questionnaires. This material when completed will be sent to school superintendents, colleges, universities, research agencies, etc., in the attempt to standardize questionnaire procedure.

This committee will also endeavor, through conferences, to make an arrangement whereby the more important problems of educational research may be delegated on some coöperative time-saving basis to the larger research agencies of the country. It has been the hope of the commission from the beginning that more teamwork among research agencies might be obtained through some system of coöperation.

Subcommittee on the Coördination of N. E. A. Commissions and Committees—Another subcommittee of the commission, consisting of Virgil E. Dickson, of Oakland, chairman, J. W. Studebaker, and George Melcher, has to do with the research activities of the National Education Association itself. Already this committee has rendered service by correspondence with committees and commissions of the Association and by practical suggestions as to ways in which duplication of effort may be avoided and the work of committees made more efficient through coöperation. Eventually a program to guide the Association in its research activities may be mapped out.

While the work of this commission is not spectacular, it is fundamental. There is lack of coördination all along the line in American education. One of the great tasks of the National Education Association is to effect coördina-

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tion of our educational activities and at the same time to preserve the spirit of initiative and research. The coördination of research activities is urgently needed. The commission realizes, after two years of study, that this task is tremendous. There is only one agency that commands both the resources and the prestige adequately to perform this task, and that is the Federal government. Awaiting the time when there will be a Department of Education with resources at its command needed to coördinate and promote educational research, the commission believes that much work can be done through the voluntary coöperation of educational institutions, research agencies, and the U. S. Bureau of Education, under the leadership of the Association itself, and to this end the commission is bending its energies.

Acknowledgment must be made on behalf of the commission to the Research Division of the National Education Association, and particularly to its director, John K. Norton, secretary of this commission, for the coöperation which this division has extended to the commission at all times and for its willingness to put into effect suggestions made by the commission as to work which the division might do for the profession.

It is the belief of the commission that at least one more year will be required to complete its work. Even then the work will not be completed, but it is hoped that within another year the commission can for all practical purposes make any contribution of which it may be capable as a commission.

The commission makes three recommendations: (1) That the commission be continued another year; (2) That the size of the commission be decreased in order to make it more workable; and (3) That a suitable appropriation be made for the work of the coming year.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON THRIFT EDUCATION

ARTHUR H. CHAMBERLAIN, SAN FRANCISCO, CALIFORNIA, CHAIRMAN

Eight years ago this month, July, 1915, the National Education Association held its annual meeting in this city. It was at that time that a conference was called to consider the need for thrift teaching in the schools of the Nation. As a result of that conference, a committee was named. This committee was to study the field of thrift; to consider the need for an understanding of thrift principles; the necessity for inculcating thrift habits; the call for the everyday practices of thrift in the lives of the people—in short, how thrift could be made a part of the school course of study should this be found the only feasible plan for the training of future generations in the habits of economy and in an understanding of the wickedness of useless waste and extravagance.

It seems especially appropriate therefore, that today, your present speaker, after serving eight years as the chairman of the Thrift Committee, resulting from the preliminary conference aforementioned, and with a number of

* In addition to the chairman, this committee includes the members listed on page 25.

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the original committee members still serving, should report back to this Representative Assembly of the National Education Association in convention assembled in the city where the plan first took shape.

Those of you who were delegates to this meeting two years ago at Des Moines, will recall the report of the Thrift Committee made at that time. This report is published in the proceedings of the Des Moines meeting—National Education Association Proceedings, 1921, page 167. A more complete report not merely by the chairman but by various committee members, as presented before the National Council of Education at its last session devoted to thrift, will be found on page 316 of the same volume.

Subsequently, reports of progress were made at the Atlantic City meeting of the Department of Superintendence in February, 1922, and at the Cleveland meeting February, 1923.

In addition to the reports made from time to time, the tangible evidence of progress of the Thrift Committee is found in a number of concrete studies published by the committee and distributed throughout the country. These include two war-time bulletins, one the value of thrift in financing the war and in carrying out a program of reconstruction; the other a study of foods—intensive cultivation, proper preparation and right conservation and use. Later bulletins have dealt with some of the results obtained in thrift work, the coöperation of school and community, various means and methods of school savings, the conservation of natural and human resources and finally, a pamphlet "The Arithmetic of Thrift" giving numerous concrete problems drawn from actual experiences in the household accounting, budgeting, everyday business operations, and the like.

There have been two distinct epochs in the period measured by the life of the Thrift Committee, the third epoch beginning only a few months ago. The first years were devoted mainly to investigation of conditions, to discovering sources of waste and extravagance, to analyzing community problems, and to securing individual reactions and opinions. In the years following, a campaign of education was carried on. In the beginning, committee members were themselves ignorant of the extent of the crying need for common-sense economies, the tremendous wastes everywhere practiced by the American people, and the possibilities for training in thrift habits.

In carrying on the subsequent program of education, it has been necessary to break down old traditions and established customs. Teachers and supervising school officers have seen and admitted the needs for establishing thrift habits and for the general practice of economy and the elimination of waste. But the line of least resistance is by way of the traditional channels. Courses of study are still too inflexible; the curriculum is already crowded; the claim of numerous new subjects are to be heeded; the elementary school still trains for admission to the high school, and the latter is still dominated by the college and university. But more than all, the teachers themselves are untrained for thrift teaching and even when time can be found they are timid and without resources and initiative.

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Comes now the third period—that of actually mapping courses of study in thrift. It seemed wise to attempt to develop a series of thrift projects in conjunction with the various school subjects, rather than to present a thrift program *per se*, of and by itself. Our eight years of apprenticeship on the Thrift Committee had clearly demonstrated that much of our arithmetic and English and civics and the remaining subjects of the curriculum are taught today as in years past, without proper application to the problems of everyday existence. Such teaching is ephemeral. To integrate the thrift activities and projects with the regular school subjects was to give vitality and meaning to lessons that may seem to bear no relation to the real life of the individual. What more appropriate then than that the actual working out of such a course of study in thrift or rather a course of study with thrift applications should be taken up aggressively in the schools of this city.

Willing ear was given to the appeal of our committee by the school authorities of Oakland. A special committee was named and a number of conferences held. This committee then met with the several general chairmen of the course of study committees of Oakland to plan the work and lay out the problems and projects in the various subjects. The schools of Oakland had already accomplished excellent results in thrift teaching in both elementary and high schools. Such coöperation as shown by Superintendent Hunter, Ellen McF. Parker, Sue L. Fratis, and Virgil E. Dickson, of the Special Committee, the various general committee chairmen and the classroom teachers and supervisors could but secure worth-while results in applying thrift principles in the course of study.

The Committee on Thrift Education takes this occasion to extend full appreciation to the entire school department of Oakland for furnishing so superior a laboratory for the experiment and for the developing of such a splendid preliminary course of thrift instruction.

The work from kindergarten through high school is being carried on in conjunction with several major subjects of instruction—English, the social studies, arithmetic, health education, science, vocational work, home economics, drawing, physical education, and industrial arts. There are numerous topics falling under one another of these major subjects that lend themselves to the work.

The bulletins embodying the work in thrift as worked out and taught in the schools of Oakland, is suggestive only. Further projects and problems will be carried out in succeeding years. The work in English is enriched and made to function in all school studies; the arithmetic is practicalized and carried over into everyday activities; the social studies, civics, citizenship, Americanization, biography, take on meaning and significance. Students are led into—not away from—a desire to save and spend wisely; to evaluate time and guard the health; to husband the resources of nature for the benefit of future generations.

It is the desire of the Thrift Committee to develop further thrift courses of study in a number of outstanding school systems throughout the country. This matter is to be pushed aggressively with the opening of the schools in the autumn. The committee urges upon all of whom request may be made

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to lend support to the work. And the committee urges every classroom teacher, every principal, every superintendent here assembled to give assistance, suggestion, and study to this important matter to the end that we shall develop and improve not a dependent citizenship and a rich rather than an impoverished country.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE TO COÖPERATE WITH THE AMERICAN SCHOOL CITIZENSHIP LEAGUE[1]

FANNIE FERN ANDREWS, BOSTON, MASSACHUSETTS, CHAIRMAN

The following is submitted as a declaration of principles for the committee's activities, and for adoption by the Representative Assembly:

WHEREAS, One of the greatest tasks of the schools in all lands is to teach the ideals of justice, friendship and good-will, and

WHEREAS, A new and better world could be made through the training of youth in all countries in the ideals of international justice and coöperation, and

WHEREAS, These ideals can be developed through all the subjects of the school program, those which offer the greatest opportunity for this development being history, geography, and literature, *Therefore be it Resolved,*

1. That a universal aim in teaching the history of a country should be to teach the social, economic, and political development of the Nation, and to show the relationships of these three lines of activities to similar lines of development in other countries of the world.

2. That the teaching of history should be begun in the early grades and history should be taught from the world point of view.

3. That instruction in history should include the teaching of specific principles which directly promote international good-will, such as, impartial judgment, justice, National and personal modesty, coöperation, and honor.

WHEREAS, The welfare of the world demands that the citizens of each Nation should become more intelligent about other peoples, their social conditions, their forms of government and their National ideals, *Therefore be it Resolved:*

1. That this might well become a universal aim in the teaching of geography.

2. That instruction in geography should include the teaching of specific principles which directly promote international good-will, such as interdependence, courage, enterprise, neighborliness and mutual understanding.

WHEREAS, The possibilities in the teaching of literature which will develop the ideals of justice and good-will are boundless, *Therefore be it Resolved:*

3. That instruction in literature should include the teaching of specific principles which directly promote international good-will, such as appreciation, courtesy, unselfishness, service, truthfulness, and human sympathy.

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[1] In addition to the chairman, this committee includes the members listed on page 22.

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THE DEBT OF THE PRESENT GENERATION TO THE FUTURE

WHEREAS, In many countries a substantial effort has been made to teach world friendship through the schools, which is evidenced by the courses in citizenship and good-will already in use, *Therefore be it Resolved:* That we base future plans for promoting world friendship on the great educational background established by these devoted efforts of teachers to promote international comity.

INTERNATIONAL GOOD-WILL DAY

WHEREAS, One effective means of promoting the spirit of international good-will is to set aside a day in the year to be observed in the schools of the world as Good-Will Day, and

WHEREAS, This day should in itself be a significant land-mark in the movement for international friendship, *Therefore be it Resolved:*

1. That the eighteenth of May, which commemorates the opening of the first Hague Conference—the first gathering of the nations in time of peace for the consideration of means of settling international differences by peaceful methods—is especially appropriate for concentrating upon the ideals of justice and world friendship.

2. That on the eighteenth of May instruction should be given concerning the results of The Hague Conference and also the later efforts to bring the world together into a coöperative body, and that this instruction should be accompanied by songs, both national and international, plays and pageants, which carry out the spirit of the day.

CONCLUDING RESOLUTION

Be it finally Resolved:

1. That the economic, social, and intellectual welfare of humanity demands uninterrupted coöperation among the nations of the earth, and the reign of reason and justice founded upon the international good-will.

2. That such teaching will show the high significance of those things which enter into a true conception of civilization, and

3. That the acceptance and promulgation of these ideals will form a sound foundation for the promotion of higher spiritual values in the schools of the world.

REPORT OF THE LEGISLATIVE COMMISSION[1]

GEORGE D. STRAYER, TEACHERS COLLEGE, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY
NEW YORK CITY, CHAIRMAN

Your Legislative Commission is glad to be able to report that substantial progress has been made both in Congress and among the people of the United States in the establishment of the program for National recognition and National support for education for which this Association stands.

[1] In addition to the chairman, this committee includes the members listed on page 24.

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We have been in conference with the President of the United States, with congressmen and senators, and with organized groups of laymen throughout the United States. The President has, through the report of Mr. Walter F. Brown, chairman, representing the President, to the Committee of Congress on the Reorganization of the Executive Departments of our Government, proposed the establishment of a Department of Education and Welfare. This recommendation has not yet come before Congress for action. We are persuaded from the advice which we have received from representatives and senators that National recognition for education through the establishment of a Department of Education may be realized in the next session of Congress. We know by virtue of the vote of the National League of Women Voters, the General Federation of Women's Clubs, the National Committee for a Department of Education, the American Federation of Labor, the Daughters of the American Revolution, the National Congress of Parent-Teachers' Associations, the Supreme Council of the Scottish Rite Masons of the Southern Jurisdiction, and by the enthusiastic endorsements that have come from organized groups of citizens from one end of this country to the other, that the cause for which this Association has stood consistently during the last five years has today an increased and overwhelming support from laymen.

We have found evidence in support of our contention that the National Government should aid States in the removal of illiteracy, the Americanization of the foreign-born, the training of teachers, the development of a more adequate program of physical education and health service, and the equalization of educational opportunity from the investigation of the National Bureau of Economic Research, which shows that the per capita income of the several States varies from $345 in one State to $850 in that State in which the people enjoy the largest income per capita. We have found as well that in four out of six of the States showing the lowest per capita income, the people are devoting a larger percentage of their incomes to the support of public education than the people of the wealthy State of New York.

We hold that it is unjust to require the people of one State to tax themselves twice as heavily as do the people of another State for the accomplishment of a National purpose. We believe that the support of public education is more certainly a matter of National concern than the building of highways, the maintenance of investigation that makes for increased productivity of our farms or the development of our commerce. The safety of the Nation, the perpetuity of our form of government, and the economic prosperity of the Nation depend upon the education provided for all of the children of the Nation. Money devoted to education is capital invested in the well-being of our society, and this capital invested in education is more essential to the prosperity of the Nation than is money invested in railroads or factories.

We have established in the minds of those who believe in the American public schools, the necessity for National recognition of education through the establishment of a Department of Education with a Secretary in the President's Cabinet. We are just as certain that the principle of National aid in support of education must be accepted by all who believe in making

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good the American ideal of equality of opportunity. The Towner-Sterling Bill before the last Congress will be re-introduced in the Congress of the United States when it meets in its next session. It has been established that the provisions of this measure guarantee to the States the administration, supervision, and control of their schools while furnishing to them the leadership, the support for scientific investigation, and the Federal aid without which we cannot carry forward to full fruition our American program of education. We ask that you instruct us and that you coöperate with us in continuing to fight for the program embodied in that measure until it shall be enacted into law.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE TO COÖPERATE WITH THE AMERICAN LEGION[1]

J. M. GWINN, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, SAN FRANCISCO CALIFORNIA, CHAIRMAN

Your committee has at this early date in its history reached the happy condition where its work goes forward effectively with little attention and effort from the committee. This highly satisfactory state has been due to the fact that the office of the Secretary of the National Education Association has served the committee so well and has been able to carry forward the aims and purposes of the committee in a manner extremely gratifying to your committee.

It must be kept in mind that your committee is one appointed at the Des Moines meeting to coöperate with the American Legion. The initiative at this meeting was taken by the American Legion. This great organization, through its proper representatives, came before the National Education Association and inquired how it could serve the cause of American education and suggested certain lines of endeavor, including the suggestion of the observance of a week later known as American Education Week.

The American Legion, through its Americanism Commission, under the leadership of Garland W. Powell, National director, did much of the planning and executing of the plans in making the week so successful. The United States Bureau of Education has joined with the American Legion and the National Education Association so that now the work goes forward under the joint coöperation of these three organizations. Working together these three have secured the active coöperation of many other organizations and institutions. There are 103 of these supporting organizations and institutions. I regret that time and space make it impossible for mention to be made of each of these organizations, but they include many, in fact most, of the great National organizations and institutions interested in promoting the welfare of the country. For the same reasons it is possible to bring to your attention but a few of the things done by the American Legion, by the U. S. Bureau of Education, and by the National Education Association.

[1] In addition to the chairman, this committee includes the members listed on page 26.

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The American Legion initiated the idea, and properly has taken the leadership, and has shown the school people of America that the American Nation need have no fear for the future of education while the great patriotic organization of the American Legion is so active and interested in education. The Legion secured the coöperation of many allied organizations, and secured the writing of a proclamation on American Education Week by the President of the United States, and either a proclamation or an official statement from 42 of the 48 Governors of States. Also, in practically all towns and cities of the country, the Legion secured official recognition of this work from the mayors. In the actual carrying forward of the plans for the week the American Legion, through the local posts, contributed large financial support and furnished many speakers to go into the schools. A splendid summary of the work for American Education Week was prepared by the National Director of the Americanism Commission. This report was printed last February, and I am greatly indebted to Director Garland for much of the information used in my report to you.

In presenting to you the part which the United States Bureau of Education took, I cannot do better than quote from the report of National Director Powell:

> The cordial coöperation of the United States Bureau of Education, under the able direction of John J. Tigert, United States Commissioner of Education, cannot be too highly emphasized or too gratefully acknowledged. It is owing to this coöperation that practically all of the educational publications in the country, to the number of 325, carried illustrative material of current interest on American Education Week. This material was broadcasted by the Bureau of Education. Mr. Tigert also maintained personal communication with all State educational agencies and officials, in addition to writing for publication in the interest of the Week. To the abilities and energy of Mr. Tigert the Legion and the Nation are alike indebted, in this field of the fostering of education.

American Education Week was observed throughout the United States during the week of December 3 to 9, 1922, an important objective was set for each day, and a program for the attainment or approach toward the objectives was prepared.

The objectives and slogans for each of the several days were as follows:

Sunday, Dec. 3—For God and Country—
Slogan—A Godly Nation cannot fail.

Monday, Dec. 4—American Citizenship Day—
Slogans—Americans all by 1927.
Visit the schools today.

Tuesday, Dec. 5—Patriotism Day—
Slogans—Visit the schools today.
Patriotism is the basis of a happy Nation.

Wednesday, Dec. 6—School and Teacher Day—
Slogans—Visit the schools today.
Better trained and better paid teachers, more adequate buildings.

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Thursday, Dec. 7—Illiteracy Day—
Slogans—Let every citizen adopt and teach an illiterate to read and write.
Visit the schools today.
Friday, Dec. 8—Equality of Opportunity—
Slogans—Let all have an equal opportunity for education.
A square deal for the country boy and girl.
Visit the schools today.
Saturday, Dec. 9—Physical Education Day—
Slogans—A sick body makes a sick mind.
Playgrounds in every community.
Athletes all.

As a summary of some of the work done by the National Education Association through its executive officers, I again quote from the summary prepared by Dr. Garland W. Powell:

The National Education Association printed and mailed out about 200,000 of these programs for American Education Week and about 25,000 forty-eight page bulletins giving up-to-date statistical and other information on each of the subjects on the main program. The Secretary wrote letters to all county and city superintendents, to all normal school and college presidents, and to thousands of other people, calling attention to the importance of observing the week in every community, suggesting policies and plans, and giving general help.

National organizations and local and State educational authorities were authorized to reprint the program and bulletin. It is estimated that this resulted in printing and distributing 500,000 additional programs and other information.

Your committee desires that special mention be made of the work of the Research Division of the National Education Association, Bulletin 2, of the Reseach Division was entitled "Facts for American Education Week." In this bulletin there was presented in a brief but comprehensive form, and in a splendidly organized way, the data for use of speakers and for articles for newspapers concerning illiteracy, National physical efficiency, immigration and foreign-born population, and inequality of educational opportunity. This bulletin was widely circulated and copied and was used most effectively in thousands of schoolrooms by speakers.

The idea of American Education Week is not in any manner in conflict with the idea of international good-will. The individual must be strong in order to be of service to others, and it is with this purpose to secure for America that strength that may enable her to serve well herself and others that American Education Week is observed. The purposes sought in the cooperation of the American Legion, the U. S. Bureau of Education and the National Education Association, and with the help of more than 100 supporting organizations, are yet in process of attainment. Hence, work of the committee should be continued.

Looking to better results it is recommended that the week set apart should be advanced to the week in November just preceding Thanksgiving week. The week in December is too near the Christmas holidays, and also too late in the school term for the effects of the week to be fully felt during the school session.

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For our next program it is the opinion of the chairman of the committee that a bulletin should be prepared by the Division of Research which will furnish the facts and arguments in answer to some of the current and not well-founded criticisms of public education. The answers to all such criticisms are found in the facts concerning the public schools. To furnish these facts to the people is one of the main objectives of American Education Week. Properly selected and organized facts concerning what the schools are doing will, in my judgment, make complete answer to the charge that the schools are spending too much money and neglecting the fundamentals of education.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON FOREIGN RELATIONS

AUGUSTUS O. THOMAS, AUGUSTA, MAINE, CHAIRMAN

At the Salt Lake City meeting of the National Education Association, Mrs. Josephine Corliss Preston, president, appointed a temporary committee to deal with problems of international relations which might arise and to look after the interests of members of the National Education Association who were present from foreign countries.

There seemed to be something worthwhile to do and the directors voted to make the committee permanent. President Fred M. Hunter, during his administration, appointed the permanent committee. At the Des Moines meeting the committee reported the request of the President of Czecho-Slovakia that the National Education Association of the United States invite the nations of the world to a conference. The committee reported favorably on such a call and the Association passed the resolution directing the Foreign Relations Committee to proceed with arrangements. During the presidency of Miss Charl Ormond Williams, the plans were laid and presented at the Boston meeting. They were approved, and President Owen, upon coming into office, directed the committee to extend invitations to all nations to participate in the conference.

It required considerable effort to secure sufficient contacts in seventy-two countries. Invitations were sent to the officers of all educational associations whose names could be secured, to ministers of education, and to prominent educators. The response was general and quickly accepted. A large number of countries appointed official delegates to the conference.

The conference convened at San Francisco, June 28, and closed simultaneously with the 1923 meeting of the National Education Association. It was attended by more than thirty distinct racial groups and by over fifty national divisions. The character of the men and women who came was a great satisfaction to those who had to do with the calling and conduct of the conference. Many of the best-known educators and most influential men and women of the several countries took part in the deliberations. The conference was organized into sub-divisions or groups for the purpose of hearing reports from the various countries and to get matters in shape on the points of the agenda for the action of the plenary sessions.

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The committee wishes to express its appreciation for the fine spirit of cooperation and helpful suggestions of President William B. Owen, and Secretary James W. Crabtree. Without their assistance the conference could scarcely have been successful.

The spirit of the meeting was friendship and good-will and to determine some of the principles, attitudes, processes, and methods of education which may be universally applied. It was not the intention of the conference to embarrass any nation by dealing with those problems upon which nations may disagree, but to find the general principles of amity and concord. We believe that truth is universal and susceptible of universal application. What the world needs most today is the golden rule applied not alone to individuals but to nations. While the conference was not called as a peace movement, it was well known that the whole tendency of the results of such a conference would be to prolong the intervals between wars to such an extent that eventually war might cease.

Leagues of nations, associations of nations, world courts, reduction conferences, peace treaties, and international agreements are and will be necessary to the ultimate welfare of mankind, but before the principles involved therein can be confirmed and established they must have definite spiritual values and these spiritual values must await the longer processes of education. Reforms affecting humanity require generations to consummate and establish.

At this very hour statesmen and financiers are struggling with the settlement of the debt of the past, trying to untangle an almost hopeless task, while the schoolmasters of the world are here struggling with the debt of the future, the debt of maturity to youth. The one is the penalty for the transgression of the laws of human kindness, the destruction of property and the taking of life through the laws of sanction, while the other is the struggle of civilization to perpetuate itself and to place succeeding generations upon a higher plane of altruism.

If this conference can carry back to the millions of peoples of the world the ideals here established and teach them successfully to the world's children, there will be developed a better understanding and a broader sympathy among the community of nations.

Citizenship today must be broader than nationalism. There must be an international consciousness; there must be an "international heart," and a "world mind." This "world mind" is largely an attitude or habit of thinking in the larger units of the world and the habit of regarding the nations as coöperating parts of the great whole. It is learning to measure other peoples by their own standards and getting their point of view. It is a recognition of those great virtues, attitudes, traits, and ideals which constitute national character. The question now is, "Has the world progressed to such a point or will it ever come to such a point in the fundamental principles of morality that the nations can live together as sharers of the world's civilization?"

We do not seek to destroy national identity, but rather to increase national consciousness as to responsibility in the progress of all. We would

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not erase national or racial lines, but conserve the variety of taste and talent necessary to the world's advancement. In other words, we would increase the respect of each nation for its flag as well as for the flags of other nations and make the national flag a real symbol of national worth and to increase the prosperity, contentment, and happiness of the people who dwell within its shadows, to bring about a world-wide reciprocity and a greater tolerance for the rights and privileges of the peoples of the world.

Committee on Foreign Relations of the National Education Association

Augustus O. Thomas, Chairman, State Commissioner of Education, Augusta, Maine.
James F. Hosic, Secretary, Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.
P. P. Claxton, Provost of the University of Alabama, University, Alabama.
Abbie L. Day, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.
W. K. Dwyer, Superintendent of Schools, Anaconda, Montana.
John H. Finley, Editor, *New York Times*, New York City.
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World Conference on Education Advisory Committee

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South Carolina—Wil Lou Gray, State Supervisor of Schools for Adults, Columbia.
South Dakota—M. M. Guhin, State Director of Americanization and Rural Education, Pierre.
Tennessee—S. L. Smith, Field Agent for Rosenwald Fund, Nashville.
Texas—S. M. N. Marrs, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Austin.
Utah—G. N. Childs, Superintendent of Schools, Salt Lake City.
Vermont—Caroline S. Woodruff, Principal Teachers Training Course, St. Johnsbury.

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Virginia—Nannie W. Thompson, State Director, National Education Association, Richmond.
Washington—William F. Geiger, Superintendent of Schools, Tacoma.
West Virginia—James H. Hickman, Assistant State Superintendent of Schools, Charleston.
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Wyoming — Katherine A. Morton, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Cheyenne.
District of Columbia—Harry English, Department of Education, Washington, D. C.
Alaska—John E. Lanz, Superintendent of Schools, Juneau.
Hawaii—F. A. Clowes, President, Hilo Teachers Union, Hilo.

OBJECTIVES OF THE CONFERENCE

The objectives of the conference are:

1. To promote friendship, justice, and good-will among the nations of the earth.

2. To bring about a world-wide tolerance of the rights and privileges of all nations regardless of race or creed.

3. To develop an appreciation of the value and the inherited gifts of nationality through centuries of development and progress.

4. To secure more accurate and satisfying information and more adequate statements in the textbooks used in the schools of the various countries.

5. To foster a national comradeship and confidence which will produce a more sympathetic appreciation among all nations.

6. To inculcate into the minds and hearts of the rising generation those spiritual values necessary to carry forward the principles emphasized in the Conference on Limitation of Armaments.

7. Finally, throughout the world, in all schools, to emphasize the essential unity of mankind upon the evils of war and upon the absolute necessity of universal peace.

These objectives to be secured through the following means:

1. The teaching of international civics which will acquaint the rising generation with the various points of contact made necessary and facilitated by the modern means of communication and trade.

2. By the organization of textbook material used in the schools such as will give a more accurate visualization of the dominant traits, conditions, and ideals of the nations.

3. Through the exchange of teachers and through scholarships to students of foreign countries.

4. By a program looking to universal education.

5. Through an exchange of articles on education setting forth programs and methods used in the various countries and through an exchange of educational periodicals.

6. The designation of a day to be observed by all which may be known as "World Good-will Day," upon which such programs may be given as will promote international friendship.

RESULTS EXPECTED

This conference is called for the purpose of working out definite objectives for education's contribution to world welfare. It will afford abundant opportunity for assembling the facts as to the educational situation in the various nations of the world and for renewing old personal friendships and forming new ones as a basis for coöperation, but its great mission will be to produce a program designed to give school authorities in all nations knowledge of ways and means by which the world's five million teachers can promote good-will and understanding between persons and nations the world around. Every child in every school in every country can have its life bettered as the result of the deliberations of this World Conference on Education, which will keep constantly uppermost the best qualities of races and nations and the contribution each has made to the moral, social, and economic welfare of the world.

AGENDA

The program for the conference will give opportunity for addresses of educational leaders before both plenary and group meetings, but the primary business of the conference is to develop through daily exchange of ideas a working program

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for education that is universally applicable. To this end the conference has been divided into groups with definite agenda to be considered by each group. These agenda will be supplemented by additional proposals submitted by delegates during the conference. The proposals that are agreed to by the group conferences will be submitted to the final plenary session for the adoption of the entire conference as a working program for education. The agenda thus far proposed are as follows:

GROUP A. INTERNATIONAL COÖPERATION

DR. N. D. SHOWALTER, PRESIDENT OF THE WASHINGTON STATE NORMAL SCHOOL CHENEY, WASHINGTON, CHAIRMAN

1. *Educational attachés*—Conducive to widespread, or universal education of the most favorable sort, the educational experience of each nation should be made quickly available to all other nations. In order to formulate a program of helpfulness among those who are charged with the proper education of the oncoming generation, it is essential that educational workers be familiar with educational conditions in all parts of the world.

Problem: Should this conference recommend to the various governments that educational attachés be provided for all embassies and legations as a means to this end?

2. *Scholarships to graduate students*—One of the greatest needs of every nation in all its relationships is leaders who are familiar at first hand with actual practices and with the life and leaders of other countries.

Problem: Should this conference recommend to the various governments of the world that a reasonable sum be made available for scholarships for mature graduate students of education desiring to study in foreign countries, requiring of such persons special reports of desirable educational methods, movements, and processes with which they may become familiar?

3. *Federation of educational associations*—Educational aims are universal—the ultimate welfare of the individual, the strengthening of the State and the safeguarding of society. There should be some suitable and effective means devised to bring into closer coördination the various agencies which have to do with education throughout the world and to bring the 5,000,000 teachers into more fruitful and sympathetic relations with one another.

Problem: Should this conference take steps to form a permanent federation of educational associations and institutions, and, if so, what steps now should be taken?

4. *Greater unification in science*—It is well known that science is the most progressive element of modern civilization, that it is as a subject, the most potent factor both in peace and in war, and that it should be directed towards the welfare of mankind. In order that it may assume the most benevolent aspect there should be greater facility through measurements and terminology.

Problem: Is it possible and advisable to unify those elements of science in whole or in part, and, if so, to what extent and how?

GROUP B. DISSEMINATION OF EDUCATION INFORMATION

MRS. JOSEPHINE CORLISS PRESTON, STATE SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION OLYMPIA, WASHINGTON, CHAIRMAN

1. *Exchange of educational periodicals and articles*—One of the most salient means of bringing the educators of the nations together is through the exchange of articles on the various phases of education which are most emphasized as current problems.

Problem: Should this conference set up some plan with the proper organization for the promotion of the exchange of articles and periodicals, and if so, what is the best means of so doing?

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2. *Universal library service*—As civilization becomes more complex and education more universal, the importance of encouraging thoughtful reading and study throughout life increases. Universal public libraries are demanded in order that there shall be a common background of general culture and that the latest information on the arts and industries shall be available to all.

Problem: Should this conference take steps to set up standards for universal free public library service and for teaching in the schools the use of books and libraries for the guidance of all agencies interested in promoting higher ideals of reading and reference on the part of people generally?

3. *Exchange of teachers and professors*—As a means of bringing the peoples of the world into more sympathetic relations, to provide a means of relieving prejudice, and as a means of acquainting one nation with higher ideals and more liberal practices of another, various organizations have been created for the purpose of furthering the movement for the exchange of teachers in schools and professors in colleges and universities. This practice has now advanced to such a place that definite results may be catalogued and measured.

Problem: Should this conference take measures to assist in a definite way this movement and encourage those organizations now engaged in such service in some substantial way, and, if so, how can this best be done?

GROUP C. CONDUCT BETWEEN NATIONS

DR. ARTHUR W. DUNN, DIRECTOR OF AMERICAN JUNIOR RED CROSS WASHINGTON, D. C., CHAIRMAN

1. *Textbook materials*—Much of misunderstanding comes from a lack of proper knowledge of the problems and conditions of other countries. The knowledge we get from our school texts should be accurate and satisfying, should more properly visualize the dominant traits, conditions, and ideals of the nations. It ought to be possible, without varying a jot from one's devotion to flag and country, to present the facts in such a satisfying background and in such a manner as to heighten the respect of one nation for another.

Problem: What organization can this conference set up for coöperation in the discrimination of textbook materials used in the various countries in teaching commercial and political geography and history?

2. *World civics and ethics*—By virtue of invention and discovery the peoples of the world are thrown together into one neighborhood, each vitally associated with all other nations. The world's great problem is the soundness of present-day civilization and the development of those ethical and spiritual values necessary to enable the peoples of the earth to live together under these new conditions in friendship and good will, and to regard racial traits and national rights without jealousy.

Problem: (a) Should this conference recommend a study of world civics covering those essential contracts necessitated by trade, travel, commerce, and the exchange of inventions and learning? (b) Should this conference initiate such lessons and methods of instruction in ethics and courtesy as well tend to bring to the children of all lands a more wholesome regard for national neighbors to the end that the rising generation will eliminate prejudice and intolerance from their contacts with peoples of other lands? (c) Is it advisable to recommend the preparation of a series of international readers made up of the best literature each nation can furnish? The aim of the series would be to make current in the schools of all nations the ideas and ideals which each nation deems of universal worth.

3. *Correspondence among school children is promoted by the Junior Red Cross*—In order to present in the most effective manner the subjects of manners and customs, geography and school interests in the several countries, as well as to secure a more general sympathy of the children of one country for another, the Junior Red Cross

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has undertaken in a most satisfactory way to foster and to conduct international correspondence among school children.

Problem: Should the conference encourage the movement and establish a committee of members of the several countries and an organization whose purpose it shall be to cooperate with the Junior Red Cross in this movement?

GROUP D. INTERNATIONAL IDEALS

DR. MILTON BENNION, DEAN OF THE SCHOOL OF EDUCATION, UNIVERSITY OF UTAH, SALT LAKE CITY, UTAH, CHAIRMAN

1. *Character education*—Character education includes the psychology and sociology of character development, methods of character diagnosis, and the moral standards to be achieved during the different periods of the child's life. As a term, character education groups together and designates all of the elements permeating general education which encourage and guide the individual in his growth into a personality having desirable characteristics and habits appropriate to organized society.

Problem: What studies of the curriculum and what methods and processes are best calculated to bring children to understand and appreciate moral experiences, lead them to right acts, and develop a power to resist evil both in thought and act?

2. *Social studies*—It is generally conceded that certain studies tend to cultivate a definite sense of relationships between individuals as well as between individuals and groups of individuals called society.

Problem: Should this conference attempt to select those studies, divisions, and elements of the curriculum upon which special emphasis should be placed in order to more definitely shape the ideals of the future to the good of society?

3. *World peace*—The greatest task which lies ahead of the school in all lands is that of preparing the way for a new order of international justice, friendship, and good-will. Upon the instruction of the youth of the nations lies the responsibility of enlarging the national conceptions and promoting good-will among the nations of the earth. Entirely new values and standards of judging need to be created. The emphasis must be placed upon valor and patriotism of peace. If it is possible to set up a series of ideals such as a nation should become and to teach them to the rising generation, these ideals could eventually be realized.

Problem: Is it possible to formulate and to promote principles of education which will bring to the unprejudiced mind of childhood those universal virtues which develop the ideals of Abraham Lincoln expressed in the words, "With malice toward none, with charity for all?"

4. *The debt of the present generation to the future*—We are the keepers of the future and affect its well-being through the guidance we give it. Education is the "debt eternal." We cannot escape the responsibility of shaping the destiny of the world through the provision we set up for the welfare of the rising generation.

Problem: What ideals and tendencies of present-day education should be transmitted to the future and what is the surest means of making them effective?

5. *The international "Good-will Day"*—In order that the ideals looking to more fruitful international relations may take root and grow into lasting results for the good of all, without in the least infringing upon the rights and traditions of any people, there must be some definite point of contact which will improve the psychological and sociological status and direct the attention of the world at some time to some universal interest in a concerted way.

Problem: Is it possible to select from the calendar some day upon which all nations may unite as world "good-will day" upon which the 5,000,000 teachers of the 200,000,000 children may direct special attention upon the spirit of justice amity, and peace?

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GROUP E. HEALTH EDUCATION

DR. THOMAS D. WOOD, ADVISOR IN HEALTH EDUCATION, AND PROFESSOR OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION, TEACHERS COLLEGE, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY, NEW YORK CITY, CHAIRMAN

Health education—Healthy, normal children should be the goal of all school health work. The child's early education should give him an opportunity to build for himself a groundwork of wholesome ideals and habits of health upon which to base the structure of his future life. Health should be taught in such a way as to guarantee a nation of young men and women of sound bodies and sane, happy minds.

Problem: Is it possible and advisable to establish a Health Education program of such flexible and salient features that it may be profitably applied in all schools and among all people, embracing subject matter of Health Education in relation to the various ages from pre-school through teacher training periods; effective methods of teaching and stimulating pupils to right action; the problems of teacher training with proper stress on hygiene, sanitation, health habits, and recreation?

GROUP F. UNIVERSAL EDUCATION

MRS. CORA WILSON STEWART, CHAIRMAN OF THE ILLITERACY COMMISSION OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, FRANKFORT, KENTUCKY, CHAIRMAN

1. *Removal of illiteracy*—Popular education is now the policy of all leading nations and its universal extension a recognized necessity. The interests which education embraces and forwards are not the exclusive possession of any peoples. It is fast becoming recognized that a nation can be no stronger than the individuals who compose it. The ability to read and write in order to open up and promote intelligence in literature, art, music, science, invention, mechanics, trades, professions, social relations, and the higher functioning in the state now belongs to world intelligence.

Problem: Should this conference set up a program looking to the wiping out of illiteracy the world over and what means will be deemed most effective? Is it desirable to appoint a committee with international representation for this purpose?

2. *Thrift education*—In the experience of all peoples one of the most distressing features of our civilization is a lack of prudence in providing a suitable financial foundation for old age. Good citizenship requires that the individual be self-supporting and by the cultivation of right habits in dealing with income, no matter how small, the providing of a suitable foundation appears a universal need. A knowledge of the principles of banking and sound investment also appears as a paramount issue in the world's welfare.

Problem: Is it possible and advisable that this conference should undertake to arrange materials and methods in the theory and practice of thrift which may have application among all nations, and is it further expedient to arrange a committee of international scope to encourage such enterprise?

3. *Balance of liberal and vocational education*—While the purpose of education is not primarily to increase the earning capacity of those who possess it, but to enable them to live more largely in the realm of moral and intellectual completeness, it is also self-evident that the welfare of the state demands that each individual be taught to become self-supporting and to impose no burden upon society through inefficiency of service and lack of thrift. These two ideals, or parts of one ideal, can therefore be realized only through a proper balance or coördination of the cultural and the vocational.

Problem: Is it possible and desirable that this conference, either in itself or through a special committee, formulate a principle which may be universally applied relating to a proper adjustment of the so-called liberal and vocational elements of education?

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4. *Education of women*—Modern education includes to a more universal degree the education of women. Many countries are stressing forms of education especially applicable to them and calculated to prepare them for greater efficiency in those duties especially applicable to motherhood and the home as well as for functioning in civic relationships looking to greater equality of the sexes in all matters pertaining to the advancement of civilization and the greater efficiency of one generation over another.

Problem: Should this conference seek to encourage the education of women as a universal program and set up an organization for its encouragement, and further, should a definite expression of subjects and principles be formulated to stimulate such work?

GROUP G. RURAL LIFE CONSERVATION

DR. EDWARD O. SISSON, DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION, REED COLLEGE PORTLAND, OREGON, CHAIRMAN

Rural life program—The most fundamental occupation of civilization of all times is and must necessarily be the production of food and clothing. As a consequence rural life should be made attractive to country dwellers; they should have every advantage of an education for their children such as will maintain a people of learning and culture and contentment on the farms of the world. When these people are properly supplied with educational and church facilities with easy access to well-selected and well-filled libraries the world's food supply will be assured.

Problem: Is it possible to secure such a survey of rural conditions as will enable those who have to do with this phase of education to formulate movements for a general improvement and a world-wide concerted action to the end that the attention of all classes of citizens may become interested in the greatest of all educational problems and lend assistance to its solution?

GROUP H. THE PAN-PACIFIC UNION

DR. FRANK F. BUNKER, SECRETARY OF THE PAN-PACIFIC UNION, HONOLULU TERRITORY OF HAWAII, CHAIRMAN

Conference of Pacific countries—The Pacific countries already having permanent organization and having held meetings to deliberate upon questions of coöperation and community interests are assigned to two special group sessions during which they will consider problems peculiarly their own.

Problem: How can the educational agencies of the Pacific countries best promote international understanding and friendliness?

LIST OF DELEGATES TO THE WORLD CONFERENCE ON EDUCATION

JUNE 28 TO JULY 6, 1923, SAN FRANCISCO, CALIFORNIA, U. S. A.

ARGENTINE

Señor Don Santos Goni, Argentine Consul General in San Francisco, 1570 Greenwich Street, San Francisco, California.

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Miss Elizabeth H. Pashayan, 151 Fifth Avenue, New York City.

AUSTRALIA

Miss Jean Watson, "Shirley," Gordon Street, Balaclava, Melbourne, Australia.

BELGIUM

Mr. Edmond Dronsart, Director General of the Belgian Red Cross, 80 rue de Livourne, Brussels, Belgium.

Miss Antoinette M. Guisen, 81 Chaussee de Lierre, Malines, Belgium.

Mlle. Madeleine Kaiser, 24 rue des Deux-Eglises, Brussels, Belgium.

Mr. Leon de Paeuw, Director General of the Ministry of Sciences and Arts, Rue Leys 50, Brussels, Belgium.

Mrs. Alice B. Wilson, 106 Parnassus Avenue, San Francisco, California.

Mr. George I. G. Marsity, Acting Consul General for Belgium in San Francisco, California.

BOLIVIA

Mr. A. Daniel Cusicanqui, American Institute, La Paz, Bolivia.

Mr. Albert Palacios, Consul General for Bolivia in San Francisco, San Francisco, California.

Mr. Jorge Munoz Reyes, 1121 Wellington Avenue, Oakland, California.

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Miss Mary L. Bollert, 1185 Tenth Avenue West, Vancouver, British Columbia, Canada.
Mr. Harry Charlesworth, 628 Battery Street, Victoria, British Columbia, Canada.
Mr. Joe Harwood, 7th Street, Bernan, British Columbia, Canada.
Mr H. W. Huntley, 256 Inkster Avenue, Winnipeg, Manitoba, Canada.
Miss Annie Bruce Jamieson, 1584 Sixth Avenue West, Vancouver, British Columbia, Canada.
Mr. Edward S. Martin, 190 Wallace Street, Nanaimo, British Columbia, Canada.
Mr. Harold R. Peat, Del Prado Hotel, Chicago, Illinois.

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Mr. C. H. Chu, 87 Rue Depasse, Tientsin, China.
Mr. P. Hsieh, Si Chuan Ma Chang, West City, Peking, China.
Mr. Lincoln H. C. Kao, Wuchang, Hupeh Province, China.
Miss K. J. Ku, Wusih, China.
Dr. P. W. Kuo, National Southeastern University, Shanghai and Nanking, China.
Mr. Chien Hsun Li, Tsing Teng Hsien, Chihi Province, China.
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Mr. K. Shu, Wuzieh, Kiangsu, China.
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Miss Clarice Chan, 321 Eighth Street, Oakland, California.
Dr. Chi-Pao Cheng, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.

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EL SALVADOR

Mr. Samuel G. Dawson, San Salvador, El Salvador, Central America.
Mr. Jorge A. Paredis, San Salvador, El Salvador, Central America.
Madame Leanor de Quinonez, San Salvador, El Salvador, Central America.
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Qwing to the large number of American delegates who registered space is not available to list them here.

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WORLD CONFERENCE PROCEEDINGS

The World Conference on Education at its Plenary Sessions adopted the following proposals formulated by the various group conferences and submitted to it by the Clearance Committee which was appointed to coördinate the reports of the various group meetings.

GROUP A. INTERNATIONAL COÖPERATION

Agendum 1: Educational attachée—WHEREAS, It is conducive to that mutual national understanding, friendship, and interchange of ideas which form the true basis of international peace and good-will, that the educational experience and ideals of each nation should become known to all other nations; and, WHEREAS, This can be most fully and successfully accomplished through the medium of a personal channel, *Therefore be it resolved:*

1. That an educational attaché, who shall be a recognized educational expert of the highest rank, should be provided for each embassy or legation.

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1. That in cases where, owing to various national circumstances, such a plan is not possible or is not deemed desirable the prominent educational organizations of the country should provide an educational representative of outstanding ability.

Committee: Harry Charlesworth, *Chairman,* Canada.

Group A. Agendum 2. Scholarships to graduate students—WHEREAS, One of the greatest needs of every nation in all its relationships is leaders who are familiar at first hand with actual practices and with the life and leaders of other countries, *Therefore be it resolved:*

1. That it is the sense of the World Conference on Education that the various governments, universities, schools, and other educational organizations of the world should be requested to appropriate a reasonable sum available for scholarships for mature graduate students of education desiring to study in foreign countries.

2. That these students should especially devote their attention to international civics, economics, and comparative education and should report the results of their studies and research to their respective governments, universities, schools, and other educational organizations.

3. That while this conference feels that its function is to make a general appeal to various governments in regard to the subject matter of the above resolution, it leaves the method of approach entirely to the judgment of the several delegations.

Committee: M. G. Papazian, Armenia; Annie B. Jamieson, Canada; Monroe Quiney, China; R. V. Gogate, Indore State, Central India; Y. Ishima, Japan; Zorica Baber, United States.

Group A. Agendum 3. Federation of education associations—WHEREAS, Educational aims are universal, there should be devised some suitable and effective means to bring into closer coördination the various agencies which have to do with education throughout the world and to bring the 5,000,000 teachers into more fruitful and sympathetic relations with one another, *Therefore be it resolved:*

That this conference form a permanent federation of educational associations and that a temporary constitution be adopted as follows:

Article I. Name—Sec. 1. The name of this organization shall be the World Federation of Education Associations.

Article II. Objects—Sec. 1. The objects of this federation shall be to secure international coöperation in educational enterprises, to foster the dissemination of information concerning education in all its forms among nations and peoples, to cultivate international good-will, and to promote the interests of peace throughout the world.

Article III. Membership—Sec. 1. The following organizations shall be entitled to membership in this federation: (a) Any nation-wide organization of educators which shall be recognized as such by the executive authority hereinafter mentioned. (b) Any organization of educators in a country not at present possessing a nation-wide organization, which shall make application for membership to the executive authority of this federation and whose application shall be approved by said executive authority.

Article IV. Organization—Sec 1. There shall be a board of directors comprising two members elected or appointed from and by each affiliating organizations, who shall hold office for two years. The board of directors shall be the executive authority controlling this federation. There shall be a temporary board of directors consisting of the temporary president, the two temporary vice-presidents, and six other directors, two from each section outlined in Article 6, to be chosen by the delegates at this meeting in the same manner as provided in the case of the temporary president.

Sec. 2. There shall be a president chosen by the board of directors from their own body but a temporary president shall be chosen by the delegates present at this official conference upon the recommendation of a nominating committee consisting of one delegate from each affiliating organization. There shall be two temporary vice-presidents to be chosen in the same manner as the temporary president, one

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from each section (as outlined in Article 6) in which the temporary president does not reside.

Sec. 3. There shall be a secretary-treasurer chosen by the board of directors, but a temporary secretary-treasurer shall be chosen by the delegates at this meeting in the same manner as the temporary president. The secretary-treasurer shall be the executive officer of the federation under the direction of the board of directors and he may be paid a salary at the discretion of the board.

Article V. Headquarters—Sec. 1. The headquarters of this organization shall be temporarily located in the United States of America.

Article VI. Meetings—Sec. 1. A world conference shall meet in full session every alternate year, but a meeting of sections: one in Europe; one in America; and one in Asia; shall be held in each intervening year. Other countries shall decide which group they will join.

Article VII. Fees—Sec. 1. Affiliating associations shall pay a subscription fee per annum of one cent per member (U. S. currency) provided that the fee of any affiliating association shall not be less than $25, gold (U. S. currency) while the maximum contribution for any organization shall be $1,000, gold (U. S. currency).

Committee: Charles H. Williams, chairman; E. J. Sainsbury; P. U. Kuo, China; M. Sawayanagi; Pompilia Ortega.

Advisory members: Clementina T. Laing, Harry Charlesworth, R. V. Gogate.

Group A. Agendum 4. Greater unification in science—WHEREAS, Science is the most progressive element of modern civilization; and, WHEREAS, a greater unification of terminology would lead to a more effective coöperation between nations; *Therefore be it resolved:*

That it is the sense of this group on International Coöperation of the World Conference on Education that steps should be taken to bring about a greater unification of scientific terminology; and *Be it further resolved:*

1. That the adoption of the Metric System be made world-wide.
2. That other so-called international units be made more truly international.
3. That science courses in the elementary, intermediate, and high schools be clearly defined as to content.
4. That college and university courses be clearly defined as to content.
5. That the sub-divisions of science in all schools, colleges, and universities be clearly defined as to content.
6. That vocational science courses be clearly defined as to content.
7. That the governments of the various nations be petitioned to frank all letters addressed to educational departments and representative educators of other nations.
8. That the National Education Association and educational associations of the various nations be requested to supply stationery for the purpose of communicating with such educational departments and educators.
9. That a committee of three be appointed to become a clearing-house for the interchange of such information and suggestion.

Committee: Y. Ishimura, Asia; Dr. Maria de Maeztu, Europe; Percy E. Rowell, America, *chairman.*

GROUP B. DISSEMINATION OF EDUCATION INFORMATION

Group A. Agendum 1. Exchange of educational periodicals and articles—WHEREAS, The exchange of articles on various phases of education is one of the most effective means of bringing the educators of the nations together; *Therefore be it resolved:*

That the World Conference on Education undertake the organization of a permanent bureau of research and publicity, whose duties it shall be to:

1. Make research studies on the various phases of educational development in the different countries;
2. To publish an International Digest of Education;
3. To furnish information concerning the publications on education of different countries so as to facilitate the exchange of periodicals and articles;

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4. To publish pamphlets of special studies on education from time to time; and
5. To undertake such other similar tasks as need arises.

Committee: Mr. C. P. Chang, *chairman,* China; Miss Ethel Gardner, America; Mrs. E. A. Brown, Honolulu.

Group B. Agendum 2. Universal library service—WHEREAS, World progress is dependent upon universal education, and universal education is made possible only through the proper dissemination of knowledge, and the dissemination of knowledge is made more effective through the agency of libraries; *Therefore be it resolved:*

1. That a universal library bureau be established which might ultimately be connected with a world or international university. (a) That this world library bureau supply to any nation upon request books, pamphlets, and magazines for use upon any subject within the scope of this conference. (b) That this bureau shall cooperate with the library associations of the various nations in setting up definite standards of service for the public libraries existing within the several nations.
2. That the educational organization of every country establish a national library bureau to serve not only the needs of its own country but also to serve as a medium between the citizens of that country and the world library bureau.

Committee: Mrs. L. O. Anderson, *chairman.*

Group B. Agendum 3. Exchange of teachers and professors—WHEREAS, An effective means of bringing the peoples of the world into more sympathetic relations, of relieving prejudice, and of acquainting one nation with the higher ideals and more liberal practices of another is the exchange of teachers in schools and professors in colleges and universities; *Therefore be it resolved:*

That this world conference go on record as endorsing and desiring to coöperate with all plans of interchanging teachers and professors, including all groups, as kindergarten, elementary, secondary, and higher.

Committee: Mrs. Jessie M. Fink, *chairman.*

Group B. Topic: International University.

Resolved, That the World Conference on Education appoint a representative committee which shall investigate the question of the establishment of a world university, and if found feasible, shall recommend a plan of procedure at the earliest possible time.

Committee: Mr. K. W. Gunther, *chairman.*

GROUP C. CONDUCT BETWEEN NATIONS

Agendum 1. Textbook materials—WHEREAS, One of the most potent methods of preventing international misunderstanding is to make sure that the information obtained by school children about other countries is presented to them with scrupulous accuracy and in a spirit of fairness and good-will; *Therefore be it resolved:*

That the international education association resulting from this conference undertake at once a study of ways and means to assist national educational bodies to see that the preparation of textbooks and other methods of instruction employed by their own countries is governed by this principle.

The following recommendations are respectfully submitted:

1. That an exchange of textbooks in use be effected between all countries.
2. That these textbooks be studied especially with a view to correcting misrepresentations [illegible] country and to furnishing material that will foster international friendship.
3. That a series of international readers be prepared, based upon the biographies and the [illegible] literature of all nations.
4. That especially history, civics, and geography textbooks (including international law) [illegible] the interdependence of all members of the human family, and the necessity of peace [illegible] essential condition of the highest human development; and that suggestions be formulated for [illegible] the same principle through the teaching of science and the arts.
5. That suggestions be formulated for the most effective use of all forms of visual education [illegible] the promotion of international justice and good-will.

Group C. Agendum 2. World civics and ethics—WHEREAS, The only hope for the achievement of permanent peace and good-will among nations lies in the realization by future generations that the world is dependent for its very existence upon

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organized coöperation in every department of life and is thus a single great community in which every individual enjoys certain benefits and bears certain responsibilities; *Therefore be it resolved:*

That the World Conference on Education request the proper educational body of each country to outline for its own schools a system of training that will cultivate in children attitudes of mind and habits of thought and action appropriate to effective membership in this world community such outlines to be presented to the next world conference for comparison, discussion, and publication throughout the world.

The following recommendations are respectfully submitted:

1. That this training stress the common interests and purposes and the interdependence of mankind.
2. That this training emphasize the need and possible means of coöperation among nations for the realization of these common interests and purposes.
3. That this training be developed not as a separate subject in the course of study, but as a phase of all existing subjects supplemented by pupil activities.
4. That this training be continuous from the earliest grades throughout the school career.
5. That an essential part of this training be the establishment of actual contact between the children of different countries through the medium of activities in which the children participate.

Group C. Agendum 3. Correspondence among school children—WHEREAS, It is recognized that in a complete educational process textbooks must be supplemented by fresh material from other sources and instruction must be supplemented by habit-forming activities in which the children participate; and WHEREAS, These ends are now being achieved in the schools of many countries through the organized exchange between classes of articles of various kinds including correspondence that interpret the life of different communities to each other; *Therefore be it resolved:*

That this conference endorse the development of such international school correspondence and the appointment of an educational representative in each country to coöperate with all agencies equipped to work with the schools in the promotion and execution of similar programs.

GROUP D. INTERNATIONAL IDEALS

Group D. Agenda 1 and 2: Division of character education—WHEREAS, It is agreed that realization of the aims of the World Conference on Education will depend in a large measure upon the character instruction and training of the childhood and youth of the world, developing in them a sense of justice and an attitude of good-will toward all mankind, together, with habits of action in accord with justice and love of humanity; *Therefore be it resolved:*

That this conference adopt in outline a basis plan of character education to be worked out in detail by each coöperating nation.

The following recommendations are respectfully submitted:

1. *As to research.*—That the educationalists of the nations be encouraged to inaugurate research work as to methods of character education so that the most influential ways and means for encouraging and guiding children and youth in their growth into right character may be discovered, and that exchange of knowledge as to effective methods of character education be arranged for between nations.

2. *As to objectives.*—(a) That character education in the school be regarded as essentially the problem of improving the conduct of children of school age at home and within the community as well as in the school. (b) That emphasis be placed upon the social give-and-take among children, on the principle that one should do unto others as he would have others do unto him. (c) That it is imperative that plans for character education provide for positively effecting specific improvements in particular acts of individual children. Character Education must, therefore, be concrete and objective. (d) That in this undertaking there should be the closest coöperation between teachers and parents, the parents being in the first instance responsible for the character training of their children.

3. *As to curriculum materials.*—(a) That since in all character development ideals and conduct are inseparable, the content of the curriculum should be so selected and organized as to provide definitely for development of ideals and attitudes that will stimulate conduct in agreement with approved moral standards. This will include ideals of truth and justice and attitudes of kindness, love, gratitude, forgiveness, service toward associates, and ultimately towards all mankind. In the various school subjects, literature, language, geography, history, art, science, et cetera, there is a large opportunity to cultivate ideals and attitudes and to make clear the facts of universal interdependence of the human race and the debt of each individual to humanity as a whole. (b) Inasmuch as modern education shows a marked tendency toward the concrete and practical, and character is involved in all social conduct, it is recommended that the usual school subjects be supplemented by studies of the incidents and experiences of every-day life in which moral issues are prominent as in home life, in civic relations and in industrial activities.

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4. *As to ethical instruction.*—That the educationalists of the nations be encouraged to arrange for school instruction leading definitely toward sympathy with the ideals of civilization and international good-will which interprets the wisdom of human experience as to right and wrong. This instruction should be adapted progressively to the developing intelligence of the pupils, culminating in a course in ethics.

5. *As to school organization.*—That all the activities of the school, including study and recitation work, be socialized in such a way as to encourage pupil initiative in both thought and action, in both individual and group conduct. To secure for the pupils as rapidly as possible the power of self-determination in conformity with approved moral standards, the pupils should be led themselves to adopt these standards as a result of their own experiences and acquired wisdom.

To this end, classes may form organizations for coöperation with teachers in the conduct of the school, including the carrying out of such projects as will give practice in social service and fix habits of action in accord with moral purposes. Whenever occasion requires, matters of discipline may be brought before pupil organizations for discussion and settlement, the teacher, with younger pupils at least, participating as a guide. This suggestion is based upon the principle that clear understanding of the nature of social conduct and its development by the pupils themselves is more effective than mere dogmatic settlement by the teacher.

That the teacher be responsible for character study of each pupil, having in view personal encouragement and guidance in character development according to the needs of the individual child. Furthermore, that pupils be graded as to character and loyalty to moral ideals, with personal consultation and coöperation with parents.

6. *As to teacher training.*—Since character development in the schools is more dependent upon the character and personal influence of teachers than upon any other factor, it is further recommended: (a) That in all nations systematic effort be made to enlist in the teaching profession for service in all schools, persons of a superior character and ability, and that it be made a special duty of educational administrators to encourage such enlistments as an opportunity for great service to humanity. (b) That certification be required of all teachers and that the standards of certification be maintained on a high level of scholarship, professional training, and moral character. (c) That all teacher-training institutions provide, as a part of the professional training, courses in the study of: Standards of individual and group conduct (theoretical and practical ethics); the psychology of individual behavior and of group behavior, child psychology and the methods of securing in each child control of his behavior in conformity with the standards as determined. (d) That extension or summer courses such as those described above, be provided for teachers in service.

Committee: Mrs. Fannie Fern Andrews, *chairman,* America; Mr. Chiling Yin, China; Miss Elizabeth H. Pashayan, Armenia; Miss Adelia Palacios, Mexico; Mrs. Sarah M. Hatfield, Uruguay; Mr. S. Motoda, Japan; Mr. Christo Makrygiannis, Greece; Mr. E. S. Martin, Canada, Mr. George C. Pringle, Scotland; Mr. V. Kralicek, Czecho-Slovakia; Miss Beitry, France.

Group D. Agendum 3. World peace—WHEREAS, The purpose of this World Conference on Education is to promote international respect, coöperation, and good-will through education; WHEREAS, One of the greatest tasks of the schools in all lands is to teach the ideals of justice, friendship, and good-will; WHEREAS, A new and better world could be made through the training of youth in all countries in the ideals of international justice and coöperation; and WHEREAS, These ideals can be developed through the regular school program, and all school subjects offer the greatest opportunity for this development, history, geography, and literature, deserving to be mentioned especially as examples; *Therefore be it resolved:*

1. That a universal aim in teaching the history of a country should be to teach the social, economic, and political development of the nation, and to show the relationships of these three lines of activities to similar lines of development in other countries of the world.

2. That the teaching of history should be begun in the early grades and history should be taught from the world point of view.

3. That instruction in history should include the teaching of specific principles which directly promote international good-will, such as, impartial judgment, justice, national and personal modesty, coöperation, and honor.

WHEREAS, The welfare of the world demands that the citizens of each nation should become more intelligent about other peoples, their social conditions, their forms of government and their national ideals; *Therefore be it resolved:*

1. That this might well become a universal aim in the teaching of geography.

2. That instruction in geography should include the teaching of specific principles which directly promote international good-will, such as, interdependence, courage, enterprise, neighborliness, and mutual understanding.

WHEREAS, The possibilities in the teaching of literature which will develop ideals of justice and good-will are boundless; *Therefore be it resolved:*

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That instruction in literature should include the teaching of specific principles which directly promote international good-will, such as appreciation, courtesy, unselfishness, service, truthfulness, and human sympathy.

Group D. Agendum 4. The debt of the present generation to the future—WHEREAS, In many countries, a substantial effort has been made to teach world friendship through the schools, which is evidenced by the courses in citizenship and good-will already in use; *Therefore be it resolved:*

That we base future plans for promoting world friendship on the great educational background established by these devoted efforts of teachers to promote international comity.

Group D. Agendum 5. International Good-will Day—WHEREAS, One effective means of promoting the spirit of international good-will is to set aside a day in the year to be observed in the schools of the world as "Good-will Day"; and, WHEREAS, This day should in itself be a significant landmark in the movement for international friendship; *Therefore be it resolved:*

1. That the eighteenth of May, which commemorates the opening of the first Hague Conference—the first gathering of the nations in time of peace for the consideration of means of settling international differences by peaceful methods—is especially appropriate for concentrating upon the ideals of justice and world friendship.

2. That on the eighteenth of May, instruction should be given concerning the results of the Hague Conference and also the later efforts to bring the world together in a coöperative body, and that this instruction should be accompanied by songs, both National and international, plays and pageants, which carry out the spirit of the day.

Be it finally resolved:

1. That the economic, social, and intellectual welfare of humanity demands uninterrupted coöperation among the nations of the earth, and the reign of reason and justice, founded upon international good-will.

2. That such teaching will show the high significance of those things which enter into a true conception of civilization, and

3. That the acceptance and promulgation of these ideals will form a sound foundation for the promotion of higher spiritual values in the schools of the world.

Committee: Joseph Swain, *chairman,* America; M. Sawayanagi, Japan; Christo Makrygiannis, Greece; Monroe Tang, China; Elizabeth H. Pashayan; Adelia Palacios; George C. Pringle, Scotland; Harold R. Peat, Canada; Mrs. Sarah M. Hatfield, Uruguay.

GROUP E. HEALTH EDUCATION

Health education. Introductory—WHEREAS, The promotion of health is recognized as a fundamental aim in the educational programs of progressive nations, and health education in many instances is granted a prominent place in the courses of instruction; and, WHEREAS, We believe that the advancement of health in education would be advantageously furthered by coöperation of, and intercommunication between the various nations; *Therefore be it resolved:*

1. That the World Education Conference make provision for an International Health Education Section.

2. That the report of this International Health Education section and other significant pieces of health literature be translated and made available for the nations that make special request for such material.

3. That aid and encouragement be given as far as condition and resources may permit for the improved professional training of teachers and leaders in health education, by the offering of scholarships for study and training in countries which may provide desirable facilities for such professional training.

Status and aims of health education—WHEREAS, We believe that educators are now feeling the need of definite assistance from specialists in the preparation of

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courses of study and that the public is ready to support the development of a broad and sound health program; and, WHEREAS, We believe that the school health program must be built around the fundamental principles of positive health teaching—a training in action as well as the giving of facts, imbued with the spirit of joyous living; *Therefore be it resolved:*

That the fullest coöperation be developed between all experts as well as official, voluntary and non-school agencies in the various fields of health education, and that the coöperation of parents through associations of parents and teachers be secured.

WHEREAS, We realize the importance of training children under five as well as those of school age in habits and attitudes, mental, physical and social, and are convinced of the value of experiments already conducted; *Therefore be it resolved:*

That further experimentation in this field should be encouraged in all countries in order to give us a sufficient knowledge upon which to base the fundamentals of a program that may be universally adopted. That the removal of physical defects during this period be encouraged so that the child may enter school free from physical handicaps.

WHEREAS, We recognize the value of growth records as a partial but simple and concrete index of health; *Therefore be it resolved:*

That we hereby recommend the value of weighing and measuring school children as a teaching project, in addition to, and as distinct from, the use of weight standards as a health index.

Committee: *Chairman,* Professor Clare E. Turner, United States; M. Leon de Paeuw, Belgium; Miss Marjorie Wise, England; Miss Edna White, United States; Miss Sally Lucas Jean, United States.

Nutrition and health education—WHEREAS, We realize that food is the only source of energy building material and vitamines; and, WHEREAS, We are impressed by the disastrous physiological results that have been produced in experimental animals by defective diets; and, WHEREAS, We know that foods differ fundamentally in their nutritive properties; and, WHEREAS, We are convinced that there is an urgent need for the dissemination of information about the nutritive requirements and the nutritive properties of foods; *Therefore be it resolved:*

1. That mothers be taught the importance of food, its selection and preparation, for the pre-natal period, the period of infancy, the pre-school, and school periods, and for adult life; that mothers be taught the relative values of food in terms of cost in order that the income may yield the largest nutritive returns to the family.

2. That lessons in nutrition be incorporated into the school curriculum.

3. That teachers in training and teachers in service be given instruction in nutrition by properly trained persons.

4. That anyone who is preparing to instruct either teachers or parents in the food requirements should study thoroughly the chemistry of food and nutrition and should have fundamental courses in physiology, psychology, sociology, and allied subjects.

Committee: Mary McCormack, *chairman,* America; Miss Sata, Japan; Miss von Hofsten, Sweden.

The contribution of physicians and dentists to a school health program—WHEREAS, We recognize that the contribution of the physician and the dentist to the school health program is of fundamental and vital importance in developing (a) ideal medical and dental examination of pupils, (b) frequent and effective inspections to prevent the spread of contagion, and (c) suitable organization of the body of scientific knowledge upon which health education is based; and, WHEREAS, We recognize the need for more careful and accurate physical examination of school children and for further scientific instruction in health education for public-health workers; *Therefore be it resolved:*

That there is a vital need of further training in the preventive phases of child health in both medical and dental schools and the further development in universities and schools of public health of specific instruction to train specialists and administrators in the field of school health work.

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Committee: Dr. Richard Bolt, *chairman;* Dr. Antonia Ursua, Mexico; Mr. Thomas Yuan, China; Dr. Guy Milberry, San Francisco; and Dr. Mary Brydon, Virginia.

The contribution of nurses to a school health program—WHEREAS, We appreciate the opportunity afforded the nurses to participate in the development of the health education program; *Therefore be it resolved:*

That we recommend that in all countries of the world there shall be a concerted effort to promote such a progress of nursing education as will produce the type of nurse qualified to take her place with the other leaders in the field of health education in the schools of the world.

That in all countries schools of higher education be encouraged to support university schools of nursing and to recognize the development of these schools as part of the progress of general education.

Committee: Caroline Gray, U. S. A., *chairman;* Elizabeth Breeze, Vancouver, B. C.; Madeleine Kaiser, Belgium; Sally Lucas Jean, New York; and Eleanora Thomson, U. S. A.

The relation of physical education to health education—*Whereas*, We believe that physical education, in its play, and athletic features should take a more vital place in the life of all nations and all communities; and, WHEREAS, We base this belief upon the character building, health giving, right behavior producing values, in skillfully applied physical education for all nations; *Therefore be it resolved:*

1. That there should be extensive use of athletics separately adapted to girls and boys as a means of developing the finer type of girls and boys, rather than the emphasis on intensive competition of the few with their exploitation.

2. That physical activities should be correlated with health examinations; the formation of health habits, and the promotion of a healthy nation, so that everywhere there shall be better boys and girls, finer men and women.

Training of teachers for health education—WHEREAS, Successful health education must depend upon the following factors:

1. Knowledge of the various approaches to, and fundamentals of health promotion and disease prevention and control.

2. Acquaintance with the modern machineries of public health which are indispensable to attaining positive health and physical efficiency.

3. Familiarity with and ability to utilize efficiently sound pedagogical methods for the purpose of teaching health and creating in the child an active and impelling desire for positive health and physical [illegible] and for training him in lasting health habits.

4. Enthusiasm on the part of the teacher for health education as expressed by her knowledge of the subject and activities for health work and her own positive personal health attainments.

Be it resolved: That this convention hereby recommends that agencies of all institutions concerned with the training of teachers, establish courses in, and programs of study for health education in order that these factors may be realized, and efficient teachers and supervisors of the schools' health interests and activities be trained.

Be it further resolved: That it is the sense of this convention that all prospective teachers in training be required to complete a well balanced course in the fundamentals of health promotion and disease prevention and control with particular reference to school hygiene so that all teachers in the future will have some knowledge of and interest in the health of school children.

Committee: John Sundwall, U. S. A., *chairman.*

GROUP F. UNIVERSAL EDUCATION

Agendum 1: Removal of illiteracy—WHEREAS, There are millions who can neither read nor write, and therefore cannot enjoy the full privileges of citizenship; and, WHEREAS, This situation retards progress toward universal peace and happiness, and therefore should be removed; *Therefore be it resolved:*

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1. That an international commission on illiteracy be appointed, consisting of representatives from every nation.

2. That this commission shall work for the removal of illiteracy from all countries as soon as possible.

3. That this commission shall form a permanent section of the World Conference on Education, and in addition, to meeting at successive world conferences shall meet, if necessary, at such other times as shall be determined upon by the commission.

4. That this commission shall be formed by this conference.

5. That the headquarters of this commission shall be decided upon by the commission appointed at this conference.

6. That this conference recommend the appointment of a general secretary, whose full time shall be devoted to furthering the work of the commission.

Note.—An illiterate shall be understood to be a person over the age of ten, who can neither read nor write.

Committee: H. W. Huntley, *chairman,* Canada; Pompilio Ortega, Honduras; Professor S. Abe, Japan; P. Hsieh, China; Cora Wilson Stewart, United States; Hansa Mehta, India; and Princess Santa Borghese, Italy.

Group F. Thrift education—WHEREAS, We realize that in this period of world reconstruction thrift is of vital importance in the economic life of every nation; *Be it resolved:*

That we favor the appointment of an International Committee on Thrift, which shall study all phases of the problem and issue reports which shall be made available in all countries.

Arthur H. Chamberlain, *chairman,* Editor, *Sierra Educational News,* and Executive Secretary, California Council of Education and California Teachers' Association; Harry Charlesworth, 410 Campbell Building, Victoria, B. C., General Secretary, B. C. Teachers' Federation, Editor, B. C. Teacher, Ex-president, Canadian Teachers' Federation; George C. Pringle, 47 Moray Place, Edinburgh.

Group F. Agendum 3. Balance of liberal and vocational education—WHEREAS, The purpose of education is not primarily to increase the earning capacity of those who possess it but to enable them to live more largely in the realm of moral and intellectual completeness; and, WHEREAS, It is self-evident that the welfare of the state demands that each individual be taught to become self-supporting and to impose no burden upon society through inefficiency of service and lack of thrift; and, WHEREAS, These two ideals can be realized only through a proper balance or coördination of the cultural and the vocational; *Therefore be it resolved:*

1. There should be public provision for training in the specific vocations for all persons who may profit therefrom, regardless of age or condition.

2. In addition to the actual vocational training there should also be public provisions for education to the end that narrowness of mind may be avoided and a tolerance toward all other activities of civilized life be developed. This education should stimulate a feeling of responsibility toward the vocation, the state, and the self. It should give the ability to enjoy both work and leisure through a proper and more complete appreciation of true values.

3. There should be public provision for training both boys and girls in the principles and elements of home life, as the home is the fundamental institution in the development of national life.

4. In such a program there should be some plan of guidance to the end that each person in training may select a vocation for which he is best suited and otherwise adapt himself to his entire social environment.

5. There should be appointed an international committee on the development of the principles of training and education indicated above.

This committee shall be known as the Committee on Liberal Vocational Education and shall be thoroughly representative of the types of education recommended in this program and be a clearing-house for all nations.

Committee: Adelaide S. Baylor, *chairman;* Percy E. Rowell, secretary; and Mary Stewart.

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Group F. Agendum 4. Education of women—WHEREAS, The reports of the delegates to the World Conference on Education show that the educational status of women in most countries is unsatisfactory, and needs to be improved; *Be it resolved:*

1. That it is the conclusion of this conference that messages should be sent, through the several delegates in attendance, to their respective governments, setting forth the findings of this gathering, and expressing the hope that authorities everywhere will work to end illiteracy among women and to offer opportunities of higher education to them.

2. That to this end, in the several countries where sufficient opportunity for the higher training of women does not exist, we urge that the attendance of women upon state and national institutions of learning shall be permitted.

3. That the secretary of this conference shall consider it as one of his official obligations to interest all countries in a concerted effort looking to the removal of illiteracy among women.

We urge this because a nation of educated and intelligent mothers will rear a finer race for the future.

Committee: Katherine D. Blake, *chairman;* and Susan M. Dorsey.

GROUP G. RURAL LIFE CONSERVATION

Better rural schools—WHEREAS, The most important problems before the liberal government of the world, for their own safety and perpetuity, is the establishment of systems of public schools which offer equal educational advantages to the growing citizenry of each country, regardless of the race, the economic position or the social standing of the parents; and, WHEREAS, No democracy can properly thrive or permanently endure if a large fraction of the children, and especially that group whose parents produce the raw materials for our food, clothing, and shelter, have educational facilities inferior to those offered to other groups of children; and, WHEREAS, The rural areas of most of the nations of the world present special and additional educational problems due to various geographical, economic and social conditions; *Therefore be it resolved:*

That this conference generally endorse all movements which tend to improve the educational opportunities for rural children and particularly advocate:

1. Increased training of teachers for the proper understanding and appreciation of the specific problems of rural life and education.

2. The consolidation of one-room schools in favor of the large and more specialized type of school, wherever the concentration of population and the development of transportation facilities permit.

3. Where consolidation is not feasible, the erection and maintenance of the best type of one-room schools, instructed by teachers acquainted with rural life and education, and trained specifically for such work.

4. Special state or national aid, or both, to communities lacking the financial resources to maintain efficient schools.

5. The erection of teachers' homes where adequate conditions for teachers are lacking.

Committee: Eloisa Espinosa, Joseph Hardwood, May Meighan, Florence Hale, and George A. Selke, *chairman.*

Equalization of educational opportunity—WHEREAS, The provision of equal educational opportunity for all the children of all the people wherever schools are maintained at public expense is the demand of social, political and economic justice; and, WHEREAS, The remoteness of many schools in rural districts entails upon teachers who may teach therein extra effort and expense in getting to their work, thus tending to make them move to more accessible places, thereby depriving such schools of teachers of experience and to that extent lessening the educational opportunity of the child involved; *Therefore be it resolved:*

That additional compensation should be paid teachers in such schools, *And further resolved:* That such additional compensation should be paid by the largest political unit contributing to the support of such schools.

Committee: H. V. Holloway, *chairman.*

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National Council of Education

SECRETARY'S MINUTES, CLEVELAND MEETING

OFFICERS

President—J. M. GWINN, Superintendent of Schools.....New Orleans, La
Vice-President—*ADA VAN STONE HARRIS, Supervisor of Elementary Schools..Pittsburgh, Pa.
Secretary—ADELAIDE S. BAYLOR, Chief of Home Economics Education Service, Washington, D. C.

FIRST SESSION—TUESDAY AFTERNOON, FEBRUARY 27, 1923

The meeting was called to order by the president at 2:15 o'clock in the Public Auditorium.

The secretary gave a brief report in which was a request for the appointment of a committee of three to coöperate in a definite classification of institutions with representatives in the Council Membership. The president named as members of that committee, John R. Kirk, Kirksville, Missouri; Homer H. Seerley, Cedar Falls, Iowa; and Mrs. Mary C. C. Bradford, Denver, Colorado. The secretary reported also the deaths of four members since the last annual meeting of the Council. The two honorary members were, Alexander Graham Bell, Washington, D. C., and John W. Cook, DeKalb, Illinois. The two active members were, Grace Strachan Forsythe, New York City, and Ada Van Stone Harris, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania. Report followed by roll call.

The president, in an address entitled, Concerning the Council, made an earnest plea for the assumption of responsibility on the part of each member of the Council to make thoroughly effective the program of work.

Addresses were made by Dr. John J. Tigert, U. S. Commissioner of Education, on A Year's Progress in Education; William B. Owen, president of the National Education Association, on Does a Reorganized National Education Association Mean a Reorganized Council?; J. H. Beveridge, president of the Department of Superintendence, on The Need of Professional Leadership in Education; final report for the Committee on Reorganization of Seventh, Eighth, and Ninth Grades by J. M. Glass, State Department of Education, Harrisburg, Pennsylvania.

It was voted to appoint a committee of seven with William B. Owen as chairman to consider and make recommendations on the reorganization of the Council, as suggested in the address of Dr. Owen. The president appointed the following committee: William B. Owen, Chicago, Illinois, *chairman;* Robert J. Aley, Indianapolis, Indiana; M. C. Brittain, Atlanta, Georgia; Olive M. Jones, New York City; H. B. Wilson, Berkeley, California; Payson Smith, Boston, Massachusetts; and Anna L. Force, Denver, Colorado.

SECOND SESSION—WEDNESDAY AFTERNOON, FEBRUARY 28, 1923

The meeting was called to order by the president at 2:15 o'clock in the Ballroom of the Hotel Statler.

Reports of committees were presented as follows:

The Continuity of Education, William Wirt, superintendent of schools, Gary, Indiana, under the topic, Continuity of Education between the School and Out-of-School.

* Deceased.

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In the absence of A. Duncan Yocum, chairman of the Committee on the Teaching of Democracy, the introduction to the final report as submitted by Dr. Yocum was read by the secretary. In this introduction it was recommended by the Committee that the Council request the National Education Association authorities to either furnish the Committee with a thousand reprints of the report as a whole from the printed proceedings, or have a thousand copies of Sections II and III printed at once in the form of separate bulletins or as a combined bulletin. It was taken by consent in the Council that this recommendation be made and the president authorized the secretary to take it up with the proper authorities at National Education Association headquarters.

W. C. Bagley, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City, reported for the Committee on American Colleges on The Present Status of Summer Session Work in Teachers' Colleges and Four Year Normal Schools. Following this report G. E. Maxwell, Winona, Minnesota, gave the standards adopted by the American Association of Teachers' Colleges for accrediting State normal schools and teachers' colleges and expressed it as his desire and that of Dr. McKenny, chairman of the Committee on Teachers' Colleges, that favorable action on the same be taken by the Council. On motion this request was referred to the Executive Committee of the National Council with power to act and report back to the Council.

Anna Laura Force, chairman of the Committee on Status of the American Woman Teacher, presented a report for the Committee and presided at the symposium which followed, introducing as leaders in the discussion the following:

A. L. Threlkeld, assistant superintendent of schools, Denver, Colorado, who gave the conclusions based on a questionnaire concerning certain aspects of the professional and social status of American women teachers; Cornelia S. Adair, president Elementary School Teachers' Association, Richmond, Virginia, who spoke on the status of the classroom teacher; and Mrs. Mary C. C. Bradford, State superintendent of public instruction, Denver, Colorado, who discussed the status of the teacher in the rural schools.

Cora Wilson Stewart, Frankfort, Kentucky, chairman of the National Illiteracy Commission, reported for the Committee on Adult Illiteracy, of which she is chairman.

THIRD SESSION—THURSDAY AFTERNOON, MARCH 1, 1923

The meeting was called to order by the president at 2:15 P. M. in the Ballroom of the Hotel Statler.

The report of the Committee on Character Education was given by the chairman, Milton Bennion, University of Utah, Salt Lake City. Mr. Bennion then introduced Anna Willson, superintendent of schools, Crawfordsville, Indiana, and a member of his committee, who described the methods employed in her system of schools for developing character. In the open forum that followed, over which the chairman of the committee presided, a number of questions were put to Miss Willson as to more specific details of the plan and the permanency of the results of her program as shown by attitudes of the pupils in later life.

In the absence of Payson Smith, State Commissioner of Education in Massachusetts and chairman of the Committee on Vocational Education, a report for that committee was made by Robert O. Small, State Vocational Director of Massachusetts, a coöperating member of the committee.

The subject of Mr. Small's address was Possibilities of Part Time Education. The open forum for this committee was held at 4:00 P. M. in an adjoining room, where the subject of part-time education was informally discussed. J. G. Collicott, superintendent of schools, Columbus, Ohio, conducted this forum.

Arthur Chamberlain, secretary of the California State Teachers' Association, San Francisco, chairman of the Committee on Thrift Education, spoke briefly on the work of his committee and introduced L. R. Alderman, Washington, D. C., who completed the report.

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Thomas D. Wood, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City, chairman of the Committee on Health Problems in Education, reported for his committee and introduced the following speakers: Dr. John M. Dodson, Chicago, Illinois, chairman, Coöperating Committee on Health Problems, American Medical Association; Charles H. Keyes, president Skidmore College, Saratoga Springs, New York, and Mrs. Ira Couch Wood, Chicago, Illinois, Director, Elizabeth McCormick Memorial Fund.

On motion of Dr. Seerley, former president National Council of Education, it was voted to invite the presidents of the various departments of the National Education Association to become honorary ex-officio members of the National Council of Education during their terms of office and thus be entitled to sit with the Council and participate in the meetings.

Adjourned.

CONCERNING THE COUNCIL

J. M. GWINN, PRESIDENT OF THE COUNCIL AND SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, NEW ORLEANS, LOUISIANA

At this, my first opportunity, I desire to express to the Council my thanks for and appreciation of the honor of being elected president. As I have endeavored to come into a knowledge and understanding of the aims and purposes of the Council and of my functions as its president, I have been deeply impressed by those aims and purposes and have been filled with a sense of the great responsibilities I have, if I am expected to lead the Council into a realization of those aims and purposes during the three years of my term of office.

A backward glance along the forty-three years of the life of the Council brings into view many mighty men in education in America as its officers and members. W. T. Harris, E. E. White, Henry Barnard, J. M. Greenwood, W. R. Harper, William Maxwell, and others still with us; also there comes into view many epoch-making results of the work of the Council—perhaps the more important publication of the National Association are the reports of the work of some of the committees of the Council, such reports as those of the Committee of Fifteen, Committee of Ten, Economy of Time in Education, Salaries and Tenure of Teachers. A study of the history of the Council compels the conviction that the Council has had a large place in shaping the policies and programs of education during the last third of a century.

While it is important to have a past and a good one, it is more vital to us to make the present contribute its due proportion of achievement. There are plenty of unsolved problems and an ample supply of able men and women to do the work.

Membership in the Council should be esteemed a high privilege. Of the more than one hundred twenty thousand members of the National Education Association only one out of each thousand can be a member of the Council. A member is one out of a thousand and the thousand must expect much of the one. The Council is analogous to the graduate faculty or the research faculty of a great American university whose personnel is that of the 120,000

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members of the National Education Association. Selection as a member of the Council should mean that the one selected has the ability and disposition to do work in educational research and in organizing and reporting studies either alone or as a member of a committee. Each member is supposed to have his own self-starter and does not wait to be cranked by the president or the chairman of his committee. The Council is a working body and all 120 members are supposed to be on every program. A particular committee may have an investigation and report in charge, but each member of the Council has not alone a right but a duty to criticise the report and to register his opinion when differing from that of the particular committee.

It shall be my purpose in making future programs to provide time and opportunity for this wide but necessary participation in the discussions by the members. It appears to me that if we discharge our duties as members of the Council, we should each be actively engaged as a member of some Committee on some investigation and report and in addition each should function as a critic of all reports submitted to the Council.

That you may have some suggestions and limitations for your thinking, I desire to state that the Council has committees investigating the following: The Participation of Teachers in the Management of Schools; Reorganization of the Seventh, Eighth, and Ninth Grades; Extension Education; Health Problems in Education Teaching Democracy; the American Teachers' College; Vocational Education; Rural Education; Social Well-Being; Thrift Education; Character Education; State Levies and other State funds for the support of elementary and secondary schools; Continuity in Education; Adult Illiteracy; Graduate Education; Visual Education; Training of Teachers in Service and Teachers' Welfare.

If you are not a member of one or more of these committees, notify me or the secretary of the committees which one you wish to join. If none of these fields attract you and you desire to submit a new problem that would please us more. In selecting a new problem, you are limited by the purposes of the Council only. There seem to be but two such purposes: (1) The consideration and discussion of educational questions of general interest and public importance; (2) to reach and disseminate correct thinking on educational questions. The scope of the first is certainly very broad, and the need for the second is very great.

Times have changed since the Council was created, the ways and means for making educational researches and investigations and reports have been tremendously developed and expanded so that the Council no longer has a monopoly on such work and is no longer the sole investigating agent for the National Education Association and its various departments. Practically every department of the Association has one or more committees at work investigating some educational problem, and now the National Association itself has established its own bureau of educational research. Also, in the schools and colleges of education and in their graduate faculties there are now the widest opportunities and most adequate means for carrying forward such researches and investigations. Further, in these more

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recent years, city and State public-school systems have established their own bureaus for educational investigations. These changed conditions must invite the members of the Council to consider the question whether or not the Council need longer exist under its present functions and form of organization, or whether, with the changes that have come, including the reorganization of the National Education Association, there is need for a change in its form and functions.

I shall not pursue this line of thought further, but I wish to call especial attention to the discussion of the theme which involves the future of the Council to be presented a little later on this program by the president of the National Education Association.

I desire to acknowledge a large debt of obligation to the secretary of the Council, Miss Adelaide Baylor, for much valuable information and wise counsel; also to acknowledge the helpful and ready response on the part of those contributing to the programs for the three meetings scheduled for the Council and for suggestions contained in letters from several members.

THE NEED OF PROFESSIONAL LEADERSHIP IN EDUCATION

J. H. BEVERIDGE, PRESIDENT OF THE DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE AND SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, OMAHA, NEBRASKA

Mr. Marshall made this significant statement: "The kaleidoscope of current history is being turned so rapidly that to the normal eye combinations of yesterday are forgotten, of today are uncertain, and of tomorrow are unknown." Sometimes I am inclined to believe that the kaleidoscope of current pedagogical experimentation is being turned so rapidly that we fail of sufficiently careful analysis to formulate a theory of education that will function in practice—a philosophy of education that is certain today, known tomorrow, or practiced the day after.

Your attention is called to a program of the Department of Superintendence given one year ago in a joint meeting held with the Society for the Scientific Study of Education at which the theme was The Evaluation of Intelligence Tests in School Administration. Speaking frankly as a school administrator, it is my judgment that some of those on that program underestimated the value to the successful school administration of their own contributions to education and the contributions of others working in the field of intelligence tests.

It was stated by a leading psychologist of this country that the officers of the army placed more confidence in the army tests than did the psychologists who made the tests. It may be this case is analogous. It is well enough to use caution. It may have been well to sound the note of warning but many school administrators hope to see intelligence tests refined and improved until such tests shall apply to the so-called motor-minded child, as

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they now do to the so-called symbolic-minded, to the end that these tests may aid in directing pupils, or at least in enabling them, to discover themselves.

To me, there was a significant value to the program to which I have referred. It sent out the call for leadership—a leadership that will study diligently, analyze carefully, judge discriminately, evaluate scientifically experiments in education before the results of these experiments are passed on to those of limited training to apply.

I want to acknowledge my debt of gratitude to those who are devoting their time, thought, and energy to the study of intelligence tests, to so-called standard tests. The field of intelligence tests is a fruitful one for professional leadership.

When one examines different courses of study that come to his desk, when he consults teachers as to the greatest need in their work, he is led to believe that one of the most important demands made on leadership in education today is the formulation of courses of study that will function effectively in the education of the child. There is a lack of definiteness in the course of study that wastes the time of the pupil and the teacher. There is a lack of definite and concrete material at the teachers command that will enable her with the greatest economy to give the child mental and moral food that will stimulate him, keep him mentally awake and morally alert, and give him the social contact that will develop in him the requisites for efficient citizenship.

Experiments in education have given us an abundance of material that needs classification and organization to meet the general aims of education. We need a leadership that will give us the definite objectives to meet these general aims of education. These objectives need to be worked out in a concise and concrete way.

Courses of study need to be formulated so that teachers may have before them basic material for meeting the responsibility that is placed upon them, otherwise how can teachers meet the duties and responsibilities that the classroom entails. We cannot expect the classroom teacher to meet the demands placed upon her without a *definite* course of study at her command. We need a leadership that will bring together and organize the most valuable available material. We need financial support to pay the experts in curricular making for their services. Why not a commission of twenty to fifty of these experts provided with adequate financial aid so that they may devote all of their time for one or two or three years to meeting these exigencies that confront us? In this way we could secure a course of study in geography, in history, in English, that would function more economically and efficiently. The administrator, the supervisor, and the teacher would then have a better opportunity to give their attention to the art of applying such courses of study. Courses of study once made in this manner could be correlated, coördinated, interpreted, and applied with greater economy of time and greater efficiency and effectiveness.

The latter would call for leadership in methods of instruction and supervision—a leadership that would study the problem of the supervisor and the

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supervised, a leadership that would know the rights of each, and secure a proper balance between the two.

From 1914 to 1920, the American people were compelled to recognize the need of education as never before; they were brought face to face in an effective way with a lack of education in this country undreamed of previously. Since the close of 1918, our high schools, colleges, and universities have been crowded beyond capacity. Night schools, continuation schools have been increased in attendance, business institutions, factories, and banks have instituted schools as a necessity in the successful operation of their own business institutions. I use but one illustration: High-school enrolment in 1910, 915,062; high-school enrolment in 1920, 2,207,542, which gives a percentage increase on total school enrolment 100 per cent and in actual members almost more than two and one third times. Business men know what rapid expansion in business means—increase in plant, increase in personnel, increase in responsibility, increase in pay for service rendered, and it should mean increase in total profits.

We need great leaders in our profession to make plain to our people that these increased profits came from investment made in our schools. We must not only realize this in our own circle, we must proclaim it so that the people will understand, so that business will comprehend. We need a leadership that will make returns on an investment in education so plain, so concrete that adequate support will be forthcoming.

We need a leadership in education that will plan school buildings, to meet educational needs of the day in an economical and efficient manner, leadership which will secure coöperation with architects, and building superintendents and boards of education so that buildings will be constructed to serve the purpose for which they are intended—instruction and training for children so that life in the school as well as life outside the school shall be for efficient, serviceable citizenship in a representative democracy. The task is arduous and so important, the responsibility so great that successful endeavor should gratify the ambition of the most enthusiastic for rendering service.

The increased demands in public education require increased financial support. How we shall secure additional financial support for public education for leadership in the study of economic problems of sources of taxation, methods of collection and distribution and a study of the equalization of educational opportunity. Some may say this is not the problem of the educator, but it certainly is a very practical and pressing problem for the administrator in education.

At the present time, the classroom teacher is apt to underestimate her opportunity for leadership and overestimate that of the principal and the supervisor. There is an opportunity for the leadership of both, if they will but see clearly and act in line with the vision. The teacher should know what is required of her and how to meet these requirements. The principal and the supervisor should be able in the most courteous and sympathetic manner to help her meet these requirements. There is probably no other vocation

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or profession that offers to each and all engaged in it so great an opportunity for leadership.

The principal has the opportunity for leadership among pupils in organizing extra-curricular activities, for leadership of teachers, for growth in service, for leadership in the community, and for leadership among those of her own number. There is no greater opportunity for educational service than that offered by the principalship in a school system. If perchance you are a principal in a school system of from fifty to one hundred thousand people, think the list through and ask yourself if there is not here a great need for professional leadership and a great opportunity for service.

We need a professional leadership in education keen enough to discover ability in associates and assistants, generous to give credit to each for what he accomplishes. A leadership that is willing to give credit where credit is due is a far greater leadership than that which takes the credit unto himself alone. Such a type of leadership acts as a stimulant to the members of the personnel composing that organization, whatever that organization may be.

We need in professional education a leadership shrewd enough to see inefficiency where efficiency is not, fair enough to children and to taxpayers, and honest enough with himself to use every legitimate means to eliminate at least the zero and negative quantities. Should we not be courageous enough to meet this requisite of leadership? We need a leadership in supervision with a genius to see errors in methods of instruction and management; with a language ability to express simply, clearly, distinctly, and kindly what these errors are, how they may be corrected; and with the courage to do it and the persistency to follow it up.

In the end, however, the superintendent of a city school system is responsible for the success or the failure of that system. Leadership is his trust, his opportunity, his responsibility. This responsibility he must assume. His success will depend in no small degree on his ability to secure the coöperation of the personnel of his organization; on giving opportunity for self-expression to each and to all; on using the special abilities of each member of that organization toward the unification of the system. Commercial, industrial, and financial institutions are fast learning this lesson. The great leader is firm in his purpose yet flexible enough to yield to reason and gracious enough to admit his mistakes.

When the leader is once selected, unflinching loyalty should be given to such leadership. One may be by nature and training fitted to become a leader, but he will be doubly powerful in the interests of the organization through the loyal support of devoted associates. The obligation of leadership is the necessity laid upon the man of superior merit to employ his talent in the cause of human freedom and in the furtherance of social progress. The true leader should be ready to employ his energies for the welfare of others.

In the administration of a city school system, numerous problems will arise that require immediate action. Promptness and accuracy in decision, and correctness in judgment are marks of an executive. Real leadership will

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merit and have the confidence of associates. They, when crises arise, will accept his decisions without question, knowing they will be as nearly correct as it is humanly possible to make them. If the best leadership is developed, associates will accept these decisions readily and will coöperate heartily. Many are the times that the city school superintendent is called upon to stand between the teacher and severe criticism, to defend the action of principals. He assumes this duty as he should and the welfare of the system entitles him to support. I have heard people speak of liberty and freedom under leadership and this I do not question, but too often the meaning of this statement is liberty and freedom from leadership.

The city superintendent must so manage the affairs of his office that he will merit, have, and maintain the respect of business and professional men in the city, always willing to learn but able to challenge any, to more efficient service.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON THE REORGANIZATION OF THE SEVENTH, EIGHTH, AND NINTH GRADES

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The final report of your committee on The Reorganization of the Seventh, Eighth, and Ninth Grades is appropriately closed by a report of the sub-committee on the Junior High School Program of Studies. In all sections of the country the conviction is spreading that the outstanding characteristic of a junior high school is a reorganized program of studies, which shall be a composite of elementary and secondary courses, which shall articulate elementary and secondary education and which shall "help each child to explore his own aptitudes and to make provisional choice of the kinds of work to which he will devote himself."[1] This report, however, cannot be submitted as a final report upon the junior high school program of studies but only as a second annual report of a sub-committee which fully recognizes that, while its own official existence may cease, neither it nor any other committee can submit a final report upon an educational problem so distinctly evolutionary in nature as the junior high-school program of studies.

Variation of curriculum practice—Steadily the impression has grown upon your sub-committee that variation of curriculum practices in the junior high school renders a report representative of generally accepted practice both impossible and undesirable. Experimentation in the administration of the curriculum is today characteristic of practically all junior high schools organized for a period of two or more years. Wide-spread experimentation inevitably leads to variation of practice equally as wide-spread. Variation leads to unavoidable temporary confusion, difference of opinion, and all the helpful discussion from which in every educational movement come progress and achievement. Your committee is of the opinion that no definite check

[1] Cardinal Principles, page 18.

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should be placed today upon experimentation but that the prevailing curriculum practices should be studied with an objective at a later date within the next two or three years, to summarize these practices and to formulate a plan of curriculum making with the background of experimentation and survey of typical curriculum administration.

Experimentation needed as a process of evolution—The present situation in the wide-spread experimentation with junior high-school courses of study is dynamic; it has already been productive of much progress and is prophetic of greater progress yet to come. Experimentation must not cease; differences of opinion and discussion in the selection of materials and methodology must proceed unhindered; tentative must remain as the characteristic modifier of each junior high-school course of study; and the process of evolution must continue until both participants and critics of the reorganization of the program of studies recognize and acclaim the present period of evolutionary experimentation as the single most healthful symptom of the junior high-school movement.

The problems of the articulation of elementary and secondary courses of study, of the exploration of individual aptitudes for the manifold fields of educational or vocational training, of the guidance of the first and fundamental choices of educational or vocational advance, and of the determination and provision for individual differences, which merely means in other words our long heralded equalization of educational opportunity—all these and many allied problems of administration, materials, and methodology can be solved only as the present healthy condition of progress based upon protracted experimentation continues as dynamic as the junior high-school movement has been for the past fourteen years. We must curb our impatience and await the slower and surer gains which will come from lapse of time, deliberate judgment, and scientific experimentation.

A generation of experimentation—A generation of educational experimentation is time brief enough for the achievement of the far-reaching objectives which confront the transitional unit of the public schools. Briefer time might suffice, were the junior high-school objectives confined to its own sphere, as a distinct and isolated unit of organization. But the strategic position of the junior high school as the intermediate school of transition involves a reaction upon the elementary and senior high schools which is now and will increasingly demand readjustments in the entire public school system.

Isolation of administrative units incompatible with the junior high-school idea—The isolation of administrative units, particularly the elementary and high-school units, was the chief indictment of systems of schools preceding the 6-3-3 plan. The primary objective of the junior high school, as the unit of transition, is the articulation—the articulation of the elementary school with the junior high school, the articulation of junior and senior high schools; and the mutual objective of all three units is to coördinate the public school system for the fulfillment of the complete aims of education. Until the junior high school ceases to be regarded exclusively as an isolated unit

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or organization and of educational experimentation, there cannot be that unanimity of mutual understanding concentrating upon mutual objectives which alone can bring the united efforts of elementary and secondary schools to focus for a concerted solution not merely of junior high-school problems but of the greater problems of an articulated public school system.

What chiefly is needed today is the recognition by school administrators, by supervisory officers, by elementary school facilities, by junior high-school faculties, and by senior high-school faculties, of their mutual obligation to participate in the solution of the curriculum problems of the transitional school, because of its strategic relation to the whole system of schools, and its inevitable reaction upon curriculum practices in the schools adjoining it as its inlet and its outlet.

Horizontal or isolated levels of curriculum administration and vertical or continuous administration—The continued evolution of the junior high-school program of studies must soon close the chapter under the caption which designated your committee as "The Reorganization of the Seventh, Eighth and Ninth Grades" and open another far more important chapter under the caption of the "Coördination of the 6-3-3 Plan of School Administration." Emphasis must ultimately be shifted from the concentration of curriculum reorganization upon horizontal or isolated levels of the public school system—namely, the elementary, junior high school, and senior high schools, to the vertical or continuous administration of the curriculum; in this shift of emphasis will come to all three administrative units a mutual purpose, greater than any single unit can assume, to coördinate courses of study throughout the elementary and secondary fields.

It is entirely appropriate and becoming that the junior high school as the unit of transition should recognize this mutual need and propose to the elementary and senior high school a concerted effort to articulate courses of study with a vertical or continuous development in each subject of instruction. The junior high school recognizes after a decade of curriculum experimentation in its own horizontal or isolated level of administration that its own courses of study in English, mathematics, social studies, natural science, fine and practical arts, school health, guidance, and in secondary school electives are inadequate to the degree that they have failed to secure articulation and continuity with either or both of the elementary or senior high-school courses of study.

Committees for curriculum-making representative of elementary, junior, and senior high schools—Curriculum committees appointed by administrative officers for the revision of courses of study should include in their personnel representatives of elementary, junior and senior high schools. The greatest promise of the junior high-school movement will be sacrificed, if deliberate plans are not adopted to discontinue the former practice of exclusive curriculum making upon horizontal levels; a definite plan should be inaugurated to promote the vertical articulation of a continuous program of studies with adaptations to each unit of the 6-3-3 organization. The reorganization, however, of the program of studies for the seventh, eighth, and ninth years

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did and should have preceded attempts to coördinate with grades 1-6 or with the tenth to twelfth years. This first stage of an isolated reorganization of curriculum practice in the intermediate or transitional unit must inevitably lead to a second stage infinitely more important—namely, the coördinated reorganization of each course of study throughout the whole range of the school system.

Curriculum revision committees of two types are needed—first, elementary school committees, junior high-school committees, and senior high-school committees, secondly, a joint committee of representatives of all three units to coördinate the curriculum revision of the three separate committees. Again, let me repeat that it is entirely becoming that the recognition of the need for joint or coöperative organization for curriculum making should be urged by the intermediate school of transition.

Indications of increasing understanding between junior and senior high schools—It has been my fortunate privilege to know many junior high schools intimately. I want to pay tribute to the high degree of earnest devotion, to the contagious spirit of high professional attitude and vision, and to the self-sacrificing concentration of junior high-school men and women upon the problems of the reorganization of the seventh, eighth, and ninth years. The almost despondent attitude of junior high-school administrators and teachers of five years ago because of the lack chiefly of mutual understanding of the two units of the secondary school is giving place today to most hopeful signs of mutual understanding, respect, and helpful coöperation.

The faculties of most junior high schools have been recruited from the elementary field. This carrying over of training and experience has assured a high degree of coördination between the elementary and the junior high schools. The opportunities, however, for contact for the same points of view, and for common experience between junior and senior high schools have not been so natural or spontaneous. And, yet, the junior high school is a component part not of the elementary field but of the secondary. It was, therefore, foreordained that the two three-year units of the secondary school should, by the very nature of their being, be brought into closer coördination. To the everlasting credit of the senior high schools, whose field the junior high school entered either invited or uninvited, let it be said that the challenge to prove the right to such admission is giving place to a hopeful attitude of welcome and coöperation. Also let it be said that the challenge of the senior high school for the junior high school to prove its right to a place in the secondary field has been productive of a hearty acceptance of the challenge by the junior high school—an incentive which has not been without value in the demonstration of its right to that place.

The present attitude of the senior high school to offer and to accept opportunities for coöperation is prophetic of the long-needed articulation of junior and senior high schools. Out of the present approach of these two secondary school units to closer contacts, to better mutual understanding and to definite coöperation in coördinating courses of study, there will come a further stage of evolutionary experimentation in curriculum revision by both junior and senior high schools which will eliminate the horizontal and

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isolated levels of curriculum administration and which will introduce the continuous type of courses of study alone consistent or worthy of the component nature of the two secondary school units.

The junior high school as the complementary or transitional unit—The junior high school does not enter the public school system as the competitor of either the elementary school or of the senior high school. Rather it is the complement of both. It offers to each the relief for which, though unconsciously yet none the less actually, it has been seeking. Neither alone has been able, by reason of its position at the extreme end of the school system, to articulate elementary and secondary education.

Again, let me repeat the mission of the junior high school to the public school system is to introduce an intermediate and transitional unit to weld together elementary and secondary education. We in the junior high-school field do not come as competitors. We come with a purpose which you must all share with us—to articulate elementary and secondary education and to create a coördinated, continuous, unbroken school system of 12 years. Such a purpose cannot long remain the exclusive prerogative of the transitional unit in the 6-3-3 organization. The purpose must be shared mutually by all or the most vital educational opportunity which our generation has known will have been lost by lack of coöperation. The final achievement of the objective will be to the mutual credit of each unit in the 6-3-3 plan and the failure to achieve sane coöperation must similarly be charged to the mutual discredit of all three.

The junior high school will not prosper alone and it will not fall alone. It has swept from one end of this country of ours to the other. It has come to stay, subject to many modifications of its present form, but it must persist. The triple entente of the public school system will stand or fall together. Mutual understanding, coöperative pulling together, and loyalty to each other will bring lasting achievement to each and all units in the educational triumvirate of the public school system.

Reciprocal gains to elementary schools—The 8-year elementary school has been confronted with all the problems that are inevitable to a confusion of interests between the elementary years in grades 1-6 and the initial secondary or early adolescent years in grades 7 and 8. The 8-year elementary school has been burdened with an almost impracticable task—to render equal justice to childhood and early adolescence in the same school organization, administration, and program of studies. The junior high school offers to assume its chief problem—namely, the leakage in grades 7 and 8.

Furthermore, when the elementary school is relieved of the burden of the seventh and eighth years, it is able to concentrate upon problems of courses of study and teaching methods in grades 1-6 to a degree never before possible in the 8-4 organization. This concentration with singleness of purpose upon a restricted sphere of activity culminates in a position of acknowledged leadership among other elementary schools still carrying the double burden of grades 1-6 and the seventh and eighth years. The professional satisfaction which accompanies increased efficiency in the elementary field of grades 1-6

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is usually an unexpected but none-the-less real compensation for the surrender of the seventh and eighth years.

Reciprocal gains to the senior high school—At the same time the junior high school must also undertake for the high school of the 8-4 organization what has always been its chief problem, viz., the mortality of the ninth year due chiefly to the lack of transitional period of preparation, exploration, and guidance from elementary to secondary education.

Each unit of the 6-3-3 organization must be free to enter upon a constructive program of creating a school environment in correspondence with the distinctive instincts and tendencies of the age with which it deals. Concentration of effort upon a restricted sphere of activity must be accompanied by increased efficiency, particularly when the restricted sphere has its own peculiar characteristics which make it distinctive. The elementary school, the junior high school, and the senior high school must be free each to create a school environment in correspondence with the distinctive characteristics and development of the restricted age with which each must deal.

The junior high school is the initial stage of the secondary school. It undertakes through its exploratory tryout courses and its guidance program to determine the educational or vocational placement of each child. The senior high school relieved of its present problems of guiding ninth-year pupils to right educational choices adapted to all the individual differences of aptitude, capacity, and interest, can give exclusive attention to the intensive specialized training which electives involve.

At the same time the senior high school is free to concentrate upon the mutual responsibility, which it shares, with the other units to complete the social integration of all pupils, however, differentiated in their individual educational and vocational objectives. The senior high-school program of studies is increasingly developing a body of social science materials, English and literature, mathematics, science, fine and practical arts which are the common need of all its differentiated groups. The senior high school, if free to concentrate upon intensive specialized courses and a core curriculum of constants, will consummate the socially integrating influences of the elementary school which are now continued in a modified form into the junior high-school program of studies and administration.

Causes of delay in curriculum reorganization—By force of urgent necessity the junior high school has been confronted with problems of organization and administration which have too frequently absorbed exclusive attention or delayed progress in curriculum reorganization. The demands of a new type of school plant and fixed equipment would tolerate no postponement. The administrative problems of classification of pupils in ability groups, the use and interpretation of intelligence tests, subject promotion with all its problems of remedial and preventive measures for retardation, home-room organization, organized school activities, adoption of guidance plans, differentiation of electives, and the development of a technique of administrative records—all these problems and many kindred needs demanded immediate solution and smooth operation and in the early years of the junior high-school

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movement partially invalidated concentration upon the more vital need of a reorganized program of studies.

More recently, however, greater freedom has come to concentrate upon the revision of the courses of study. There has never been the evidence of a general concerted experimentation in readjustment of curriculum administration as has marked the period since the National Council appointed the committee two years ago on the Reorganization of the Seventh, Eighth, and Ninth Years. Organizations for curriculum making are common today in all progressive systems administered upon the 6-3-3 basis.

Recommendation of organizations for curriculum making continuous through 6-3-3 systems—The final report of your sub-committee is, therefore, largely devoted to a request for definite curriculum-making organizations in all systems where the junior high school is established. Further, the committee urges that efforts be made to consolidate the studies of elementary, junior and senior high-school committees to the end of promoting continuous vertical types of articulated programs of studies. These recommendations are offered in the conviction that when carried into effect they will greatly facilitate the mission of the junior high school first to weld together the public school system and secondly to guide intelligently early adolescent pupils who, during the junior high-school period, must find their way by means of a closely coördinated program of studies from the single curriculum of the elementary school to the multiple curricula of the senior high schools.

Development of a reorganized program of studies by the junior high school—Thus far our discussion has been restricted to the present need of coöperation of the three units of the school system to articulate all courses of study. We wish also to direct your attention to the already extensive development within the junior high school itself of a reorganized program of studies.

The inheritance of isolated units of instruction from the elementary and senior high schools—The junior high school inherited its program of studies in part from the elementary school, and in part from the high school; a third source was the industrial and commercial fields and the home; a fourth contribution, which the junior high school together with the senior high school deliberately sought, was received from the rapidly expanding field of social science materials and social and civic activities to the end of socializing the content and method of all courses of study and of giving to adolescents "a self-conscious social adjustment."

These inheritances came chiefly as isolated and unassimilated units of instruction. From the elementary school came the common branches, English composition, technical language, reading, literature, spelling, penmanship, arithmetic, geography, history, music, drawing, physical education, some manual training and home economics, some social science or civics, and some nature study. From the senior high school came the constants in English, mathematics, and social studies, and the extensive array of secondary school electives—Latin, French, Spanish, and the intermittent German, algebra, geometry, biology or general science, ancient history and European

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history, commercial courses in bookkeeping, typewriting, commercial mathematics and business practice, the general shop or practical arts courses, the general home economics courses with the vocational types of both the latter two.

Isolated units of instruction in great variety both unavoidable and desirable as a first stage in the junior high school—The introduction of such a formidable array of isolated units of instruction into the junior high-school program of studies led to a great variety of courses which many non-constructive critics of the junior high school have advanced as the chief objection to the junior high school on the ground, perfectly defensible at the beginning of the movement, that it involved a scattering snap-shot exposure of pupils to a hodge-podge of a program of studies. Any serious reflection upon the development of the junior high-school's administration of its curriculum will convince a fair-minded student of the movement that the introduction of these varied and unassimilated units of instruction was not only unavoidable but even desirable that there might be created in the minds of administrators, supervising agencies, and junior high-school participants, a clear consciousness of the magnitude of the problem of articulating elementary and secondary courses of study.

The development of comprehensive subject groups continuous as major constants through the three years—From the inception of the junior high school, efforts have been continuous to consolidate unassimilated subjects of instruction into larger and more comprehensive subject groups. Gradually practice has developed a few comprehensive units of study within which the unassimilated subjects, inherited from the elementary and high schools have been articulated—for example, English and languages, mathematics, social studies, natural science, fine and practical arts, school health, and one option among a group of electives in the latter half of the junior high school. Electives have been differentiated as the initial choices within the academic curriculum, the commercial, the technical, the vocational, and the fine arts curriculum. The questionnaire submitted by the sub-committee last year revealed a large preponderating vote in favor of six one clock-hour periods; four of these periods are distributed to the major branches which persist as constants through the junior high school—namely, English, social studies, mathematics, and science; one period is devoted to fine and practical arts; and the sixth period is given to organized school activities; school health and guidance become part period work with the fifth and sixth periods. Reductions of time allotment to constants provides for the introduction of electives in the latter half of the junior high-school period.

It is significant to note that the four major constants, and fine and practical arts, school activities, school health and guidance are becoming in many junior high schools continuous throughout the entire junior high-school period. This is a modification of former practice which gives much hope that the ninth year is becoming more closely articulated with the seventh and eighth years or that the practice of looking upon the ninth year as the first year of the high school is being discontinued in favor of a greater purpose to make it an integral and coördinated part of the junior high school itself. The

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principle of continuity of courses of study throughout the three-year period must eventually eliminate previous distinctions of demarcation between the seventh and eighth years and the ninth year. It is gratifying, therefore, for your committee to report that gradually the major constants of English, mathematics, social studies, and science and also fine and practical arts and school health are becoming continuous as required subjects through all three years.

The evolution of general courses of study—The very nearness of the junior high school to its own movement prevents a clear conception of its own progress toward more comprehensive or general courses of study which have gradually replaced the assorted units of instruction which were bequeathed to it a decade ago. Elementary and secondary courses of study have been and will continue in the process of articulation; through this process the transitional unit of the public-school system by reason of its freedom from educational tradition has been able to undertake through effective coördination the elimination of gaps between elementary and secondary education.

Social studies—Witness the evolution of social studies or social science in the junior high-school program of studies—an articulation of elementary school history, geography, and elementary civics with secondary school ancient history, European and modern history, community civics, vocational, and economic civics. The junior high school lays no claim to the solution of this problem but it does maintain that by initiating the consolidation of these unassimilated units it has taken a vital move toward effective articulation of elementary and secondary courses in the social science field.

General mathematics—Witness again the evolution of a course in general mathematics which is articulating elementary school arithmetic with secondary school algebra, geometry, and numerical trigonometry. Again also the experiment of general or composite mathematics must extend over a period of years to evolve its own content and method. The significant fact, however, is the effort to articulate elementary and secondary courses of study for the sake wholly of immature early adolescents who must make the shift from one to the other and who the junior high school believes can make the transfer more readily through articulation of elementary arithmetic with secondary mathematics than through the former abrupt transition from exclusive arithmetic to exclusive algebra.

Science—Witness also the development of a general course of science which is articulating the nature study of the elementary school with the biology, physics, chemistry, and physiography of the senior high school. No brief decade of experimentation can adequately solve the problem of the articulation of nature study with the cross-sectioned courses of science of the high school. But the significant fact in this instance is that an articulated general course of science vitalized throughout by constant contact with and for the interpretation of the life and environment experiences of early adolescent youth is the only course of science which can be given to pupils too immature for the pure science studies of the senior high school. It will be a contribution of incalculable value to this modern age of scientific life and achieve-

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ment, if the junior high school can, as it is already doing, introduce science among the required constants of the program of studies in secondary education.

Practical arts—Witness also the evolution of vocational or trade training courses of industrial education into the present wide-spread adoption of the general shop for home mechanics and the equally significant development of general home economics as a constant for all girls through the three years of the junior high school; 85 per cent of these girls are destined to become future homemakers.

Latin—Witness the coördination of Latin and modern languages with English. The solution of this coördination will receive a stimulus, which it much needs today, when the present investigation of the classical league is completed.

Commercial education—Witness the introduction of junior business training as a required subject in the junior high-school program of studies to survey the field of commercial education, to help pupils to discover aptitudes for commercial training, and to reveal to them the wide range both of commercial education itself and its rapidly expanding vocational opportunities. Junior business training or any similar introductory commercial course assures to all pupils a knowledge of the principles and practices prevailing in the commercial world—a knowledge which should be an educational heritage of every adolescent youth.

Fine arts—Witness the continuation of music and art as required constants in the junior high-school program of studies. The purpose of the elementary school to make the æsthetic and cultural values of music and art the common right of all pupils has been accepted by the junior high school, which in turn is discovering for many pupils the vocational values of fine arts. Time alone can reveal what readjustment in the senior high-school program of studies will be undertaken when the present required and elective courses of music and art in the junior high school have become more firmly established. The vertical or continuous supervision of music and art through the school system which prevails in most cities will accelerate the extension of music and art as required and elective courses in both secondary schools, probably far beyond the extension of such courses today significant as the present fine arts courses are in comparison with the almost total absence of such courses a few years ago.

School health—G. Stanley Hall makes the profound assertion that the all-conditioning control of the adolescent age is motor control which being interpreted, as G. Stanley Hall must usually be, means for both secondary schools health education, hygiene, physical training, and school health supervision. There has long been a need to articulate the school health program of the elementary school for all pupils with the athletic program of the secondary school too frequently restricted to the few in least need of physical training. The school health programs of both the junior and senior high schools today are being formulated upon principles which receive the sanction of the medical profession and which by reason of the far-sighted vision of many superintendents are receiving the direction of specialists in school

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health. The rapidly growing evolution of health and hygiene education, as well as physical and athletic training, is evidenced by the increasing adoption of a greater time allotment for school health in many junior high schools varying from a minimum of two clock-hour periods a week to four and five periods a week.

The achievement of the junior high school in the articulation of elementary and secondary courses justifies the prerogative of inviting coöperation in better articulation—The isolated and unassimilated units of instruction which the junior high school inherited are being articulated into more comprehensive subject groups designated as English, general social science, general mathematics, general science, general home economics, general shop, school health and other better articulated courses of study. The marvel is not that more has not been accomplished but that so much has been achieved to fulfill the primary mission of the junior high school to the public school system—namely, the welding together of its three units by the articulation of elementary and secondary education. Any educational agency or institution which can within a decade reveal a development from unassimilated to coördinated courses of study may be permitted to ignore non-constructive critics and assume the prerogative of inviting the constructive and coöperative aid of the elementary and the senior high schools in the further extension of more complete coördination.

Principles for the reorganization of courses of study—Your committee submits the following guiding principles for the revision of courses of study:

Each junior high school course of study should

1. Proceed by natural, transitional, and progressive stages for the articulation of elementary and secondary education.
2. Develop from "simpler aspects" characterizing the junior high school toward "refinements" characterizing the senior high school.
3. Provide a survey of the subject field for the discovery of individual aptitudes and for the revelation of educational and vocational opportunities.
4. Deal with the life and environmental experiences and the immediate needs of early adolescent pupils that "school may be life not merely preparation for life."
5. Conserve the interests of those who drop out and of those who continue by unit organization of each course of study in each year of its development to the end that each year of work may be of definite value to those who go no further.
6. Assure an apperceptive basis for later cross-sections of the general courses of study when specialization in sub-divisions of each subject field is undertaken in the senior high school and higher institutions.

Summarizing, the junior high-school program of studies should continue, with modifications, the single curriculum of the elementary school. Through its general courses of study it should expand the single curriculum into an enriched and varied curriculum. The new resultant should in a gradually increasing degree become the initial stage of all secondary school curricula. It should become the course of an apperceptive basis for later senior high-school courses; it should "reveal higher types of activities, make these both desired and to an extent possible." It should offer assurance of intelligent educational choice and wise educational placement. It should make possible a tentative or provisional choice of electives. It should increase the probability that pupils will persist through the initial stages of secondary school

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courses in the junior high school and thus also increase the probability that they will continue these courses and complete the specialized curricula of the senior high school.

The enacting clause in the educational reorganization inherent in the junior high school is a new reorganized program of studies, continuous with the programs of studies in the elementary school and the senior high school. Thus only can the junior high school become a new educational force for the realization of its own accepted and distinctive purposes and for the fulfillment of the mission of all three units of the 6-3-3 organization to weld together our public school system by the introduction of the unit of transition.

WAYS AND MEANS FOR A CLOSER UNION BETWEEN THE SCHOOL AND THE NON-SCHOOL ACTIVITIES—ABSTRACT

WILLIAM WIRT, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, GARY, INDIANA

In America it has been difficult to establish satisfactory coöperation between the church and school in the education of children. Both institutions are trying to develop the character of the same child but without much effort at coöperation in the character-forming process.

The school has been given a monopoly of the time of all children between 9 A. M and 3 P. M. Monday to Friday, inclusive; the church has been given the time of children one hour a week on Sunday. The school gets all of the children its allotted time but the church gets less than one fourth of the children during its allotted time. The only coöperative effort is the agreement of the church and school not to operate at the same time. Also both of these great institutions remain idle during the remaining thirty or more hours of the week.

Since the church functions for children by concentrating its work into only one hour a week, it must depend upon volunteer workers for the operation of its Sunday School. The grown-ups in the church have a full-time paid teacher, but any untrained volunteer is good enough for the children. This situation is due to the fact that the church must have twenty five teachers to teach one hour on Sunday in place of one teacher to teach five hours a day for five days a week. The result usually is that the public school teachers, principals, and superintendents are drafted as volunteer workers for the church and other child-welfare agencies. Since the Sunday School seldom reaches one fourth of the children in the community, does it not seem strange that the public school teachers should run away from their job where the children are, in order to dissipate their energies working where the children are not?

The American Church does not want to be a parasite on the public schools. The church had better employ one trained teacher to teach twenty five hours during the week in place of depending on twenty five volunteer workers for an hour on Sunday. Under such a plan the Sunday School could become a real child's service for which the children would be prepared

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by attending classes in small homogeneous groups with the trained church teachers for two or three hours per week on week days.

It is entirely practicable for the school to permit some children to stop at church for an hour on the way to school in the morning or at noon. Other children can be permitted to leave school an hour early and stop at church on the way home to luncheon, and still others can leave the afternoon session an hour early and stop at the church on the way home from school.

Of course this excusing of children at the written request of the parent can be done most successfully in a Work-Study-Play School Organization because of the long school day and because children can be excused from the play and auditorium periods with a minimum interruption of the regular school work.

This type of coöperation between church and school was established in Gary during the year 1913 as a result of complaints on the part of the churches that the schools with gymnasiums, swimming-pools, auditoriums, playgrounds, shops, studios, orchestras, and bands were so attractive that the church could no longer interest children in church activities.

The school took the position that the Sunday Schools could have better orchestras in Gary than elsewhere because the school had discovered the latent musical talent of the children, had succeeded in getting the parents to purchase the necessary musical instruments, and have their children taught to play them. The churches replied that this would be true, if the school would let the churches have the school music teachers to organize and direct the Sunday School orchestras.

The school also took the position that the children in Gary who had been trained to do dramatic work, folk dances, and public speaking should not put on for the church a better children's entertainment than children could do without this training. The church again replied that this would be true, if the school would permit its dramatic and physical training teachers to organize and direct these church entertainments. It was evident that the sole trouble lay in the traditional practice of the church trying to get its work with children done by volunteer workers.

The school authorities did not prohibit teachers working in churches, but they agreed that a teacher should have one day of rest in seven and if she worked in the churches on Sunday that she could not work in the school on Saturday. Since the school paid for Saturday work and the church did not pay for Sunday work this rule acted as a prohibition of church work on the part of school teachers. As a solution of the problem the school offered to change its program in such a way that the churches in Gary could secure their respective children on terms equally as advantageous as those of the school provided the churches would employ their own teachers and provide their own classrooms and other equipment.

There has never been any special difficulty in the operation of this plan. Nearly all parents appreciate the opportunity and the church workers easily secure the written request for the attendance of about ninety-five per cent of the children. The children attend the church schools as regularly as they

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do the public schools. The only penalty for not attending the church school when excused for this purpose is the cancellation of the privilege. The Catholic Church discontinued these special schools for three years owing to a fear that they would interfere with the development of their parochial schools. With the exception of these three years during the past nine years in Gary, ninety per cent of all public-school children in grades two to eight inclusive have attended the week-day church schools.

All Protestant, Catholic, and Jewish churches operate these schools in Gary. With specially trained teachers and with the regular and frequent attendance of their children the churches are able to capitalize for their own activities the training received in the schools in place of competing under a great handicap with the schools for the interest of the children. Also with the children interested in the church activities the church as well as the school has this greatest of all avenues of approach to adults.

The extended school day gives the opportunity to program a full day of wholesome activities for children through the coöperation of all child-welfare agencies. Five hours of the seven-hour school day is reserved for the regular school studies. Churches, libraries, private music teachers, playgrounds, settlements and even the home are invited to share with the school the responsibility for providing wholesome activity for the remaining two hours. The school does not wish to monopolize the time of children but desires to serve as a clearing-house for children's activities so that all child-welfare agencies may be working simultaneously and efficiently, thus creating a child world within the city wherein all children may have a wholesome environment all of the day and every day.

American sentiment has reacted. Week-day religious instruction is one of the livest questions of the day. Many cities have developed successful plans of their own. American sentiment is grasping the idea that the only way to secure in actual practice the separation of Church and State of which we have boasted so long in theory, is through the development of a plan which will permit the Church the widest possible use of the church plant by the church operating independent of the school. The State has no right to operate its school in such a way that the church cannot function in the lives of its children except by being a parasite on the school and then only ineffectually.

In every community the School Board should secure the widest possible use of the plant primarily intended for school purposes, not only for the study of children but for their work and play. But this wider use should be secured through the school's own organization and not by some outside agency trying to use the school plant. The Park Board and the Church Boards as well should also secure the widest possible use of the plant primarily intended for their purposes and this wider use should be secured through their own organization. Progress is not made by creating new agencies but by stimulating existing agencies to assume their full share of the responsibility and secure the widest possible use of their own plants in their respective fields.

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Within the sphere of the child the coördination function depends on the programing of his daily activities and not on the manipulation of plants and facilities. The school controls the child and the school alone can program or prevent the programing of the child's activity so that all child-welfare agencies can function simultaneously and effectively. The school alone can be the clearing-house for children's activities and the school does not need to be and no other agency needs to be a clearing-house for plant facilities.

The fundamental thing is to give the children a real chance to use these facilities. This the school alone can do. At the present time we are not suffering so much from the lack of continuity in the activities of the child in the school, church, and park as we are from the fact that the children are in the school less than half the time they should be and practically are not in the churches and parks at all.

There is a tremendous break in the continuity of education of the child between the school and the city street. But this break can be eliminated only by eliminating the worse than wasted time of the city street. When the school, park, and church have absorbed the worse than wasted street time and each plant is operated simultaneously and to its maximum efficiency by its own organization we will not need to worry over the lack of continuity in the child's education.

It seems to me that the fundamental difficulties in securing continuity in the educational processes of American children are first, the American tendency for the school, the church, the parks, and even the homes to shift the responsibility to some one else for providing wholesome activities for children; and second, the unreasonable control of the time of children by the school. As a result the children are forced into the street for the want of any other place to go. Continuity between the school and non-school activities would take care of itself through the child's own power of selection, if we would only give the child the wholesome activities.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON THE TEACHING OF DEMOCRACY

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

The creation by President Harding of the Federal Council of Citizenship Training and its organization by the selection of Commissioner Tigert as its Chairman and Dr. Mann of the Educational Advisory Board of the General Army Staff as its Secretary, with each Department of the National Government officially represented in its membership, sets up a governmental agency of a new type and makes possible for the first time in our National history the correlation of every official and unofficial National

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agency in the furtherance of a truer and completer democracy. Coming into being at a time when the work of the Committee on the Teaching of Democracy needs reorganization and expansion, this new body with all phases of government activity working through it, and, I hope, with all the resources of the Government behind it, seems beneficently designed to assume the functions of an educational receivership. When Dr. Mann wrote the Democracy Committee for the various materials which have resulted from its studies and especially for the final form of the Specification of Democracy Essentials, the Chairman seized upon the opportunity to propose that the Democracy Committee's activities should be taken over with the material, but only to discover that the Federal Council wishes the continuation of agencies such as ours and looks to us for the completion of the researches we have under way and of the correlation of the activities of other agencies which we have begun.

After all the Committee on the Teaching of Democracy nationally administers and centers about common school work, public, private and parochial, as no other National agency not official can do, all the forces in democracy which educate for democracy; and sometimes in such activities, it is just as well for a correlating agency not to be too official.

When, as may soon be realized with President Owen's coöperation, the National Council is brought into closer and more influential relationship with the National Education Association as a whole, the Democracy Committee will take up with the Council the question of an enlargement of its membership and the provision of more adequate resources for its work.

For the furtherance of all this the present report consists of three parts, each of which is submitted for inclusion in the Proceedings of the Association. In the case of a standing committee which reports from year to year, it seems advisable for it to leave the public program of Council open for new topics, except where the service performed by the Committee is of a type which demands immediate publicity.

The three sections of the present report are: First, an outline of the activities already under way; second, a brief account of continued activities of the Committee looking toward coöperation of the historic churches in furtherance of democracy, accompanied by a list of the specified democracy essentials, which appear to be peculiarly adapted to development through religious activities and church school instruction; and third, a detailed program presenting a variety of ways in which selected democracy essentials, can be furthered through the work of women's organizations.

The first section specially emphasizes the gradual completion of the Specification of Democracy Essentials through their analysis into outcomes controlling conduct. It is the great amount of time necessarily consumed in this analysis, which has delayed the work of various members of the Democracy Committee ready to carry the Specification over into kindergarten work, home-making, Americanization, State courses of study in the teaching of citizenship and democracy, the teaching of the common branches, extra-curricular activities, the organization and program of teachers' associations, and the like.

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Prominent among such pieces of work already performed, are three papers on the teaching of democracy through English, by Professor Walter Barnes—two of them presented before the Council, all of which are now being printed by Rand McNally under the title, The New Democracy in the Teaching of English.

The second section is follow-up work for the program presented by the Committee at the Boston meeting on Contributions of Religion to Democracy and recently printed by the N. E. A. as a separate Bulletin. The present report tells of the extent to which Judaism, Catholicism, and Protestantism are willing to coöperate or are already coöperating in the teaching of democracy.

The third section is the Committee's response to the request of a local League of Women Voters, for a democracy program for women's organizations. Although the plan included in it is unlikely to prove practicable as a whole for any one women's organization, it is already under serious consideration by certain National and State organizations, and various parts of it will soon become the subject of local experimentation.

The Committee moves that the Council request the National Education Association authorities either to furnish the Committee with a thousand reprints of the report as a whole from the printed Proceedings, or to have a thousand copies of Sections II and III printed at once in the form of separate bulletins or a combined bulletin. This is made necessary by an already existing demand for the material and the National service to democracy which will be performed by its general circulation.

SECTION I—OUTLINE OF ACTIVITIES PLANNED BY THE COMMITTEE ON THE TEACHING OF DEMOCRACY

1. *An inclusive assembling of existing democratic factors in American life and education, and the suggestion of additional ones*—This first took the form of the Democracy Questionnaires reported upon in Part II of the Report of the Sub-Committee on Curriculum of the old Committee on Superintendents' Problems, published by the National Education Association as a separate bulletin, November, 1919. Its sole aim was to assemble existing contributions, and through its questions to suggest others. Notable examinations of the discovery of unusual contributions were the organization of high-school work and activities at Decatur, Illinois, by Mr. William C. Casey, now of James Millikin University; the "Service—Not Self" high-school course of Superintendent Clark and Principal Bone in Sioux City, Iowa; Principal O'Neil's, Stamford, Connecticut, "Interdependence of Communities" course in geography; and Supervisor Gosling's syllabus for Wisconsin high-school teachers, on "The Debt of America to England." The most conspicuous illustration of the activities stirred up by the questionnaire itself, was Mr. F. P. Goodwin's committee of fifty in Cincinnati, on the teaching of democracy in the grades, though the more than a hundred replies received from school superintendents, and a variety of other correspondence is sufficient evidence that the questionnaire led to a multiplication of democratic factors in school work in every part of the country. It would

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be too much to say that the variously named State courses in the teaching of democracy sprang directly from the questionnaire, but unquestionably it and accompanying activities of the Committee helped prepare the way for them.

As was reported last year, the reissuing of the questionnaire in amended form, with its questions so classified that they could be referred in each locality to the special groups of teachers concerned, was approved by the Research Centers established by the U. S. Bureau of Education at various universities, but was abandoned by Commissioner Tigert when he reorganized the Bureau. Probably a questionnaire is still one of the most concrete and definite ways of bringing democracy essentials and modes of teaching them to the attention of teachers in general.

2. *The Specification of Democracy Essentials*—A tentative Specification of Democracy Essentials was sent out in 1921 for criticism and suggestion to a large number of distinguished Americans representative of each great social group or type of interest concerned in a democratic solution of National and international problems. The results of the inquiry and the amended Specification were published in Council Proceedings for 1922. There has been a general demand for the results of this study, and its wide circulation through the Proceedings will in itself accomplish much. The tentative Specification was also given wide circulation through *School News,* the Illinois State Teachers' Association, and as a bulletin of the Summer School of the Cleveland School of Education. Such a Specification in continually amended form is the necessary basis for the all-inclusive teaching of democracy, whatever the agency through which it is done; and the adaptations of the Specification in Sections II and III of the present report are examples of similar pieces of work which should be done and which the Committee sooner or later hopes to have done for every agency interested in the furtherance of democracy.

3. *An analysis of the specified democracy essentials into their outcomes in the various elements which control individual and group conduct*—This analysis is now well under way and its completion is necessary to the selection of the combinations of controlling outcomes essential to democratic conduct, the control elements contributory to them, and the most efficient materials and methods of developing them, for each individual and type or group, in every period of development and environment; and for every branch of study, school activity, or educational or social agency. It is being made with the completeness and complexity necessary to a scientific basis for the selection of democratic outcomes and experimentation with their development; and can result in an almost unlimited variety of approaches to control by each democracy essential.

An example of it can be found in the Report of the Sub-Committee on Objectives, of the Council Committee on Character Education, published in a current number of *School and Society;* and a complete analysis of equivalent return as a type of democratic independence as one of the standards involved in individual strength of character, is submitted in the present Report of the same Sub-Committee.

This analysis of democracy essentials into their controlling outcomes and elements contributory to them, must be followed by the selection from among

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the various combinations possible for controlling outcomes, and from among a similar variety of combinations of elements contributory to them, of those possible of development and having highest range, recurrence and relative appeal, for particular individuals, types and groups, in particular periods or environments. The current Report of the Sub-Committee above referred to exemplifies such combinations.

4. *Determination of the contribution to these controlling outcomes made by each means to education*—First comes determination of the contribution which can be made by each of the branches of study, each school activity, and each phase of instruction; and second, of those which contribute most adequately and economically to each controlling outcome and its contributory elements. This determination has so far been attempted more from a study of such contributions logically considered in connection with various means of education, than from a scientific allocation of outcomes to the means through which they can most effectively be developed. Examples of such studies are Mr. Barnes' assembling of possible contributions to democracy in the field of English, above referred to, and Mr. Henry Neumann's Bulletin 32, U. S. Bureau of Education, 1918, written before the work of the Committee was fully under way. The more technical determination of democracy contributions possible through the teaching of English will be exemplified by the listing, not yet completed by Mr. Lowery, principal of the New Brunswick, New Jersey, High School, of outcomes necessary to control by democracy essentials that can be developed in history teaching through the use of literature.

Numerous other studies are awaiting the completion of the analysis. Dr. Hadzits, of the University of Pennsylvania, in editing a series of ancient classics and establishing a new classical journal, together with a formidable group of investigators in the field of history and of the social and economic sciences, is planning to study both contributions to democracy outcomes and means of counteracting the effect of undemocratic material. Biology, psychology and the other natural sciences all must be studied from the same angle. Mr. Edwin S. Adams, district superintendent of schools, Philadelphia, and prominent among those responsible for the Philadelphia course in civics, is making a study of such outcomes with a view to their incorporation in that course. Similar studies will doubtless be made all over the country from the standpoint of the high school, the junior high school and the elementary grades. Studies have also been begun in the field of extra-curricular activities, of which that of Mr. Quincy A. W. Rohrbach, a graduate student of the University of Pennsylvania, is the most promising.

A highly important field for the application of this analysis is in the writing and publishing of textbooks. Each publisher of school textbooks will be furnished with a copy of the Specification and Analysis, with two ends in view—the incorporation of contributory material in forthcoming texts and the specification of existing contributions in texts already published.

5. *The correlation of all educational and social institutions, organizations and agencies through which the teaching of democracy can be furthered, and which have interests which should be furthered through the teaching of democracy*—Correlation here takes two forms: first, the acceptance by

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all such agencies of the outcomes of the democracy essentials as controls of individual and social conduct, and their furtherance, as a whole or in selected parts through the usual machinery for information and propaganda supported by the agencies; and second, the furtherance by the Committee of any interests of industrial, labor or commercial organizations, which can be included as cleancut and obvious instances of essential democracy outcomes. For example of the latter, much of the present propaganda of the railroad boards centers about the democracy essential—no governmental interference with individual or corporate rights not proved to conflict with the common welfare; and much of the propaganda of the labor group is voiced by Mr. Gompers' insistence upon all publicity for financial and economic facts concerning private corporations, necessary to the determination of issues affecting the common welfare. Steps have already been taken toward each of these forms of correlation.

The second must be taken cautiously, in order to avoid both the reality and the suspicion of commercialized propaganda. The first is illustrated by Sections II and III of the present report. These adaptations of the democracy essentials to the Church and to women's organizations take very general form, as will probably be the case with the long list of similar adaptations which should follow in their train. Some of them, however, can be made more detailed and technical. Among these the first to be attempted will be for the Sub-Committee on the Teaching of Democracy through the kindergarten which has already done splendid work through definite plans for a specific teaching of democracy—notably in Washington and other cities. The original request for a more definite specification of democracy essentials came from Miss Wheelock and her Kindergarten Committee, and to them the response will take the more professional form possible with a group of trained workers.

6. *Scientific research and experimentation to determine the materials and methods most efficient in making the outcomes of the democracy essentials controlling; together with a systematic campaign to awaken the country to the fact that superdangers now confronting America and the world can be met only through the reorganization of education from the standpoint of super-materials and methods of teaching democracy*—Examples of the use of methods of instruction generally adapted to democratic outcomes are found in Dr. Hosic's and Dr. Bamberger's enthusiastic use of coöperative problems and projects for the development of initiative and coöperation, and in the individualism characteristic of "progressive" or "socialized" schools, Dalton plans and such, if it is counterbalanced by an equally effective teaching of respect for authority where one's own knowledge is not authoritative, and of confidence in the determination of social and economic issues by expert commissions. (See address before the Harvard Teachers' Association, 1921, printed in *School and Society* and in *Home and School Education,* on the "Limitations of the Progressive School Movement.")

But these more general adaptations of method must be supplemented by scientific study of the most effective materials and methods for teaching each democracy essential. Such studies will not only make possible a super-

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efficiency in education fully counterbalancing to a super-efficiency in materials and instruments of warfare and in material comforts weakening to individual strength of character, but are basal for the selection of the branches, activities, and agencies through which each democracy essential can be made controlling.

That the campaign is already on by statesmen, labor leaders, and big business management, as well as by leaders in the field of education for a National recognition of the fact that present National and international emergencies require a super-education, is shown in the various reports of the Democracy Committee and in such papers as the one on "The Most Immediate Concern of Educational Research During the Struggle for Democracy," reprinted in *School and Society*, February 9, 1918, and presented before Section L of the American Association for the Advancement of Science.

7. *A cumulative index and bibliography not only of books on democracy in general, but of passages and extracts useful in the development of the control outcomes for each democracy essential*—Some of the great textbook companies and other publishers have expressed their willingness to contribute to such an undertaking, if assured that it will be professionally or commercially worth while. Mr. Hyde, of the New York Municipal Library, and other prominent librarians long ago showed a willingness to coöperate. The admirable bibliographical bulletins issued by the U. S. Bureau of Education might constitute the best medium for publicity for such material. But the work involved is prodigious owing to the fact that both books as wholes and passages definitely listed under the democracy elements, must be definitely evaluated for their contribution to controlling outcomes in conduct, and each book or reference listed, must be accompanied by an adequate statement of the evaluation.

Is it not self-evident that while a small Committee can plan and initiate a program such as this, it should be carried out by some more permanent agency adequately financed by the National Education Association, the U. S. Government, or if needs must be—by private philanthropy?

SECTION II—CONTINUED ACTIVITIES OF THE COMMITTEE LOOKING TOWARD COÖPERATION OF HISTORIC CHURCHES IN FURTHERANCE OF DEMOCRACY

The work outlined for the Committee as the result of the Boston program,[1] at which was presented the contributions of the historic churches to democracy, was threefold:

1. Coöperation of all churches in the teaching of democracy essentials.

2. Systematic effort on the part of each church to develop a common reverence for all religions, and a respect for all things which others reverence; to lessen all avoidable sectarian prejudices against another church or its membership; and to remove any characteristics common to any large part of the church membership likely to create prejudices against that church as a whole.

[1] Reprinted as an N. E. A. monograph, 1922.

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3. An informal effort to reach some basis of agreement among the churches on political issues which are sectarian, have the appearance of being sectarian or may become sectarian; and especially upon issues which concern education.

Since any effort to bring sectarian issues to the light of day and to state the attitude of great churches on public matters in which they are fundamentally interested and upon which they may have conflicting beliefs, is a peculiarly delicate form of negotiation, it surely falls within the category of service to democracy which can best be performed unofficially. For that reason, the Chairman of the Committee personally assumes all responsibility for the inquiry and no criticisms can come to any members of the Committee, to the Council, or to the National Education Association for either the undertaking itself or any misunderstanding which may arise from it. On the other hand, the approach to the churches has been so unofficially made, that the results of the inquiry—especially those bearing upon political aspects of the inquiry, cannot be said to represent the church authorities. Attitudes and beliefs as they are here reported may therefore be readily and justly disclaimed, either by general church officials, or by the groups within the churches who differ among themselves on matters of policy. But within these limits, the informal approach has been to well-informed and most representative ecclesiastical individuals or groups, and the statement which follows is probably as nearly an unbiased and true account as can be obtained of the church situation as it affects democracy. Inquiry took the definite form of a questionnaire. No question was equivocally answered by those to whom it was addressed, and the form of the replies gave every evidence of full appreciation of the spirit in which the inquiry was made and of effort to further its purpose.

Attitude of the churches toward a specific teaching of democracy essentials through church activities and in church schools—Coöperation between the churches in the teaching and emphasis of democracy essentials is found to be readily possible through the fact that it primarily involves only that coöperation through common objectives to which the Committee has limited its efforts at correlating the activities of all social and educational institutions, organizations, and agencies. Secondarily, perhaps, it may be found that coöperation through joint committees or other common agencies may be desirable, unless the present experiment may have happy enough outcomes to justify informal procedure.

All churches appear willing to emphasize the teaching of essential democracy through religious activities and church school instruction. None of the specified democracies were objected to.

From Catholic sources, the wise suggestion was made that definite emphasis should be included, of the virtue of purity or chastity, after all basically important and the window through which a man is apt to view the whole of his life and his responsibilities. In connection with majority rule for the common welfare, a plea was also made for the preservation of minority rights, with the proviso that the churches should join in common opposition to the groups who are working in politics, not for the public welfare, but for their own group interest.

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With peculiar and important significance this comment goes on to say, that every minority movement claims to act in the name of the common welfare, and that as many crimes are committed in the name of the common welfare as have been traditionally committed in the name of liberty.

The following quotations were among a number of equally striking ones made from the Reverend A. Lugan's book, "The Social Teachings of Jesus":

"In addition to moral brotherhood, the Gospel proclaims the universal brotherhood of blood. . . . . Christian brotherhood imposes upon the will of all of us the duty of solidarity, and it alone explains and renders possible a whole-souled internationalism. . . . . The Gospel of Christ does not speak directly of political freedom; but who can doubt that by arousing in man a feeling of personal dignity, by placing his soul above all the world, by spurring him on to sacrifice himself for others and his own interests and desires to the interests and desires of others, and by urging him to serve society and mankind in all ways possible and give himself body and soul for the general good and the welfare of all—who can doubt that He not only made man capable of political freedom, but gave him also the spirit of freedom." The Catholic comments upon the development of individual strength of character, can well close with the statement that many modern words expressive of conduct would not be understood by a Catholic or would be termed by him as altogether insufficient in expressing the moral sanction back of a particular act; for example, a violation of the moral law with regard to one's serious duty is termed by the Catholic Church, and through the centuries has been termed by all of the Christian peoples, as "sin." In much of modern parlance, it is spoken of as a limitation or as a defect or as moral lag. Study of vocabulary, therefore, is essentially necessary. Conduct itself has, as a result, been robbed of definite content. It is necessary for us to restore it.

All of the churches heartily approve of the systematic effort the Committee plans to make, to ensure National publicity on all activities of the churches in Americanization work, citizenship training, welfare work and coöperation with any democratic social tendencies or movements.

The approach to a general teaching and emphasis in church schools of democracy essentials thus approved is different for each of the great churches. For Judaism, it will be directed to each of the one hundred and fifty or more representative Rabbis who collectively constitute the Central Council of American Rabbis. For Catholicism, it is the Bishop of the diocese and usually the superintendent of parochial schools, who should be approached. For Protestantism, while the Educational Committee of the new International Sunday School Council of Religious Education and also the last Quadrennial Convention of the International Sunday School Association, have approved such inclusion and emphasis, it is the publishing boards of the various denominations that must be convinced. Each of these approaches will be made. The specified democracy essentials peculiarly adapted to development through church activities and church school teaching are as follows:

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List of the Specified Democracy Essentials Peculiarly Adapted to Development Through Church Activities and Church School Teaching

Annulment and assurance for individual rights and personal liberties as determined by the common welfare—Realization by the individual that democratic government annuls any personal liberty or individual right conflicting with what has been proved to be the common welfare, accompanied by a cheerful willingness to sacrifice all rights and liberties when they so conflict. A realization, inseparable from the preceding one, that democratic government means the strict *assurance* to the individual of every individual right and personal liberty which has not been proved to conflict with the common welfare, accompanied by a habitual refraining on the part of churches and their individual members from attempt to use law to force their individual beliefs on others. Where the common welfare is obvious, practice in individual discrimination between instances where personal liberties and individual rights can be democratically asserted and those in which they cannot be. Where the common welfare is undetermined, an attitude of confidence in the scientific and impersonal determination by experts of what the common welfare is—especially in economic matters influencing or influenced by standards of living.

Majority rule for the common welfare—The religious duty of voting at every election in order that there shall be less danger of rule by majorities willing to exploit their interests as against the common welfare; the practice of accepting political favors only when they are not in conflict with the common welfare, or when they are given by political leaders to whom support or other equivalent return will not be injurious to the common welfare; habitual practice on the part of church members who belong to economic or social groups which may from time to time hold the balance of political power, to influence their groups never to serve group interests at the expense of the common welfare and always to use their political power in furtherance of interests common to all groups; habitual avoidance by churches and church members of any employment of the political influence of the church which will serve the material interests of the church or individual church members, and through a resulting suspicion of self-interest tend to weaken the influence of the church when it is disinterestedly exercised for the common good.

Democratic equality—The realization that democratic equality is of rights and opportunities as distinguished from abilities and achievements—that it is a leveling up and not a leveling down—accompanied by habitual effort by the local church to raise every social or economic group within it to a social level which insures unembarrassed and unembarrassing social intercourse, motivated by realization of the reflection upon a church and upon religion itself when its membership is socially inferior to neighboring outsiders; the realization that equality can frequently be attained only through self-effort; the certain development of a popular opinion which sees the democracy and religion of industry, vocational training, and education and holds as a disgrace the non-achievement and non-performance of useful things which one can do well or learn to do better, especially those things which are

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essential to serving others; the further realization, especially by dissatisfied social or racial groups, that social equality cannot wholly be conferred by law, but must in part be self-attained and that equality in achievement comes only through highest effort regardless of comparative results, continual encouragement by the church both general and local, of every form of highest effort at personal achievement by any member helpful to the community, whether attempted within the church or outside of it.

A sense of responsibility for the attainment of essential democracies—An individual sense of responsibility for the enforcement of law and for the achievement of all personal rights and opportunities without which the community as a whole will not achieve theirs; a sense of responsibility for personally rising to high enough social level to prevent your fellow church members as your associates from being looked upon as below the ordinary social level; a sense of responsibility for the performance of compensating duties or any other form of equivalent return, for any right or privilege received from the public or the State, for any public pay or expenditure of public funds, for the services of those in one's own employ, and for any compensation given for one's own services; a sense of responsibility for the highest effort in occupation or profession without which those in other occupations or professions who give highest effort will not get equivalent return from you; and for the education which makes highest attainment possible for self, for family and for all citizens, through full personal payment of adequate school taxes and through any personal help one can afford to give others toward the attainment of a higher education.

Individual strength of character—Persistent personal effort by church members to attain the following standards in the order of their relative difficulty of attainment, and on the part of the church to ensure their attainment by every individual member:

INDEPENDENCE. The association of independence as a personal standard, with freedom, self-reliance and equivalent return; habitual *freedom* from religious prejudice and from assisting in any form of coercion except in what has been proved to be essential to the common welfare, whether exercised by the church, political party, or industrial organization; a controlling standard of *self-reliance* through self-support, and independence of material or expensive things for personal happiness and enjoyment; an unwillingness to get something for nothing and contempt for gambling, shirking, profiteering, public graft, or any other means through which something is gained or exacted without equivalent return; the habit of self-determining political issues without regard to any personal interests conflicting with the common welfare, of seeking the truth concerning them from authoritative disinterested sources, and choosing political candidates and leadership with a single eye to the common good; invariable practice of equivalent return, either in kind in appreciation and gratitude or in passing on benefits to others.

BRAVERY. The certain association of bravery with fearlessness, perseverance, and hope; habitual fearlessness of the consequences to one's self of right public service or political action combined with an attitude of sternness or cheerfulness in the face of the hostility of friends or the public at

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large as the result of doing what one surely knows to be right; the attitude and habit of *perseverance*—especially in the attainment of every democracy essential, whether the perseverance is exercised in the form of steadfastness, or of persistency, including continuance, endurance, fortitude, heroism, or if necessary, martyrdom; the attitude and habit of *hope* in all situations and under all conditions, especially in the possibility of all individuals being made fit through education to exercise majority rule for the common welfare.

SELF-RESPECT. The certain association of self-respect with personal attractiveness, purity, humility, dignity, reliability, and honor; the habitual maintenance of all right standards essential to a personal attractiveness to others, with a resulting unembarrassed and unembarrassing participation in social intercourse; an attitude of humility as opposed to the pride, boastfulness, and ostentation so objectionable to others; a standard of dignity in contrast with clownishness, frivolity and allowing one's self to be the butt for practical jokes; a standard of reliability, including resoluteness in maintaining personal standards and fundamental rights, faithfulness in all things in which one is trusted by others—especially in social relationships with others and in business obligations, and loyalty including loyalty to church, to family relationships, and to political leadership and party organizations so long as they are not antagonistic to the common welfare; a standard of honor—especially family honor, the maintenance of standards in professional and industrial work, and the carrying over of personal honor into political relationships and public service.

SELF-CONTROL. The certain association of self-control with abstinence, temperance, inhibition, and balance; abstinence as a controlling standard—the habitual surrender of any individual right or personal privilege harmful to the common welfare, total abstinence from all things in which all indulgence is harmful to self or others or in which intemperance is probable and harmful either to one's self or others, including intoxicating drink, personally injurious foods, unnecessary criticism or argument and gossip, any dishonorable self-advantage no matter how great the advantage may be, and any form of political trickery no matter how vital the cause which it would be used to further; parental and other adult example of abstinence and a popular approval of it, as the necessary antidote to the common saying "I'll try anything once"; *temperance* in all things which if carried too far will result in weakness, especially temperance in food and non-intoxicating drinks, in personal enjoyments, in fashions, and in the desire to be always prominent or dominant in church or other public affairs; *inhibition* of actions, words, and feelings which are harmful or unnecessarily unpleasant to others; together with inhibition in the highly important political sense of the *suspension* of feelings, judgments, and premature words or actions while facts are being determined by authorized and trustworthy experts; *balance* including social poise, practice in the discrimination and identification of what is truly religious or irreligious, democratic or undemocratic, together with the *balanced judgment* arising after suspended judgment, from the habitual assembling of all material facts and conditions, or where

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this is personally impossible—the consulting of expert knowledge and judgment.

JUSTICE. The certain association of justice with the giving of rights to others and the doing of right in relationship to others, involving—*moral rights and equities* and *legal rights and equities;* the habitual practice of conceding rights, that is of conceding anything to others that belongs to others and not to us, including the guarantee to every citizen of the right to vote without intimidation or the nullification of his vote, regardless of how seriously it may count against our personal interests; and further including the guarantee to every citizen of the exercise of every privilege which belongs to him no matter how it conflicts with our wishes, if it is not contrary to the common welfare; the yielding of equities or the giving of full and equal share to others in everything in which they have a common right with us, including a multitude of equities not guaranteed by law and often beyond their power to insist upon; association with justice as its chief types common to both rights and equities, of sincerity, truthfulness and honesty, and as additional types for equities, fairness and impartiality; the motivation of each of these types through the development of a controlling sense of responsibility and of honor concerning them, not only in law, but in the extra-legal rights and equities of personal relations, social life, business and industry.

GENEROSITY. The realization that generosity involves not only the giving to others of more than their just due but of more of what is our own than is their just due; the certain association of generosity as a standard with liberality, generous charity, and philanthropy; where natural liberality or freedom in giving does not exist—the development of liberality through practice in the free giving up of anything above and beyond what is merely just, until it becomes so spontaneous that it is a form of personal enjoyment and not self-sacrifice at all; the development of the attitude and habit of liberal and even self-sacrificing charity, which includes a good will and sympathy inspired by love of one's fellowman; an attitude and habit of benevolence or beneficence in the sense of giving any possible form of personal relief to the needy and of participating in a sufficient variety of selected charities or benevolences to ensure through coöperation with others the sum-total of all necessary relief; insistence by the church not only upon adequate and proportionate individual giving to the Church, but upon the displacing of trifling and grudging charity or total lack of contribution to welfare work, by the development of a sense of responsibility and a generous charity on the part of each church member toward a sufficient variety of organizations to fully meet community needs; a sympathetic familiarity on the part of each church member with the names and the nature of the work of the leading types of such organizations; the encouragement of philanthropy or large gifts made through love of fellowman for the benefit of larger groups than are reached through ordinary charity—outside of the Church as well as in it, through giving to those who are able to contribute largely, intelligent familiarity with philanthropic funds and institutions already existing and with the greater human needs which only philanthropy can meet.

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CHEERFULNESS. Certain association of cheerfulness with sanguine cheerfulness or cheerfulness arising from natural lightness, jollity, or joyousness; with stoical cheerfulness or the cheerfulness based upon the habitual repression of sadness, worry and complaint, and the simulation of cheerfulness; and with hopeful cheerfulness due to "trust in the Lord" and the controlling belief that "all things work together for good to them that love God"; the limitation of natural lightness, jollity, and joyousness not only by reverence and respect for religious and secular authority, but by self-respect and respect for others, courtesy, sympathy, and a sense of the fitness of things; the encouragement of a sense of human and natural buoyancy—especially of its outward expression, except where it is unpleasant and unsympathetic to express it; the sure development in all church members of a hopeful cheerfulness based upon faith in God and a controlling realization of His power and love; an accompanying development of a habitual repression of sadness, worry, and complaint and the simulation of cheerfulness, both for the sake of one's self and of one's fellows.

PLEASANTNESS. Association of pleasantness with attractiveness, pleasant interestingness, likableness, and adaptable pleasantness; a standard of attractiveness or pleasing appearance and manners, including the prohibition of immodest dress or dress inappropriate for church, and the organization of groups not only to make clothing for the poor, but to make attractive clothing for them and to study good taste in personal appearance, manners, and dress; the example of the best trained individuals and groups in a sufficient variety of church social occasions, in social activities in which a good example will most tend to raise the whole social level of the church, if all members are led to follow the lead of the best trained in some activity or other; the development of pleasant interestingness in church members—that is of the quality of being interesting in ways commonly pleasing to all or in a sufficient variety of ways to please each; consequently a multiplication in every aspect of church social life of conversations and discussions which not only eliminate unpleasantness and unkind gossip, but have pleasantness and kindliness as their aim; the maintenance in church equipment, service and activities of high standards of literature, music and art, and an effort to have them carry over to individual and home life; effort to develop in individuals the habit of judging whether their personal qualities are likable or unlikable, and of seeking to get rid of unlikable traits and to develop likable ones; such intelligent and sympathetic adaptation to individuals of church school work and forms of social service, that the necessary study and practice will prepare the way for the conscious selection of combinations of one's own personal characteristics, which will be pleasant for particular individuals and particular occasions.

SELF-SACRIFICE. Certain association with self-sacrifice of self-sacrifice for reward, for strength, for duty, for faith, and for love; the supplementing of practice in self-sacrifice in this life for the reward of eternal life, by actual practice planned by the Church for each individual in self-sacrifice for the common welfare; practice planned by the Church for each individual member in toil, saving, education, hardship and perseverance, where it

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provides the certain encouragement of present reward; actual practice in self-sacrifice in the furtherance of each standard of strength, limited by the creation of an attitude of disgust and contempt for any sacrifice made through weakness; the creation of a favorable condition for the solution of public economic and social problems through strong emphasis by the Church of individual and coöperative practice in the self-sacrifices necessary to duty, both from the standpoint of the rights and equities of other individuals and of the common welfare; practice in determining the point at which self-sacrifice becomes greater than right or duty requires; practice in a self-sacrifice for the sake of maintaining essential truth or of determining it, as distinct from telling petty truths harmful to individuals or society, or beyond the truth to which another individual has a personal or an equal common right; practice in any self-sacrifice necessary to the maintenance of faith and of a religious belief strong enough, and of other beliefs big enough and definite enough, to make sacrifices for; the realization that love not strong enough to be self-sacrificing is not love at all; the development of self-sacrificing love for home and the Church and for a sufficient variety of peoples, social groups, worthy interests or great causes, to make every church member loving through self-sacrifice; the realization by every individual that faith is not saving if not accompanied by the continual self-sacrifice essential to strength and love.

Coöperation for the common welfare—Practice in coöperation for the common welfare as distinguished from coöperation for the interest of self or of others and as beyond coöperation *only* for the sake of the coöperative group or body itself; association of such coöperation with the local church as a whole, the community, and individual men or women; with social groups such as racial groups, National groups, fathers or mothers, in relationship to children, children in relationship to home, church members as constituting industrial groups within the church, or similar groups within the church such as employees, employers, employers and employees, or members living in a particular social environment; with institutions such as schools, alumni organizations, etc.; and with voluntary associations and organizations such as church societies and orders, welfare organizations, local clubs, athletic associations, children's organizations, etc. An accompanying standard and practice in judging when the interests of any such group must be sacrificed to a larger coöperation for the common welfare; the holding from time to time of anniversaries and other special occasions in church for each group, regardless of the church affiliations of its membership, upon which their peculiar contributions to democracy essentials are pointed out and practicable additional contributions are specified and urged. As situations and issues arise, occasion offers or circumstances demand—the assembling, first, of all members of such groups who are members of the local church or of larger church units to consider under church auspices and inspiration timely contributions peculiarly within the province of the group; or second, of official delegates from each of such groups largely represented in the Church, *to meet together* with a view to studying the essential democracies involved in the occasion of their being assembled, and of using their influence through the

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Church and the Church's influence through them, for a coöperative furtherance of such democracies.

Systematic effort on the part of the churches to lessen sectarian prejudices—It is especially fortunate that all of the churches appear to welcome efforts to lessen sectarian prejudices. Conspicuous examples of this have been given in the formal condemnation of the Ku Klux activities by many bodies of Protestant clergymen. But Nation-wide teaching of a sort which will make all Americans intelligent enough and tolerant enough to exemplify fully in their lives the religious liberty guaranteed by the Constitution, is a more difficult matter.

The teaching of respect for all religions would probably be agreed to by the Catholic Church, with the reservation that this must not include any teaching that would lead Catholic children to believe that one religion is as good as another, that there is no definite knowable revelation of God through His Divine Son Jesus Christ, and that there is no visible Church of Christ. The position that will be taken by most of the churches appears to be that while one citizen may believe that his faith alone is the word of God, and that a fellow-citizen who does not believe as he does is absolutely wrong, yet he with his fellow and his fellow with him can live together in good fellowship, in mutual recognition of mutual rights. To this all churches would add respect for the religious worship and practices of others.

Little comment was made by any one of the three churches on the complementary contribution to the lessening of sectarian prejudice and of non-sectarian prejudice against any church—the removal by church groups of all just ground for prejudice against a churches' membership as a whole on account of non-essential characteristics in the church itself, or in any considerable part of its membership, conspicuously unattractive to people outside of the church.

Has Protestantism perpetuated in its attitude toward popular amusements any of the more easily developed but non-essential and less human characteristics of the Puritan, and failed to develop as fully as he did his stronger and less readily attainable qualities? Do many Protestants have an unwarranted distrust and fear of an improbable intolerance and mercilessness toward believers in other religions on the part of the Catholic Church if it should come into political control? And have they as a result an un-American opposition to office holding by Catholics? Has the old Puritan iconoclasm and disbelief in concrete symbols of religious faith been carried so far that Protestants have become less reverent in worship and more prone to accept innovations in worship which lessen reverence? Has Protestantism turned its attention too much upon the sins possessed by one's fellows and their failure to make public acknowledgment of them and to "join" church, with a lessened sense of responsibility for their sins after they have joined the church and for those of church members in general as contrasted with outsiders? Is this done to the neglect of a ready acknowledgment of the outsider's virtues as making him partly Christian and the realization that evangelical effort should seize upon unacknowledged or unrecognized virtues of non-church

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members as a point of departure for making them more Christian? Is this negative attitude toward the virtues of outsiders and one of tolerance toward petty or even conspicuous immoralities of church members, responsible for the very common and harmful belief on the part of outsiders that Christians are hypocritical?

Does Catholicism, with its historical exaltation of the Church, carry farther than is necessary conspicuous, and perhaps at times even pompous, participation by church officials in public affairs, or result in unnecessarily public glorifications and ceremonials? And, if so, does not this unnecessarily tend to increase the fear of some Protestants that the church is attempting to seize political power? Does Catholicism carry any further than Protestant sects, the early Christian practice of brother helping brother, with consequent ground for a very common belief that a Catholic employee in any enterprise, who has the power, will gradually get rid of Protestant subordinates, in order to employ Catholics in their place? Whether this is in part due to the prejudice manifested by some Protestants against Catholics running for political office, or is a partial cause of it, will not prejudice be much lessened if the very appearance of such a practice is condemned by the church and avoided by societies; accompanied by a corresponding condemnation by all Protestant churches of discriminations against Catholics?

In so far as certain forms of sharp practice in business and a certain personal aggressiveness or forwardness in social life are, as is commonly assumed, peculiarly characteristic of the Jew, could a special emphasis in Jewish teaching of the graciousness of self-sacrifice and the democracy of equivalent return tend to remove these characteristics in so far as they exist.

These and many similar questions could well be asked by the authorities of each of the three historic churches and by those of various sects or denominations as well, with a view to making sure that no removable characteristics exist in church practices or the lives of any representative part of church membership, which create misunderstanding and distrust serious enough to constitute a menace to National unity and a bar to a natural and trustful social intercourse.

Another favorable condition to the lessening of sectarian feeling not widely commented upon in responses to the questionnaires, is the systematic effort on the part of each church to remove all unjust or ungrounded prejudices held by many of its membership against churches as wholes or individual members of churches, on account of objectionable qualities characteristic of parts of their membership, for which the churches are not responsible and from which many individuals among their members are free. This particular form of public service together with an accompanying effort to emphasize the good characteristics of other religions and to coöperate with other churches in counteracting prejudices through the exploitation of their contributions to National life, should not take the form of a mere attitude of tolerance and approval too general and indefinite to be controlling, but of an organized effort within each church to see that its representatives in every locality, so preach and teach that sectarianism disappears as a menace to National unity. It is the churches themselves, rather than legislation and law courts that should make Ku Kluxism and Know-nothingism impossible.

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The Attitude of the Churches Toward an Effort Through Informal Conference or Interchange of Views to Avoid Sectarianism in Political Issues and Especially in Those Affecting Education

Aside from the ignorance and prejudice just discussed as being removable by the churches themselves, the chief cause of sectarianism lies in active participation of the churches in political issues affecting public education. At present the two issues which are most threatening are the proposal to create a National Department of Education and the demand of Protestantism for certain forms of State or community recognition of week-day church schools.

The opposition of certain Catholic bodies to the creation of a National Department of Education is threatening to increase the feeling on the part of many Protestants that Catholics are "opposed to public schools"; while a consequently rallying of all, or of many Protestant agencies to the support of the proposed legislation, has given to a public issue on which citizens differ regardless of their church affiliations, the appearance if not the reality of sectarian conflict.

The inquiry made by the Committee proves this to be unavoidable. In so far as Catholics are against the Towner-Sterling Bill, their opposition seems largely based upon the fact that the appropriation of large sums of money by the Federal Government to the States puts the practical control of education into the hands of the Department that has the distribution of such appropriations and the authority to pass judgment upon the fulfilment of requirements that condition the giving of such appropriations. But even if the Department was not made the distributing agency for government appropriations, it would still be opposed on the ground that education in the Republic has always been a function of the States and that centralization of power is inimical to the maintenance of a just balance between the powers of the State and the Federal Government. There is probably no objection on the part of most Catholic opponents of the measure, to a National Bureau or Department of Education or Welfare that reports valuable research work, as a clearing-house on matters of National educational interest, and sets up better standards. But they urge that moral authority to do this is sufficient, if the standards are based upon scientific research, and that to confess that moral authority is not sufficient is to confess the necessity of financial coercion and through it, definite Federal control. Parochial schools are quite willing to accept general standards and, in fact, many have outstripped local ones. There is, however, a well-defined fear that even if appropriations should be eliminated from present legislation, the creation of a Department may open the way to future appropriations.

Any support which may be given to the plan for the creation of a National Welfare Department is certainly not due to the belief that National welfare appropriations might be made by the Government to Church controlled welfare work. That such appropriations should be made in this day in our history is regarded as unthinkable. Indeed, the proposal to create a National welfare department as a substitute for a department of education has strong opposition among many Catholics and non-Catholics also, because of the belief that it would represent a drift toward paternalism

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rather than Americanism. The opposition on this ground is so strong that it would continue even if it should result in organized reaction against any form of National appropriation handled even directly through the Church, such, for example, as that supporting the Indian schools. None of the opposition appears to be due to a belief that the proposed equalization of educational opportunities through National aid given to poorer sections of the country, would increase the burden of "double taxation" borne by Catholics in supporting parochial schools in such sections.

In short, the opposition is immovable, and would not be removed by the elimination of appropriations, the forbidding of any setting up by the department of standards for religious education, the limitation of appropriations to those for forms of teacher training open to prospective teachers in any type of school, the limitation of appropriations to those for phases of school work too expensive for adequate local support or too new or unusual to receive it—even with the provision that such work given in common schools shall be open to attendance by properly qualified pupils in parochial or private schools. There is no form of amendment or limitation, which will lessen or remove an opposition which appears quite sincerely to believe itself due to political principles rather than sectarian feeling, and which with equal sincerity so far as the majority of Catholic citizens are concerned, realizes the necessity for the public-school system and is interested in it, in its extension and in the promotion of its standards, because it has to do with the welfare of the vast majority of the American people. This probably summarizes, or comes as near as a single statement can to summarizing, the viewpoint of such Catholics and Catholic bodies as are opposed to a National Department of Education.

The issues involved in the rapid spread of Protestant week-day schools for religious education appear to be more susceptible to non-sectarian decision. The fundamental question raised by the Committee is whether there may not be on the part of both Catholics and Protestants a giving over of all *academic* work to the common schools, with the proviso that in all localities and sections in which there is sufficient school attendance of children affiliated with a church which provides parochial schools,—there shall be maintained by the public-school authorities a sufficient number of schools or school rooms which will be taught by teachers approved by the church authorities from the standpoint of religious faith and training and by the public-school authorities from all other standpoints. It is already a common practice for pupils who are having both their academic and religious education in parish schools, to go to exceptionally well-equipped common schools for phases of work requiring very expensive equipment or exceptionally trained teachers. It is already a common practice for public-school authorities to appoint Catholic school teachers with special reference to the religious needs of Catholic children, and for Catholic bishops to give daily religious instruction in church schools and to send children thus instructed to public schools taught by Catholic teachers. Such adjustments are possible with the approval of the bishop of the diocese in which they have been made, and the resulting experiments seem to be the right approach to a preliminary dis-

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cussion as to whether there can be in our country an agreement upon parallel systems of religious and academic education. Judaism as a religious institution and Jewish citizens in general are likely to approve of any satisfactory adjustment along these lines. But until Protestant churches through a systematic instruction succeed in removing anti-Catholic prejudices of the sort that are due to ignorance or misunderstanding, there will be sharp Protestant opposition to any form of concession to parochial education. Some politicians will oppose the extra-taxation which will be involved in giving all academic instruction to Catholic children in common schools as all academic instruction is given to Protestant and Jewish children in common schools and will relieve Catholic citizens from "double taxation." But if an American system of religious and common school education can be worked out which will remove all actual religious instruction from the common schools, release all public-school pupils from public-school attendance for the full time necessary for adequate religious education in church schools, and see that Catholic children or those of any other faith which insists upon it are taught in a religious atmosphere and by teachers of the same faith familiar with its methods of religious instruction—the reconciliation between religious liberty and democracy will have been completely brought about.

There is likely to be little Catholic or Jewish opposition to Protestant week-day church schools. As yet there is little expectation on the part of Catholics that Protestant week-day religious schools will assume a National character. From the standpoint of Catholicism, unless the academic education of Protestant children is carried on in a religious atmosphere and by Protestant teachers as familiar with Protestant religious education as are Catholic teachers with Catholic religious education, Protestant week-day church schools will be but a distressing compromise. Concerning the issue raised by some Protestant bodies, of academic credit for religious education which meets academic standards, it has been suggested that lay judgment of religious instruction itself can be avoided by the limitation of such credit to courses given by teachers whose training has been approved by public school authorities.

There as yet appears to be no fear on the part of Catholic Church authorities that the creation of Protestant week-day schools and the limitation of the expense of maintaining them, to that necessary for adequate religious instruction, will make it less easy to convince Catholic parents of the necessity for supporting both public schools and religious schools which duplicate academic in addition to giving religious education. The Catholic Church will never abandon its historic insistence upon the complete correlation of religious education with all other forms of instruction, but a willingness on its part to experiment and necessary adaptations to changing conditions such as those suggested, may result in new ways of bringing this complete correlation about. If the traditions and ideals of Catholicism can be met by Catholic children being given religious education in church schools and academic education in common schools taught by Catholic teachers, the money now spent in the support of academic work in church schools can be devoted to the

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training of Catholics to give still more adequate religious instruction and in fitting them to create a religious atmosphere and to emphasize phases of academic work which will be helpful to religious instruction. This is what Protestants are planning to do, though with less consciousness of the need of complete correlation. Whatever the outcome of it all—whether Parochial education is unmodified in its form or not—the establishment of Protestant week-day schools is unlikely to arouse sectarian issues.

SECTION III—POSSIBLE DEMOCRACY PROGRAM FOR NATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

The following democracy program was first suggested by the Committee on the Teaching of Democracy of the National Council of Education to the League of Women Voters at the request of the Luzerne County, Pennsylvania League, with a view to possible incorporation in its regular activities. It is planned on the assumption that as the League emerges from a period in which its energies have largely been consumed in getting women to vote and in teaching them the usual political routine, it will either have to formulate a political program non-partisan enough to secure general support and yet dominantly enough political not to duplicate the usual civic activities of Women's Clubs, or will dissolve into political factions or be transformed into a harmless and powerless debating society or reform league. All phases of the proposed program are equally well adapted to any serious and practical but non-partisan activities of any women's organization. It purposely contains much more than can be performed in any one year, in order that local selection may be possible and that the local practicability of its various features can be proved or disproved by local trial or experiment.

But though some details may be omitted from the program of a particular year and others may be found ill-adapted to the activities of particular organizations, the sum total of the democracy objectives on which the program is based contains no feature which is not essential to the perpetuation and growth of democracy. Each of the democracy essentials under which the various details of the program can be subordinated, has been approved by a large number of distinguished Americans either leaders in the democracy movement or prominently representing some phase of public life in which democracy is a continual issue, or heading some organization which is National in its scope and social in its purposes. A list of those commenting on the democracy essentials and some of their comments upon them can be found in the Proceedings of the National Education Association for 1922.

It is not the intention of the Democracy Committee to suggest to particular organizations which of the democracy elements they should incorporate in their National program. But even the specification of the essentials was made at the semi-official request of a number of representative officials of National organizations who wished that their lectures, reports, circulars, official organs, and National and local programs might be used, so far as practicable, in helping to make American democracy truer and more complete.

There are two ways in which the Committee on the Teaching of Democracy can be helpful to the incorporation of the teaching of democracy in the program of a National organization: by the submission of the democracy

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essentials merely analyzed into education objectives, with a view to the incorporation in the organization's propaganda of such among them as it may select as adapted to its aims and procedures; and where special request is made by the organization itself or some local unit in it, the submission of an actual program for tentative adoption and experimentation after such modifications as the organization or local unit cares to make.

In the case of the League of Women Voters the second plan has been followed. The accompanying program is submitted, first, to the Luzerne County League, and, second, to the National Organization at the request of certain National officers. If the National League or any State League would see fit to appoint a committee on democracy to which this program or others having the same end in view could be submitted and by which it could be circulated in printed form to local Leagues for consideration, or experimentation, it may in the end be found advisable to adopt it for the League as a whole with such changes as experience may show to be desirable, and it may become a fundamental activity of the League and a potent contribution to the growth of National and international democracy.

Democracy Committees

I. THE COMMITTEE ON THE COMMON WELFARE. It shall be the duty of the Committee on the Common Welfare to increase individual and public familiarity with what the common welfare is and to build up a continual consciousness of it, by making common welfare studies in the practice and growth of democracy:

A. When the common welfare is plainly apparent and requires no personal investigation or expert research or experimentation to determine it, as observed in current events, editorials, periodical literature, books, public addresses, legislation, and the work of organizations.

B. Where knowledge of what the common welfare is requires personal investigation or expert research or experimentation to determine it—by investigating impersonally and without partisanship all local political or other public agencies and activities for determining facts essential to knowing what the common welfare is; the composition and proceedings of all general agencies for determining the truth necessary to a democratic solution of National and international issues—including Government commissions and scientific conferences; and the progress of the effort at ensuring publicity for facts concealed from the public for individual profit—including "open" diplomacy, legislation concerning the publication of corporation accounts and information concerning individual incomes, and the facts given out as propaganda by capital or labor in time of public controversy.

Quite aside from the individual and local community gain from such work carried on by a National organization nothing could so encourage the universal growth of democracy, as consciousness on the part of individuals and agencies capable of doing local democratic service, that common welfare studies planned by the League and other organizations will give local publicity to every democratic contribution which they make; and, on the

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part of those capable of doing National democratic service, that the same agencies taken collectively will give their democratic contribution a National hearing. More than this the work of expert investigators and commissions honest and courageous enough to report actual facts in the face of powerful opposition, will be less futile in its arousal of public sentiment and indignant demand for legal remedy, if influential citizens in every community study their findings with a view to the common welfare.

Examples of the sort of local matters which can be made the subject of impersonal and non-partisan inquiry in common welfare studies, are: a study of the mode of selecting and nominating assessors, commissioners, councilmen, and school directors, and any other officials who assess or levy taxes and expend public moneys, and the extent to which there is an avoidance of the selection of persons for such offices more liable than other to be influenced by powerful interests which wish to reduce taxation and to lessen their legal share of it, or to use public moneys for their own advantage where it is not for the common welfare (made impersonal and non-partisan by avoidance of any discussion of the personal reliability of particular candidates or officials); the securing of lists of assessments made upon local property and the publishing of them with the properties arranged by streets, in order that the assessments made on adjacent properties can be compared at a glance; the repeated calling of public attention to gross inequalities until they are corrected; a study of exemptions of tax collectors from the collection of the taxes of particular individuals, and of the amount of taxes paid after exemption and the accounting and use made of it; a study of how the cost to the public of supplies, building construction and repairs, compares with the ordinary cost to individuals; a study of the distribution of public improvements in relationship to general public needs and relative population and size of the localities benefiting by them (made impersonal and non-partisan by avoidance of any inquiry into the personal interest of specified individuals, corporations or officials in such improvements); a study of the work of Americanization agencies in insisting that in naturalization proceedings the questions asked and answers received shall indicate some intelligent knowledge of governmental forms and democracy essentials; coöperation with Americanization agencies in seeing that the democracy essentials are increasingly included in the questions asked in such proceedings and in the preparation for them; observation of the procedure followed in assembling names for jury service, with a view to noting what names are included in the sum-total and the process by which names are drawn from among them; an investigation of any other procedure or results of procedures which, while themselves impersonal, indicate the reliability or serve as checks upon the reliability of local officials and official bodies, and the like.

Similar examples of *National* agencies and activities which can be studied in the same way, are: study of the growing democracy of men in public life, such as political leaders, writers of fiction, newspaper editors, specialists and college professors, essayists and writers in periodicals, together with report to the League (here the name of any other National organization may be submitted), of declarations, utterances and passages in which such growth

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in democracy is expressed; study and report to the League, of the composition of expert government commissions appointed to solve industrial and economic problems, with a view to seeing the extent to which they are composed of disinterested scientists and representatives of the people at large, of proved honesty, as opposed to commissions such as those described by Mr. Wells, "loaded up with muck of the politician type and tame labor representatives," balanced with "new adventurer millionaires" who appoint their own "tame experts after their own hearts—experts who will make merely advisory reports which will not be published"; the noting of editorial and other insistence that the composition of such bodies shall be experts and scientists, representing the common welfare, as opposed to men who represent either party to the issue, or allied interests; study and report to the League upon the results of expert investigations and commission recommendations as given in such reports, such as those made by the commissions investigating the beef industry, the distribution of fuel supply, etc.; the study of the proceedings of scientific bodies interested in promoting the common welfare in social and economic affairs, such as the American Academy of Political and Social Science, Dr. Garfield's Institute of Politics, etc.; the study of novels, popular books on sociology and economics—such as Tuft's True Business of Living, which are written with a view to pointing the way to the common welfare, etc.

The acceptance by individual League members of the responsibility for making common welfare studies such as these, reported by the Committee on the Common Welfare to the Committee on Personal Practice later provided for, can be recognized by the latter Committee as personal responsibility assignments and the carrying out of them, checked up as such.

The chief duties of the Committee on the Common Welfare are: (1) the planning of common welfare studies; (2) the furnishing of information concerning sources of material helpful to them (in each of these duties the Committee should be aided by general agencies such as the Democracy Committee of the National Council of Education, or better—by general committees of the national organization corresponding to the local ones); (3) gaining the acceptance of common welfare study assignments by individual members and reporting their names and their assignments to the Committee on Personal Practice; and (4) the planning of League programs, public meetings, etc.; the writing of newspaper articles and editorials; the issuing of bulletins and circulars, etc.—by which the more important results of common welfare studies are popularly disseminated.

II. THE COMMITTEE ON MAJORITY RULE. While the Committee on Majority Rule shall studiously avoid the impairment of its general service which would accompany its participation in party campaigns and itself becoming a party to political issues, it is its duty to seek to ensure, as the most certain safeguard of the common welfare, majority rule as opposed to the rule of interested minorities; by encouraging every citizen to vote at each form of election, regardless of the League's or League members' interest in his supposed political affiliation or opinion; and to prevent any practice or device which interferes with or tends to nullify majority rule, by—

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(1) Upholding and seeking to popularize through public talks, newspaper articles and editorials, printed circulars, etc.; all constitutional checks upon National or State legislation, such as—specifying particular things as included in common rights and the common welfare; providing for such a balance in sectional and State representation, as to make it less likely than any section or State shall secure legislation contrary to the common welfare; ensuring such a series of steps in law making or constitutional amendment, as to secure the slowness in decision essential to deliberate and balanced popular judgment (see the humorous and graphic representation of such steps, p. 166, Jenks and Smith's "We and Our Government"); and the saving power of amendment when it is necessary to constitutionally provide some further enlargement of the common welfare or additional safeguard to majority rule.

(2) Looking for, making public, indignantly resenting and seeking to have more certainly and adequately punished—cases of: bribery or failure to avoid the suspicion of it, through the acceptance of personal benefits in connection with personal political action; the railroading which hurries legislation through, before the public knows of it, or opposition has time to form, or deliberate and balanced judgment can be reached; the attaching to good or necessary legislation of riders which carry something through with it which might not otherwise pass, or which are deliberately attached to good or necessary legislation to prevent its passage; the concealing of jokers, or provisions contrary to the public welfare in legislation otherwise for the common welfare, with a view to sneaking some unworthy thing through, or to nullifying the good legislation by attaching to it some unconstitutional or harmful provisions; the intimidation of voters by official superiors, employers, business interests, social organizations or any other agency; colonization in which voters of opposite political faith, whether illegally and temporarily or permanently and legally, are brought into a particular locality to overcome a normal majority of their political opponents; gerrymandering where the boundaries of a political district are so changed by legislative enactment as to include in it enough new voters of the political faith opposite to a small majority, to overcome it; and more than anything else, the easy-going citizenship which does not take the trouble to vote at all or to qualify itself to vote.

(3) A continuous campaign to educate all individuals, especially members of the League, to the need of participating in political affairs by every citizen, in order that majority rule for the common welfare shall not be defeated by self-interested minorities; to get every citizen to qualify to vote at the proper time, and to vote at every election, through non-partisan canvasses and personal reminders, with public reports to the League on the success of such efforts in their sum-total, with workers put on honor to refuse to personally give out to party leaders or workers any information thus obtained, until it is simultaneously given out as a whole to all who may be interested; the dissemination of information necessary to a knowledge on the part of voters in general of the qualifications which candidates should possess for offices concerned in the determination of matters affecting the

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common welfare; but with careful avoidance of any partisan propaganda and of the giving out of any information specifying a particular candidate; making it a point of honor for all League members to refuse to accept any political favors which involve as an equivalent return the support of corrupt or unsafe political organizations or leaders, except where they are frankly informed that public statement will be made as occasion arises that support of them cannot extend to specified policies obviously contrary to the common good; the encouragement of active participation of League members—within the limits just laid down, in the affairs of the political parties with which they are personally affiliated; the holding of conferences by League members belonging to various political groups or social organizations, in which they will meet together as members of the League, with a view to unitedly and actively antagonizing within their own party or organization practices or activities which are contrary to the maintenance of majority rule as heretofore discussed and to the common welfare as personal knowledge and the work of the various Democracy Committees makes clear what the common welfare is.

III. COMMITTEE ON DEMOCRATIC EQUALITY. It will be the duty of the Committee on Democratic Equality:

First, to seek to universally disseminate knowledge of the fact that *democratic* equality is: an equality of rights and opportunities rather than of abilities and achievements; an equality of continually higher levels which results from a leveling up rather than a leveling down; an equality much of which must be achieved by self-effort in addition to its being conferred by law; and an equality which even extends to achievements for those whose achievements are unequal but who are made democratically equal through highest effort.

Second, to seek to establish and extend such democratic equality through: an equalization of *educational* opportunities by coöperating with all agencies and movements for seeing that every individual is given the highest minimum of education which is enforceable by law, including specific and definite training in the essentials of democracy: for ensuring coöperation between schools and industries, involving half-time work and half-time education with a view to both earlier industrial training and continuation-schooling after wage-earning has begun; for ensuring adequate education for the immigrants—especially specific training in the essentials of democracy; for equalizing educational opportunities in different sections or localities through State or National aid to those which are too poor to provide adequate schooling; for establishing sufficient and equal school accommodations and, where necessary, at least free tuition for all individuals who wish a higher education or professional or vocational training; for keeping all public educational institutions open to all commonly qualified individuals irrespective of race, nationality or creed; for encouraging private educational institutions organized to maintain and to strengthen selected social standards, to admit pupils from any and every social group, less on the assumption that their family by belonging to a particular social group will harm or will lower these standards, than by requiring the written approval of candidates for

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admission by people whose judgment and testimony as to such standards will be unbiased and reliable.

An equalization of industrial rights: by realizing and seeking to make others realize the necessity for giving all workers at least a socially equivalent minimum wage—not in the false sense of an average wage, but in the sense of the minimum necessary in a given locality to good food and good clothing, a decent and pleasant home, and to all other material things involved in unembarrassed participation in the ordinary social life of the community, together with opportunity to educate one's self and family for higher social levels; and by realizing and seeking to make others realize that beyond this socially equivalent minimum wage, every individual has the right to earn as much and to accumulate as much as he can in so far as it does not work injustice to others or operate against the common welfare; that any effort at communistic equality such as an equal wage for all which limits wages to a common minimum, not only is a check upon the highest effort of the individual, but as a result limits the sum-total of what is produced for the common good; by seeking to popularize the realization that extra compensation beyond the socially equivalent minimum should be gained only through extra ability, extra training and extra effort; above all—by realizing and seeking to make others realize that the greatest industrial inequality is the failure of any worker through highest effort at maximum quantity and quality of service or production, to ensure equivalent return in service by him or in what *he* produces for what he secures from the highest effort of others; by correspondingly realizing the *un*democracy and injustice of soldiering at work, using inferior materials, doing a poor job, overcharging, furnishing goods inferior to what they are represented to be, and any other form of profiteering; and by having as a sub-committee of the Committee on Equality, a Housekeepers' Committee to ensure coöperation in putting a stop to such impositions by its calling the attention of offenders to complaints when a sufficient number of justifiable ones have accumulated. Such a committee could gradually accumulate all apparatus necessary for testing the quality of food and merchandise, or submit samples of inspected food and merchandise to experts, and also acquire information about proper costs and value, and the reliability of weights and measures.

By recognizing and maintaining the right of the worker to *strike*—except in occupations the suspension of which interferes with the common welfare; the equal right of other workers to take the place of strikers without molestation and under the protection of law; advocacy of the creation by law of state or National government commissions composed of citizens of known intelligence and probity, which have the legal right to settle issues which would otherwise result in strikes, and to enforce their decisions by law.

An equalization of legal rights through: insistence upon equivalent police protection in the several sections of a community in proportion to their various needs; indignant protest at the "third degree" or any other form of compulsion through which an individual is forced to testify against himself; familiarity with the constitutional precautions against "class" or other "special" legislation which does not apply to all alike; grave personal

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concern in the nomination, election and work of judges, police officials, prosecuting attorneys and any other court officials—including lawyers, concerned in the general administration of the law, and of sheriffs in relation to their function of panelling non-partisan and non-corruptible jurors; personal willingness to do jury duty in order that such important service shall not be left solely to the unintelligent or the mercenary; coöperation with "legal aid societies" and Americanization organizations, and other proper agencies, to see that the poor, the ignorant and the foreigner yet unacquainted with American legal procedures, are given equality before the law when accused of crime or involved in other legal difficulties; the exercise of all proper influence against Ku-Klux Klans, or any other organizations which take the administration of law into their own hands and through secret trials, without the constitutional safeguards to which the accused have the right, give opportunity for unjust judgments and the wrecking of individual malice.

An equalization of political rights through: the support of all safeguards to democracy enumerated in the duties of the Committee on Majority Rule for the Common Welfare; continual checking up of the efficiency with which compulsory education laws are enforced as a favorable condition to an equal exercise of the right of suffrage; earnest support of civil service laws and familiarity with their local administration and checking up of the efficiency with which they are administered.

An equalization of social rights through familiarity with local living conditions and the informing of the public concerning unfavorable and unequal living conditions as found in tenements, shacks, factory rows, etc., combined with agitation for the building of model houses such as the various branches of the National Government constructed for men engaged in war industries; the promotion of all aids to unembarrassed social intercourse, including the arranging for talks to wives and housekeepers, on quality, becomingness and appropriateness in dress, the purchase, preparation and serving of foods, and on house-furnishings, their appropriateness and use, and other aspects of home economics, and to both men and women upon good manners, books, pictures and plays; the encouragement and support of public playgrounds, church amusement centers, etc., in so far as they seek to develop ordinary skill on the part of all in a variety of popular games and to ensure the participation of all in common and elevating amusements; judging the social acceptability of an individual or family upon individual merits, regardless of the assumed presence in the social group, race or nationality to which they belong, of objectionable social traits; conferences by members of the League who belong to races, nationalities, or social groups occasionally excluded by other groups from ordinary social contacts, to consider ways in which they and their fellows can lessen or remove any just grounds for class prejudice, to show the injustice and falsity or mere prejudices by demonstrating that they are without cause or that former causes have been removed, and to bring pleasantly and convincingly before the general public all possible evidences of the social worth of the group and of the social contributions of its members.

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These various activities of the Committee on Democratic Equality can best be furthered among League members, if the Committee:

1. Selects the particular fields in which equality studies shall be made in a particular year;

2. Reports to the Committee on Personal Practice the names of League members appointed to make the selected studies, in order that they can be counted as responsibility assignment and their performance properly checked and reported upon;

3. Arranges League programs or parts of programs in which the result of equality studies are reported; and

4. Gives publicity to its reports and achievements through interviews, articles and editorials in the public press, or through bulletins, circulars, etc.

IV. THE COMMITTEE ON PERSONAL PRACTICE OF DEMOCRACY. The Committee on Personal Practice of Democracy should include in its work each year:

(1) Personal Responsibility Assignments which collectively constitute a campaign to develop a sense of responsibility in every League member, for the sure performance of some piece of work connected with the League, selected for her or chosen by her on account of her special fitness for it. (The Committee on Personal Practice should check up with the assignments made by all other committees to see that each member has in place of the usual perfunctory committee membership, a work assignment given, if possible, because the work is needed, but—even if the work is not in itself peremptory—given to develop an individual sense of responsibility and an individual habit of performance. A slogan of the League should be—"Personal performance of every responsibility!")

(2) Personal Betterment Bands constituting the means to an accompanying attempt by the Committee to get each League member to make systematic effort to better her efficiency in some democracy essential in coöperation with a band of others selecting the same essential. The effort can be made through practical service, a formal course of study or lecture course, or personal study or practice: for betterment either in the particular skills and abilities necessary to a responsibility assignment, or in the standards of strength necessary to efficient service in general. The following standards of strength or steps to strength committed to memory as a mnemonic verse and repeated daily to suggest the various standards as they become personal aims, should be as characteristic of the League and as effective a means of strengthening personal effort in League work as the formulas of Christian Science or Coué in their respective fields:

Steps to Strength

Independent, brave and bold
Self-respecting, self-controlled,
Just and *generous, cheerful, pleasant*—
Be these standards ever present
In my life, until I rise
To love of all through *sacrifice.*

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Each of these qualities should suggest others, failing the gradual development of which in each individual member, the efforts of the League or of any other organization for civic betterment cannot reach highest efficiency. The procedure for the formation of a Personal Betterment Band would be for the Committee on Personal Practice to request each League member;

First, to mark herself as strong, fair, or weak on each of the standards of strength in relationship to the work and aims of the League, after carefully considering herself personally as possessing or lacking the characteristic which each standard suggests regarded as a sum-total under each; and

Second, to select a standard in which she is especially weak and to pledge herself to an effort to become stronger in it through joining a Betterment Band of others weak in the same standard.

(Definite requirements and continual reminders necessary to reliable effort, which the Betterment Band will supply.)

Each League member willing to do so should score herself on each of the following items as, 3 (strong), 2 (fair), or 1 (weak).

Individual Score-Sheet for Standards of Strength

INDEPENDENCE, suggesting:

Freedom from political or business self-interests and from social or religious prejudices, which tend to prevent sincere personal effort or full coöperation for the common welfare? 1 2 3

(Score by marking a circle around the printed 1, 2 or 3.)

Self-Reliance in political acts and issues, including the ability to stand alone or to be a leader—especially within your own party, in right action which is essential but unpopular? 1 2 3

Equivalent return for common political rights through political *participation* in public affairs for the common good? 1 2 3

For common benefits, by doing a full and just individual share of personal common service and by paying full and just share of *enough* taxes to provide all common benefits to which you cannot contribute equivalent personal work or service? 1 2 3

For public trust when serving as a leader or an office holder, by never accepting office from those whom you know will expect you "to take orders" in matters against the common welfare? 1 2 3

By giving at least all specified time and all reasonable energy to the work of any office or committee to which you accept election or appointment? 1 2 3

By always standing by the party or party leadership that puts you in a position of trust, whatever the pressure exercised against them—except on issues where they surely stand against the common welfare or where the best information which you can personally gain through highest effort convinces you that they are working against the common welfare? 1 2 3

(To get your total *independence score,* add together the seven scores under *independence* and divide by seven—in case of fractions giving yourself 2 or 3 if the fraction over 1 or 2 is more than three-sevenths, and just 1 or 2 if it is less.)

Total score for independence? 1 2 3

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BRAVERY, suggesting:

Fearlessness as opposed to fear of criticism for your participation in political affairs, fear of loss of business or of prejudice to personal interest in taking a public stand on important or critical issues, fear of obstacles to success, and fear of failure? 1 2 3

Perseverance, suggesting in turn: *stedfastness* in the maintenance of every essential democracy which has been already attained, in distinction from a "standpatism" which clings to existing political forms or means to democracy—especially to those which are to one's own personal interest, and which refuses to approve the experimentation necessary to progress? 1 2 3.

Persistency in effort at political betterment in the face of obstacles, criticism and failure—especially persistence in experiment with an insistence upon *generally attainable conditions sufficiently normal to be a fair test of success or failure?* 1 2 3

Hope in the growth of democracy and in gradual social and political betterment, based upon *faith* in majority rule in the partial goodness of most individuals and in the responsiveness of the great majority of individuals to *specific education in democracy?* 1 2 3

(To get your total *bravery score,* add together your four scores under *bravery,* and divide by four, giving yourself 2 or 3 if the fraction over 1 or 2 is three-fourths, and just 1 or 2, if it is a half or a fourth.)

Total score for bravery? 1 2 3

SELF-RESPECT, suggesting:

Sincerity—the frank refusal of political support in place of giving the impression that you are favorable to candidates, officials or leaders to whom you are opposed; open expression of disapproval of a policy or a proposed political action, in place of pretended support or misleading silence concerning it: avoidance of all deception of self or others through concealing personal interests which are served through seemingly public spirited action or failing to tell of such interests while emphasizing the fact that support of measures in which they are involved is on equally strong or stronger impersonal grounds? 1 2 3

Humility in political opinions, as opposed to pretended authority, boastfulness and unpleasant self-assertiveness; in political triumph, as opposed to arrogance and to the attempt to create the impression that victory was largely due to your own personal efforts; in leadership or position, as opposed to pride and self-importance; and in social life as opposed to haughtiness or unpleasant insistence upon petty personal rights? 1 2 3

Dignity through refusal to seek political support through buffoonery and notoriety? 1 2 3

Through unwillingness to permit your race or nationality or your personal beliefs and principles to be ridiculed without public protest? 1 2 3

And through so performing the lowliest or pettiest civics or political services as to make them appear respectable? 1 2 3

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Reliability including: *resoluteness* in not continually changing your mind concerning political matters which have been decided upon, or not failing to keep a personal resolution bearing upon public affairs? 1 2 3 *faithfulness* in everything in which you have been trusted or confided in by associates, by leadership, by party or by majority vote? 1 2 3 *loyalty* through faithfulness in all things whether one has been trusted or not—to friends, to leaders, to followers, to the league and to party, except on disavowal of allegiance *made to them* in things which one cannot personally approve or which are against the common welfare? 1 2 3

Honor through the maintenance of higher personal standards in public affairs than are required by law or public opinion, especially through insistence upon equality for others in common rights and upon equal personal obligation, performance or payment for yourself in common duties? 1 2 3

(To get your total *self-respect score,* add together the nine scores under *self-respect,* and divide by nine—giving yourself 2 or 3 if the fraction over one or two is five-ninths or more, and 1 or 2 if it is less.)

Total self-respect score? 1 2 3

SELF-CONTROL, suggesting:

Abstinence through the habitual surrender of any individual right or personal privilege harmful to the common welfare, and of any petty right which is socially unpleasant if it is insisted upon? 1 2 3

Total abstinence from all things in which *any* indulgence is harmful to self or others, or in which intemperance is probable and harmful to self or others—with special emphasis upon unhelpful and unnecessary criticism, gossip or argument, any dishonorable self-advantage no matter how great the advantage is, and any political trickery no matter how vital the cause which it would be used to further? 1 2 3

Abstinence for the sake of public example and the effect upon youth, from any conspicuously harmful personal indulgence such as immodesty, loudness and extremes in dress, and violations of the Eighteenth Amendment in your home or your personal social group? 1 2 3

Temperance in all things which though right in themselves, if they are carried too far result in weakness—especially in the desire to be always prominent or dominant in the League or in public affairs, as distinct from willingness to unostentatiously perform all duties for which one is specially fitted or can become more fit than others? 1 2 3

Inhibition or the self-suppression of actions, words, and even feelings which are harmful or unnecessarily unpleasant to others, or which tend to injure the work of the League, or to interfere with a pleasant social intercourse? 1 2 3

And the suspension of feelings, judgments and premature words, and actions or "resolutions," while facts are being determined by authorized and trustworthy committees, experts or commissions? 1 2 3

Balance in arriving at a final judgment, on all political questions and issues and matters affecting the common welfare, political candidates and public officials, through the habitual assembling of all attainable material

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facts and conditions, and the consulting of expert knowledge and judgment. So far as League action is concerned, this involves personal insistence upon careful committee study and deliberation before matters of public importance and trustworthy committees, experts, or commissions? 1 2 3

(To get your total *self-control score,* add the seven scores under self-control and divide by seven—giving yourself 2 or 3 if the fraction over 1 or 2 is four-sevenths or more, and 1 or 2 if it is less.)

Total score for self-control? 1 2 3

JUSTICE both in *rights* and in *equities* whether legal or moral.

Conceding a *right* is the conceding to others of anything which is *theirs* and not ours, or demanding from them anything which is *ours* and not theirs. Conceding an *equity* is dependent upon a *sense of honor* which gives a just share of *common rights* to others whether required by law and public opinion or not.

Politically JUSTICE should suggest: *honesty* as an equity and therefore little likely to be compelled by law, in the sense of *equivalent return* in goods, work or service for all public moneys received, without charging more on the ground that you "are a taxpayer," and therefore making every other taxpayer pay something to you which should have reduced his taxes or paid for greater common benefits. Also honesty in the sense of not spending or receiving public money for what the common welfare *does not demand,* whether equivalent return is made or not? 1 2 3

Honesty in not taking for yourself or for any exploiting group of which you are a part, anything which should be conserved for the common welfare, and in not profiteering or so monopolizing or controlling a particular trade, convenience or commodity that the public as a whole has to pay so much for it that all cannot have an equal or equivalent share in proportion to what they do for the common welfare? 1 2 3

Truthfulness in the sense of giving *publicity* to any facts which show an infringement of common rights or a prejudice of common interests, including avoidance of manipulation and concealment to hide inequitable profits in the sale of food stuffs and clothing, in transportation, in coal and in furnishing the public with water supply, either personally or as a stockholder in a corporation; the avoidance of "jokers" in legislation and of beclouding real issues in political campaigns by distracting attention to non-material facts or setting up "men of straw"; together with indignant disapproval of all effort on the part of others to keep the truth from the public concerning matters involving the public interest? 1 2 3

The habit of reading *a sufficient variety* of newspapers and periodicals to get at the truth about public affairs? 1 2 3

Legal justice through: *obedience to law*—especially when its violation or evasion means some advantage to one in money or property, with special emphasis upon instances where the individual whose rights are at stake is ignorant of the law or of his rights? 1 2 3

Or where evasion of law means the exercise of a personal liberty or an expression of play or jollity which does not do any apparent injury to the

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rights of others, but which encourages other evasions that are injurious? 1 2 3

Concern for the maintenance of common rights and for the equal share of others in them, including: opposition to "third degree," "rail-roading," lynch law, and all other usurpations of the administration of justice—because the occasional failure to punish a probable individual offender is a trifling injury to the common welfare when compared with denial to any individual of the common rights to trial by an impartial jury? 1 2 3

Support of all races and social groups in their insistence upon the passage and enforcement of laws giving them access to common privileges, together with an accompanying encouragement of all races and social group to meet the personal conditions necessary to make legal access to common social intercourse of the higher levels, unembarrassed and pleasant outside of those intimate personal relationship which will always be exclusive? 1 2 3

(To get your total *justice score,* add together the eight scores under justice and divide by eight—giving yourself two or three if the fraction over 1 or 2 is four-eighths or more, and 1 or 2 if it is less.)

Total score for justice? 1 2 3

GENEROSITY or the giving up of more *of one's own* than justice demands, suggests: liberality, generous charity and philanthropy.

Liberality or the free giving up of anything one is not compelled to give up in right or equity, politically considered, includes: open-minded consideration and deferential and generous hearing of the opinions of others? 1 2 3

And generous contributions to organization or party expenses *without thought of return* in publicity or support for office? 1 2 3

Generous charity or a generous giving of any possible form of *personal* relief to meet the needs of those in want as they happen to occur; and systematic and generous *enough* participation by each citizen *in a sufficient variety* of *selected* charities to ensure in its sum-total all necessary relief or welfare work through coöperation with others? 1 2 3

Philanthropy on the part of those who are able, in the sense of large personal gifts usually to meet the needs of large groups; including familiarity with all great welfare agencies, a sympathetic attitude toward them, and where possible, individual and League coöperation with selected ones among them? 1 2 3

(To get your total *generosity score,* add together the four scores under *generosity* and divide by four—giving yourself two or three if the fraction above 1 or 2 is three-fourths, but 1 or 2 if it is less.)

CHEERFULNESS, suggesting: *sanguine* or natural cheerfulness or cheerfulness arising from natural lightness or jollity; *stoical* cheerfulness or cheerfulness based upon the habitual *repression* of sadness, worry and complaint. and the *simulation* of cheerfulness; and *hopeful* cheerfulness dependent upon bravery and hope due to faith in divine providence.

Politically considered it should include: the maintenance of all of these forms of cheerfulness with a view to pleasantness of social intercourse? 1 2 3

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Their maintenance in connection with campaigns or reforms to encourage fellow workers? 1 2 3

(To get your total score for *cheerfulness,* add together the two scores and divide by two—giving yourself 2 or 3 if there is a fraction of one half over 1 or 2.)

Total cheerfulness score? 1 2 3

PLEASANTNESS, suggesting: *attractiveness* or pleasing appearance and manners; *pleasant interestingness* or the quality of being interesting in ways *commonly* pleasing to all or in a sufficient *variety* of ways to please each; *likableness* or the possession of active likable qualities; and *adaptable pleasantness* or the emphasis in one's self of the particular *combination* of qualities liked by a particular individual or suitable for a particular occasion.

Attractiveness including: sufficiently becoming and appropriate dress and equipment not to be unpleasing through being or looking *unfeminine,* or not to arouse opposition or resentful ridicule through ostentation—especially when in contact with the general public or engaged in public political activities; with a view to unembarrassed and unembarrassing social intercourse on the higher levels—becoming and appropriate enough dress to be stylish, and fashionable enough not to be conspicuous; from the standpoint of general pleasantness—all the beauty in dress and personal surroundings that is not unbecoming or inappropriate? 1 2 3

Pleasant manners in the *home* involving the inhibition of the complaints, criticisms, naggings, and reiteration of annoying experiences, which do more to break down home life than outside attractions and temptations? 1 2 3

The making of home life pleasant through good housekeeping planned for family comfort, as distinct from housekeeping as an end in itself which makes home life too exacting, with a consequent disproval of the common belief that the participation of women in political affairs is at the expense of the home? 1 2 3

Personal effort to meet any conditions which you may lack essential to pleasing and therefore unembarrassed and unembarrassing participation in social intercourse of the higher levels—such as: good and pleasant manners; reasonably grammatical English, neither inappropriately slangy or arrogantly affected; a pleasant voice; appreciation of the beautiful in a sufficient variety of forms to find much in common with others? 1 2 3 enough familiarity with *general* ideas and current topics to have common interests with others with whom one is in conversation? 1 2 3 and sufficient skill in a sufficient variety of popular games and amusements not to be a " spoil sport "? 1 2 3

Pleasant interestingness from the standpoint of a democratic social intercourse, through: the practice of being a sympathetic and differential listener, no matter how little interested or how much bored you may be—limited by courteous manner of cutting short such conversations; avoidance of much conversation about one's self or one's personal affairs; the ability to sense the situation when things which seem new to you or of great interest to you are quite commonplace or uninteresting to others? 1 2 3

Adaptable pleasantness including: from the standpoint of social intercourse, the practice of attempting to display the particular combination of

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personal qualities adapted to particular individuals and social occasions: the ability to adapt one's self to any social group with which one is in contact, without either embarrassment or condescension; from the standpoint of politics, ability to sense the changing feelings of others—especially of public audiences, and to adapt one's self to their moods? 1 2 3

(To get your total *pleasantness score,* add together the eight scores under pleasantness and divide by eight giving yourself 2 or 3 if the fraction over 1 or 2 is four-eighths or more, and 1 or 2 if it is less.)

Total pleasantness score? 1 2 3

SELF-SACRIFICE—the one standard of strength which when strong enough can be and must be substituted for self-interest as a basis for individual democracy, party activities and movements, and coöperation in political action, suggesting: self-sacrifice for *reward,* for *strength,* for *duty,* for *faith* and for *love.*

Self-sacrifice for *reward* is democratic only when the expected reward is not contrary to the common welfare, and must be distinguished from taking the risk of loss or punishment for the sake of a more probable reward. It should suggest: the continual practice of *self-sacrifice in social life*—smiling when one is sad, being pleasant to unpleasant people and doing things one does not want to do as if one wishes to do them. This form of self-sacrifice with social and therefore political popularity as its reward is the main stock in trade of most office seekers, and *without* it even those seeking the public good as their chief reward—no matter what their other virtues may be, will be unpopular? 1 2 3 The habit of *hard work* or the sake of approbation or influence—as proper to democratic political "workers" as to those who are wholly selfish and partisan? 1 2 3 The practice of the self-sacrifice of ordinary *personal indulgences* necessary to *saving* for either material goods or the education, essential to unembarrassed social intercourse of the higher levels? 1 2 3

Self-sacrifice for *strength* suggesting: the habit of personal self-sacrificing of what one can have but does not need—just for the sake of being strong? 1 2 3 The highly important habit of *accustoming children to self-sacrifice* as the chief means to making them morally strong? 1 2 3

Self-sacrifice for *duty* suggesting: the habit of making the personal sacrifices necessary to the performance of every political duty corresponding to each political right? 1 2 3 The fundamental habit of making the self-sacrifices of anything conflicting with *common* rights? 1 2 3 The habit of making the self-sacrifices necessary to give to another his equal right and equity, especially where you are tempted to increase your own share beyond what is equal at his expense? 1 2 3

Self-sacrifice for *faith* suggesting: the habit of making the self-sacrifices consistent with your political beliefs and especially with your faith in your self and in the truth, to gain the knowledge or experience necessary to new beliefs, and to convince others of the truth and honesty of your beliefs? 1 2 3

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Self-sacrifice for *love* suggesting: the making of enough sacrifices for the League and for what it stands for to strengthen your love for it and make your love for it a controlling force? 1 2 3 The making of enough sacrifices to help other citizens and other social, national or racial groups to equal participation in ordinary social intercourse and other rights and privileges—for you to learn to *like* them and to love all that is lovable in them—the likelihood of which is increased by your sacrifices for them? 1 2 3

(To get your *total self-sacrifice score,* add together the eleven scores under self-sacrifice and divide the result by eleven—giving yourself 2 or 3 if the fraction over 1 or 2 is six-elevenths or more, and 1 or 2 if it is less.)

Total self-sacrifice score?. 1 2 3

There is no need of a total score for standards of strength, because the object of scoring is merely the indication of individual weaknesses which need correction, rather than a determination of comparative individual strength of character, for which a more exact scheme of scoring would be necessary.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON AMERICAN TEACHERS' COLLEGES

G. W. MAXWELL, WINONA, MINNESOTA

STANDARDS FOR ACCREDITING STATE NORMAL SCHOOLS AND TEACHERS' COLLEGES AS ADOPTED BY THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS' COLLEGES

The Standard American Normal School or Teachers College is a school with two-year, three-year, and four-year curriculums designed to afford such general and professional education as will best fit students for specific teaching in elementary and secondary schools. The following constitute the minimum standards for accrediting normal schools and teachers' colleges.

I. Such schools should require for admission the satisfactory completion of four years of work in a secondary school approved by a recognized accrediting agency, or the equivalent of such a course.

II. Each curriculum leading to a diploma or degree should be recognized separately and only if the following conditions are met:

a. Two-year curriculums leading to diplomas should together have a minimum enrolment of 80 students fully matriculated according to the provisions of standard I above.

b. Four-year curriculums leading to baccalaureate degrees should together have a minimum enrolment of 60 students fully matriculated according to the provisions of standard I above, with not less than 25 in the junior and senior years.

III. Such school should require for a diploma not less than 60 semester hours or equivalent, and the requirement for graduation with the baccalaureate degree should not be less than 120 semester hours or the equivalent.

IV. The minimum scholastic requirement of all teachers in such schools (except assistants in the training school) should be equivalent to that required for the standard bachelor's degree, supplemented by special training or experience, or both, of at least three years. The minimum scholastic

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requirement of the head of a department should be equivalent to that required by the master's degree.

V. The average teaching program of a teacher in such schools should not exceed 16 clock hours per week in actual teaching or the equivalent in classroom, laboratory, shop, or supervisory instruction. The class unit for instruction should not exceed 30 students.

VI. Such schools should provide adequate facilities for observation and practice teaching, making this work the integrating and controlling factor of the curriculum.

1. The number of pupils annually enroled in the training department (including children in public schools used for practice) should not be less than four times the annual number of graduates from the institution.

2. The teachers in the training department (including the director and assistants) should number not less than one third the entire junior college faculty of the institution, and (excepting assistants) should possess the same degree of preparation as other members of the junior college faculty.

3. Each student candidate for the diploma (60 semester hours of credit) should be required to pursue the equivalent of one school year of observation-practice of not less than one daily clock hour or a total of 180 hours.

VII. Such schools should be provided with library and laboratory equipment sufficient to develop adequately and to illustrate each course announced. The library should contain not less than 8000 live, well-distributed, professionally administered volumes, and should be maintained by an annual appropriation for the purchase of books of not less than $1000.

VIII. The location and construction of buildings, the lighting, heating, and ventilation of rooms, the nature of laboratories, corridors, closets, water supply, school furniture, apparatus, and methods of cleaning, should be such as to insure hygienic conditions for students and teachers.

IX. Such schools should receive an annual income for maintenance and operation of not less than $50,000, of which not less than $25,000 should be derived from stable sources other than students' fees. Increase in faculty, student body, and scope of instruction above the minimum set in the foregoing paragraphs, should be accompanied by increase in operating income.

On motion this statement was ordered printed and distributed to the members of the Council, and the further consideration of the standards proposed was referred to the Executive Committee for later presentation to the Council.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON THE STATUS OF THE AMERICAN WOMAN TEACHER

ANNA LAURA FORCE, CHAIRMAN, DENVER PUBLIC SCHOOLS
DENVER, COLORADO

In this study of the American Woman Teacher the committee will consider preparation, professional status, economic status, and social status.

With regard to preparation we might claim that besides a mastery of facts which a teacher is required to impart she must have a knowledge of the

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principles of education common to all teaching in order to give it unity and make it effective. She should have a definite aim, a specific aim for each subject and a definite standard to be used in determining value of work of pupils.

The professional status is difficult to determine, yet a change is taking place rapidly in the cities and in many of the rural districts due to change in economic status. Where salaries have been increased and are commensurate with preparation and successful experience of teachers there has been a rapid professional growth.

One outstanding superintendent claims that a very fine teacher is being evolved through the process of scientific supervision and the growing interest of the teacher in the subjects that relate to her specific problems. Standards are gradually advancing.

Mature teachers have recognized danger evidenced by zeal in which they have sought opportunities provided by universities, normal schools, summer sessions, and extension courses.

As a school system increases in size its organization becomes more and more complicated. Mechanical elements tend to overshadow and even threaten to overwhelm the personal and human elements. Coöperation is increasingly necessary as the tasks within the schools become more specialized.

Until changes are brought about by people who live in the farming communities there is little hope for changing the status of rural teachers. Two thirds of the rural teachers are on the move. However, in the rural districts most fully developed the teacher is a pillar of strength, a person known and respected by all.

It has been said that "the modern teacher has brought vigor, daring directness and withal unmistakable braininess, fine practical ability into her work as teacher." Suffrage and war have emancipated her. She has gone to excess in some directions. Who has used new freedom with entire wisdom? She belongs to teachers' clubs, identifies herself more openly with her profession than sometimes her elder sister. This is done to her expanding outlook on life. The normal school and college welcome her. The modern teacher is young, breezy, even risqué in attire. She has scrapped hysteria but is sound at the core.

According to another student of this problem "an occupation must measure up to four requirements before it can be dignified by the title of a profession."

1. It should render high and specialized type of social service.
2. Personnel must have specialized and abundant training and be comparatively permanent.
3. It must provide sufficient income to enable its members to maintain a cultural standard of living.
4. Its members must be dominated by a professional spirit.

Insecure tenure makes a teacher become over-sensitive and she loses independence and courage.

Raising requirements will tend to make the teaching corps a more select group. More careful selection of entrants, those who are technically and abundantly prepared will dignify the profession. Salary increases based

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upon advanced training as well as length of service will tend to make tenure more permanent.

In many places professional ethics is wanting. Until professional ethics is developed there cannot be coöperation and loyalty. The teacher must understand the ethical relations and obligations to pupils, fellow teachers, parents, principals, supervisors and superintendents and also toward those actively interested in the development of the child.

Teachers who have a vocational pride, which is the essence of professional spirit, will receive a dignified and social position that must characterize a true profession. The social status is largely dependent upon the economic and professional status. One's attitude toward his own work is not so important as the attitude of the public. The public expects the professional teacher to have a social outlook and places upon her responsibility for community welfare not demanded of the tradesman or business men.

Another important phase of this subject is the attention given to the hygiene of teaching, to the teachers' health program. Normal schools and colleges are requiring a health program of teacher students that will greatly improve the hygiene of teaching. The health of the teacher must be taken into consideration even as much as that of the pupil.

A person who is habitually morbid and depressed cannot do his best in executing a fine piece of work that calls for thought and invention. He can work like a machine but he cannot create a thing of beauty or of meaning. No person can render his best service economically or socially to the community in which he lives unless his own life yields a reasonable amount of satisfaction and happiness.

The teacher who is happy in her work creates a wholesome atmosphere and her pupils reflect her sweet spirit. "The influence which she creates for better things, the inspiration which she gives for higher ideals are a chief contributing force to the stability of society and the march of progress."

CONCLUSIONS BASED ON QUESTIONNAIRE CONCERNING CERTAIN ASPECTS OF THE PROFESSIONAL AND SOCIAL STATUS OF AMERICAN WOMEN TEACHERS

A. L. THRELKELD, ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS
DENVER, COLORADO

These conclusions are based upon questionnaire returns from 24 cities of over 100,000 population. They are as follows:

1. About 25 per cent of the women teachers have fallen behind present standards of professional preparation.

2. Most of these teachers take wholesome attitudes toward the problem of meeting these standards and attempting to keep up with them.

3. The majority of the superintendents reporting believe that these teachers should be retained only if they take advantage of opportunities through extension courses, summer schools, leaves of absence for study, etc.

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4. A considerable number of women teachers, 17 per cent according to the questionnaire returns, do not take their work seriously.; but this aspect of the situation is considered to be an improvement over the conditions of ten years ago.

5. A decided majority give the highest efficiency rating to those women teachers who are not conscious of a marriage motive but who expect to give their lives to the work of the school teacher. The type ranking next is that of widows who have returned to the teaching profession with the intention of remaining in it. Ranking next in the order named are:

A. Married women who have husbands, children, or other relatives to support.

B. Married women who expect to remain in the profession for a long time but who do not have to support husbands, or other relatives.

C. Young women who hope or expect to terminate their teaching work by marriage in the course of a few years.

6. More than half of the women teachers are reported as taking part in the social life of the community to an extent equal to the part taken by any other group of cultured women.

7. The replies revealed a decided opinion that women's clubs do not have a tendency to bar the teacher because of her financial status.

8. Almost a unanimous opinion prevailed to the effect that the woman teacher is becoming more of a factor in the social life of the community.

THE STATUS OF THE CLASSROOM TEACHER

CORNELIA S. ADAIR, PRESIDENT, RICHMOND ELEMENTARY TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION, RICHMOND, VIRGINIA, CHAIRMAN

The consideration of the subject of the Status of the Classroom Teacher naturally divides itself into four parts: The legal, financial, educational, and social status. The latter was discussed in a paper published in the minutes of the Boston meeting and resolved itself into a statement that classroom teachers, like the rest of human kind, occupied either the social level to which they were born or that in which they placed themselves. I shall therefore confine my talk to the other three topics.

Legal status—The question arises at once "What is the legal status of a teacher?" The answer is that unless there is a form of tenure, she has little real legal status beyond the terms of her contract. Where the question of re-election has been carried to court, the decision has always been in favor of the educational authorities. (See People *ex rel.* Pursman *vs.* City of Chicago, 1917, 278 Ill.; People *ex rel.* Peixotto *vs.* Board of Education, 212 N. Y. 160 App. Div. 557, and Morse *vs.* Board of Education of San Diego, 1917.) Eight of the forty eight States have some form of tenure law. In many cities like Richmond the teachers have practical if not legal tenure, but it is the teacher in remote rural districts who needs tenure most.

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In a recent survey of one State it was discovered that 40 per cent of the elementary teachers were new to the community in which they were teaching. One high-school teacher in every three was in her position for the first year, and 50 per cent of the superintendents had occupied their positions for less than two years. This migration was probably both voluntary and involuntary. It is hard to enact a satisfactory statewide tenure law since it is difficult to convince all of the local school boards of its usefulness. The welfare of the children of the State is protected by encouraging successful teachers of experience to continue in the profession, and by early weeding out of the incompetent ones. The enactment of a sound tenure law is a step in accomplishing both of these ends.

Closely allied with tenure is teacher rating. In a recent study, William Maddock, of Stanford University, states that thirty-two cities of the United States make more or less use of teacher rating scales. He appends a bibliography of one hundred titles.[1] It is interesting to note that with one exception all are by other than classroom teachers. Probably he had no access to that material. He goes on to state: "Even a cursory reading of this literature shows clearly three things: First, that practical school men are persistent in their demand for a rating device; second, that methods for studying the subject have been increasingly scientific, and third, that the time is now ripe for a careful experimental study which should result in the formulation of a rating scheme to be formally adopted and used by the teachers of the country." . . . .

"Unless this scale is recognized by the better class of teachers as approximately fulfilling its purpose it will be of little real value." This end will be more easily obtained if the teachers themselves, through their advisory councils, have a share in the formulation of the scale.

The teacher-council idea is growing slowly but surely. There are now in existence more than fifty officially recognized Councils, while unofficial Councils exist wherever the administrative officer realizes that the views of his teachers are of vital importance to the school.

Financial status—1. Salaries. In comparison with former years, teachers in the larger cities are receiving fair salaries. (See table 9, page 15, Bulletin One, National Education Association Research Department.) In the smaller cities and rural communities salaries are still poor. The decrease in the cost of living that has taken place since 1920 has added to the value of these salaries, but recent reports show no decrease, so further aid from this source is not in the immediate future. Salary schedules are generally being maintained in the large and middle-sized cities, though sometimes at the expense of increasing the teacher load. Some ground is being lost in the smaller cities and rural communities due to the general economic conditions of the farmer. These conditions seem to be improving, which should help the latter situation.

2. Some form of the single salary schedule making training and experience, not grade in which teaching is done, the determining factor in salaries.

[1] National League of Teachers' Associations, Yearbook 1922-23, pp. 60-66.

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has been adopted in parts of seventeen States. The total number of cities where teachers receive equal pay for equal training and experience is thirty two.

3. Pensions. Hand in hand with legal tenure of office goes a teacher retirement system. The desirability of making proper provisions for the retirement of teachers has been recognized in thirty four of the States by the enactment of State teacher retirement laws. Some States that have statewide laws have also local retirement acts, independent of the State system. In some of the States which have no State retirement law there are local laws in effect.

4. Leave of absence with pay for professional study. In answer to a questionnaire sent out by the Salary Committee of the National Education Association, 10.4 per cent of the replying cities whose population was over 100,000, 5 per cent of those between 25,000 and 100,000 and 3.2 per cent of those under 25,000 replied that they allowed leave of absence for study.

There is great variation in the salary allowance given by these cities. Some allow as much as half salary for a full year, some give a small bonus for study that a little more than covers the expenses of tuition. The period for service before one can qualify for leave varies considerably. Those cities granting a substantial percentage of the regular salary during the year's leave of absence require all the way from seven to ten years' service before a teacher is entitled to leave with salary.

My own city, Richmond, has eleven teachers on leave of absence for study this winter. They receive half pay for half a year, which is sufficient to pay the expenses for the entire year at one of the State colleges.

5. Sick leave with salary allowance. Eighty nine per cent of all cities over 25,000 reporting and 72 per cent of the cities under 25,000 make such an allowance. There is a great variation among the cities of the country in granting sick leave, both as to number of days granted and the salary allowance made. It runs all the way from 200 days on half salary to five days on full salary.

Educational status—1. Qualifications. In the country as a whole, less than one half of the teachers are normal-school graduates. This condition is improving partly because increased salaries and increased training have been made dependent on each other, but more because of the changed attitude of the teacher toward her profession. This has been brought about largely through teachers' organizations, whose studies have opened up a wider vista to the classroom teacher. Wonderful reports of teacher-training in the service come from everywhere.

In Virginia last summer there were 6897 white teachers enrolled in the State summer schools and 675 in those out of the State.

There were also 1911 colored teachers in their State summer schools making a total of 9483 of our 15,000 teachers in summer school, or more than 60 per cent. In addition to summer work, 784 are enrolled in extension work.

Equally encouraging reports come from other localities. Georgia reports a 50 per cent increase in the enrolment in summer schools; Kentucky had

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60 per cent; New Hampshire, 25 per cent; North Carolina, 63 per cent; Oklahoma, 76 per cent; Pennsylvania, 63 per cent; Rhode Island, 60 per cent; West Virginia, 70 per cent of her teaching force in summer schools, and so on. Too much credit cannot be given to the teacher-training institutions who are so nobly struggling to prepare "a trained teacher for every child."

In conclusion I wish to acknowledge the assistance that has been given me in gathering this data by the National League of Teachers' Associations, Mr. John K. Norton, Miss Rachel Gregg, and Mr. Albert Hill.

THE STATUS OF THE WOMAN TEACHER IN RURAL DISTRICTS

MARY C. C. BRADFORD, SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION
DENVER, COLORADO

Sometimes I feel like saluting the woman teacher in the rural school as the apostle, prophet, and priest of civilization, and this, in spite of the fact that, far too often she is illy prepared for the heavy responsibility that must inevitably become hers.

In the rural schools, always with the exception of consolidated schools, and county high schools, which, under the technical interpretation of the term, are ranked as rural schools, the rural school teacher must exercise the functions of instructor, principal, supervisor, superintendent, and many times, adviser to the board in all matters concerning the purchase of textbooks and other equipment for the school. Also, in many districts, she must be the recognized committee leader organizing all recreational and civic activities.

For such a task, it would seem that a trained teacher must of necessity be chosen, if the best results are to be attained. Yet, on the contrary, it is the beginning teacher, generally speaking, who must assume these burdens, and the children in the rural districts are therefore experimented upon in many, many cases, by high-school graduates with no professional training whatever. This is unjust to the teacher, as well as to the children, the tax-paying public, and the school patrons.

In view of all the circumstances, it is astonishing that the untrained rural teacher does as well as she does, but, nevertheless, the situation is fundamentally wrong. To my thinking, the only way of guaranteeing the right of children living in the remote rural communities to as good a teacher as those provided for children in the cities, is to make the rural positions attractive to the experienced and professionally trained teacher, by paying higher salaries than are paid in the city schools. This would secure a teacher who knew something of supervision and leadership, as well as of instructional methods.

The beginning teacher should be placed in the city systems as a cadet, where she can be given her experience under skilled supervisory officers. Then, when scholarship has been attained, and professional ability demon-

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strated, she should be promoted to the position of rural school teacher, with a salary commensurate with the multiple function she is asked to discharge.

It is true that this is an entire reversal of our present system, and many claim that such a plan belongs only in an educational Utopia. Nevertheless, I believe the time is coming when an entire reorganization of the system of rural education will take place in the United States, and some such idea as I have outlined, will become a fact. Then the status of the woman rural school teacher will be that of an honored educator, economically independent, because economically recognized as an indispensable factor in the development of civilization.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON CHARACTER EDUCATION

MILTON BENNION, CHAIRMAN, UNIVERSITY OF UTAH
SALT LAKE CITY, UTAH

Our committee has been acting in the capacity of a clearing-house for materials from any available source that deal with any phase of our subject, character education. For the past year, however, our efforts have been centered on two aspects: "objectives" and "plans for teacher-training on character education."

First, on objectives of individual and group conduct, because a clear understanding of the direction of endeavor is a basal requirement of any plan of character education, or of anything else. In the determination of character education objectives we commend the noteworthy progress already made by the Boy Scout organization, the Committee on the Essentials of Democracy, the American School Citizenship League, various moral code writers, the authors of the Iowa Plan of Character Education Methods, and many others. Some of these are summarized by President Paul F. Voelker of Olivet College, Michigan, in his study FUNCTIONS OF IDEALS AND ATTITUDES IN SOCIAL EDUCATION, Columbia University Contributions to Education, Teachers College Series.

Dr. Yocum of this committee was to have presented summary of this part of the report. An unexpected change in his circumstances made it impossible for him to be here. He sent his report in full.

Second, on the preparation of teachers, because it is a well-known fact that the wisest program of educational reform may fail in practice if undertaken by incompetent teachers or teachers not especially trained and qualified for the particular task in hand.

It is true that the training of teachers in character education cannot go forward without a method of realizing objectives. Since, however, these methods are not imperfectly developed and in part experimental it seems best to try them out under the kind of control and expert leadership already provided in teacher-training institutions. There are, of course, some school systems equally well prepared to carry on systematic plans of character education.

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We suggest that the following be incorporated in the course of study for teacher-training institutions:

1. A study of the psychology and hygiene of childhood and adolescence, preferably following courses in general psychology, social psychology, and personal hygiene with some attention to mental hygiene.

2. A study of ethics with reference especially to the nature of society and civilization and the resulting moral obligations of the individual. It should aim to develop in the teacher, ideals, both personal and social, to create moral vision, moral imagination, and a keen sense of social justice; and should be applied in solving ethical problems as they occur in contemporary social life. This philosophy should be developed inductively by abundant practice in every-day situations within the training school and its community. This course must pre-suppose some knowledge of history and government, such as high-school students may acquire.

3. A study of character education methods based upon an analysis of character education objectives and their function in the control of individual and group conduct. These methods should take into consideration the influence of the emotions in determining conduct and the great importance of habit in character development.

This development may take the form of education for democracy, since character education in terms of better citizenship makes a strong appeal for public support.

4. "The planning of the course of study, and the organization of all school activities, with a view to their contributing most to the formation of personal and social habits in agreement with the objectives." Extra-curriculum activities should be studied for character education values with the same painstaking analysis that is given to study of the curriculum. The use of student organizations as means toward social education has met with remarkable success at Crawfordsville, Indiana. Superintendent Anna Willson will gladly furnish detailed information concerning these organizations and their accomplishments.

5. Practice in applying these principles should be provided. This practice with children may be found in the ordinary practice teaching of any subject in which character elements are emphasized (biography, history, literature, etc.) and also in supervision of extra classroom activities having to do with expressions of attitudes and ideals of conduct.

6. Somewhere during the training of teachers for character education work there should be provided what may be called "Conduct Clinics." These cases need not be confined to the so-called atypical behavior cases; any child is adequate material for such purposes. The essential idea is the provision for each member to present before the other persons being similarly trained, a case for intensive analysis and group-thinking. The case might be presented by an exhaustive but analytical summary of all pertinent facts regarding the child. This procedure is exactly analogous to the procedure in medicine and psychiatry, in which one member of the staff presents a case, and there follows a group discussion, and when well-directed, some excellent examples of group-thinking. This plan would require what in social work

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is called case-work, the essence of which is (a) the collection and summarization of all available data in a given case (*e. g.*, heredity, life history of the individual and his family, environment, results of mental and physical tests, etc.) in an attempt at diagnosis; and (b) the adequate record of progress and the nature and results of treatment. As applied to our problem, each teacher in training might be required during such training to make an extensive case-study of three or four pupils with whom she would be required to do practice teaching. This case-study would have the two features mentioned above—namely, a summary and appraisal of all diagnostic data, and a series of chronological notations with respect to pupil's reactions, development, progress, etc. The analogy is again a medical one. The application of this technique is well illustrated by the work of the Merrill-Palmer School at Detroit under Dr. Helen T. Woolley, and the work of Dr. William Healy of the Judge Baker Foundation, Boston Juvenile Court.

7. Experiments in various plans of self-government in schools, in industry, and in prisons seem to indicate that self-government schemes deserve further experimentation and study as hopeful methods of promoting individual and social betterment. Self-government plans lend themselves in a remarkable way to experimental control and observation.

This is but a phase of the general problem of the great significance of group ideals and group control, so well worked out in the Boy Scout, and the Camp Fire Girl organizations. The seeming good results obtained in these organizations has lead to establishment in England of clubs for older boys—clubs that aim to control the youth for better character through group ideals and activities. Teachers should have experience as leaders of such groups; and certainly teacher-training institutions should themselves develop in practice, plans of student participation in school community government. This may have beneficial influence in the students themselves in addition to qualifying them better to lead in such activities when they become responsible as teachers or principals.

8. Not only should school administrators charged with teacher-training coöperate with the family, the church, and civic and voluntary organizations engaged in character education, but they should also take into account influences in business, industry, and the professions that can be utilized toward realizing the objectives of character education.

Teachers should be trained in methods of active coöperation with all these agencies. The schools should not attempt to carry all the burden. They can, however, act as a coördinating agency in this coöperative undertaking.

9. The plan now inaugurated in various places—a plan providing for religious and moral instruction of children through their respective church agencies—calls for consideration of another phase of teacher-training. The success or the failure of this experiment evidently depends upon the qualifications of teachers for this difficult task. Experience thus far indicates that these teachers should have all the general scholarship and professional training required of public school teachers.

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Any further development of religious and moral instructions in the schools in coöperation with church agencies should not be interpreted as relieving public schools of their direct responsibility for character education.

THE POSSIBILITIES OF PART-TIME EDUCATION—ABSTRACT

ROBERT O. SMALL, STATE VOCATIONAL DIRECTOR, BOSTON, MASSACHUSETTS

Traditions weigh heavily in the educational scales. Consciously or unconsciously, from the time of the Grecian philosophers educational reasoning has run thus: "Manual work is debasing and slavish. Intellectual pursuits are ennobling. "Liberal" education is for the free man: labor is for the slave. Therefore, only the notably inferior classes should be educated for manual work; the remainder should be given purely intellectual training."

The local embarrassment occasioned us in Massachusetts by the name "Industrial School" is present-day evidence of the effect of this reasoning. For years in our Commonwealth that name has been associated with correctional and welfare institutions. Nearly every week I note in the press or on the platform, or in personal conversation, the association of this "correctional" or "welfare" idea with the industrial education afforded in our established vocational schools.

A predicament—Many of our youth pursue the academic courses of the traditional school and leaving school undertake to engage in manual work: work for which neither their education nor their experience has in any way prepared them. This unnecessary predicament comes from our exclusive and continued use of a leisure-class ideal of education as the basis for a democratic school system.

Originally all organized education was frankly planned for and pursued by the leisure class: a class relatively few in number for whom the others worked. With them a livelihood and enjoyment of life were only remotely related to a chance to labor and to secure effective preparation therefor. With the vast majority of our youth and in the occupations they seek to enter today a livelihood and enjoyment of life are inextricably bound together.

In theory most of us have discarded this leisure class ideal as a proper basis for our present-day educational programs, but we have gone only a short distance in the establishment of an effective practice upon any other basis. We talk of teaching children to live. We have established courses which enhance appreciation of the fine things and fine opportunities in life. Let us hold on to and improve upon them, but let us not fail to teach our children how to make a living.

The problem stated—The attempt to afford our youth an opportunity for industrial education under public direction and through established public schools stands as a most important educational movement during the last twenty years. Its importance is found particularly in the attempt thus made to re-enlist the realities of life as organized educational factors. The attempt

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was made through the schools because industry itself through its workshops had failed to provide proper industrial training for its young workers.

In Massachusetts 60 per cent of the youth 14-16 years of age, and probably 80 per cent of those 14-18, are out of school and at work. At what? How well prepared? Why? Why do they leave school to go to work so ill prepared? These questions interest us. There are many answers to them. As to answering one of them, "Why do they leave?" I have this conviction: poverty is a primary cause for children leaving school to go to work. Social workers say it is not a primary cause: that few leave because of economic necessity. It is not poverty in a degree amounting to absolute need for the things essential to maintenance of physical life. It is, however, poverty of the resources necessary today to gratify a legitimate desire of many parents and children: the desire to attain a new comfort level. This is the poverty which forces children out of school and into industry.

The desire cannot be readily gratified if they remain in school. They are little skilled in abstract reasoning, and do not consider well the possibility of deferred dividends. Thinking and living in the present tense they choose between the relatively certain and immediate attainment of a new comfort level and the deferred possibility of greater attainment after long-time training at school. They choose that which satisfies their immediate desire and aim: they forego training for immediate earnings. And with those earnings they try to order their living "even as you and I": from the Ford up. Probably they make a wrong choice: but are they entirely to blame? How can we help them to choose more wisely? This then is our problem.

Certain established agencies—In our discussion of the problem and quest for a solution it is helpful to consider briefly the different types of educational organizations resorted to in the last forty years to afford training for profitable employment in industrial pursuits.

1. From 1880-1905 manual training was resorted to. It has long since been given up as a system promising specific vocational results. It is accepted, however, as a system with great potential prevocational value.

2. In the decade 1905-1915 full-time day trade schools (private and public) were particularly resorted to as the solution: and we shall continue to establish them.

Such schools have and are performing a most valuable service for those pupils who will come to them and stay to take the training offered therein. I decry any tendency to disparage their worth because of the relatively small number of schools established, the restricted range of trades trained for, and the relatively few pupils reached. Too meagre surely: but too good to disparage. I cannot commend them too highly in most of the work they are doing. But the undeniable fact remains that relatively few pupils can attend these schools, and too few of these who attend can stay to come from them as trained graduates: almost a negligible quantity when compared with our juvenile population in employment. They alone cannot solve the problem for all our employed youths. They will find their greatest future development in other directions than that originally expected. While they continue to give special attention to those who can forego earning to stay for training, I

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believe that they will eventually be turned to as the agency to help develop a new kind of apprenticeship, an apprenticeship for a selected group of skilled trades: instead of replacing apprenticeship these schools will supplement it.

3. Since 1870, and particularly during the last fifteen years, many business concerns have created special corporation schools for training their own apprentices. Lately these schools have taken a decided trend toward training at the job itself.

These corporation schools are excellent within their particular scope. They are not practicable for a small business. They rarely admit pupils under sixteen years of age, and they can admit only a favored few. Their policy necessarily is shaped by the employers: their primary purpose is profit for the corporation.

As potential citizens, our minors' needs are greater than can be satisfied by the business exigencies of any number of single plants. Corporation schools have a real place and they serve well in that place, but they cannot reach and train all the children of all the people for worthy citizenship and profitable employment.

4. Evening schools for those already employed have been carried on for a long time. They find their chief strength in cities of over 50,000. The young students working by day are generally too tired to pursue evening instruction with profit.

The situation defined—What is the situation of our youth today relative to prospective employment? In what employments are they engaged? Dr. Paul H. Douglas has portrayed this most vividly. Let us consider modern industry as a five-story building in which there few or no inside stairways or elevators. Quite uniformly all means of access to the upper stories is on the outside of and precariously far removed from the structure. Let us consider that the unskilled workers find employment on the lowest floor; the semi-skilled on the next floor; the skilled workers on the third floor; the clerical and accounting forces on the fourth floor; and the highly trained executives and staff of skilled engineers on the top floor.

Anyone may enter the ranks of the unskilled workers by walking in on the ground floor: no stairs are needed. Only he who can secure support while he is outside learning may essay to reach the upper floors, to climb the outside staircases, or ride up on the outside elevators. Quite uniformly there is little or no access up through the industrial structure itself to the upper floors.

Can you conceive a less democratic scheme for recruiting our young workers to skilled industries? Each of the groups and grades of workers is recruited exclusively from a particular class: each class a little more advanced and financially better situated than the other. This is the identical organization which produced class stratification in Germany; it is producing class stratification here. It is an organizing of our human resources with dangerous disregard for equality of opportunity. Some agency should have as its special function the equalizing of opportunity, the adjusting of our human resources to meet our human needs. It is in part the function which apprenticeship performed for those it reached in its early days.

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Apprenticeship—Apprenticeship, as old as civilization, is basically a process of learning by doing. By it during the early personal contact stages, entrance was gained to all occupations including the professions. Trades, crafts, and professions developed beyond the early personal contact stage. It was thought that apprenticeship could be improved upon. General principles involved in the professions and trades were abstracted, and instead of apprenticing the youth in doing, he was given instruction in these principles. A knowledge of the science involved was depended upon to supply that which the art of doing had given.

But mere knowledge of the science did not supply mastery of the job: it could not supply it. In industrial pursuits the real working content of the trade can be taught most effectively by, and in connection with, the practice of the trade itself.

Apprenticeship was also designed to function as a preparation for citizenship and life as well as for the practice of a trade. Apprenticeship was established for the general good of society as well as to afford occupational training for the individual.

The decline of apprenticeship: division of labor—The industrial revolution manifesting itself directly by greatly increased division of labor and the consequent multiplicity of different jobs was the cause of the decline of apprenticeship. The division of labor and the splitting of trades into many jobs is the logical outgrowth of a machine era, which destroyed apprentice trade training and also divested apprenticeship proper of its civic educational features. It is destroying our fund of work habits and doing little to replenish it. The machine era adds children to industry because of the value of their immediate labor, and considers little or not at all their potential productive citizenship. The industrial organization based on this division of labor is today the factor which confronts and baffles anyone attempting to devise and administer any scheme for industrial education: especially schemes for the training of girls.

The dissipation of skill: in the machine era—Under present industrial organization with trades split into many jobs, all-round skilled workmen are not demanded in the proportions formerly found necessary: there is therefore a much decreased opportunity for a young worker to exercise general skill should he acquire it. Because of the multiplicity of jobs and the machine tools used on these jobs the mastery of all the machines within any given trade by one individual becomes not only unnecessary but well-nigh impossible. In practically all highly developed machine operations relatively untrained workers are said to be as competent as trained workers.

The amount of skill needed by the worker varies from industry to industry: from plant to plant: from locality to locality. There is nothing approaching a standard requirement to train for.

The concentration of skill: in the machine era—A large number of highly trained and competent engineers are needed in the drafting room today; much of the skill once spread among the mass of workers is now concentrated here. Some concerns actually employ more individuals in their administrative and executive positions than workmen in their shops. Great

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skill is required in machine repairing. In order to possess the knowledge and skill necessary to repair one part of a machine the repairman must know all the parts. The repairman in a modern plant must possess more all-round skill than was ever required of the old producing craftsman.

The patent facts—(1) It is wasteful and unnecessary to try to equip all our youth with trade education which they do not need and cannot utilize. (2) We must solve our problem of affording adequate training to our young workers by meeting and not by ignoring the factors involved in modern large scale production by means of specialized labor. (3) We cannot look forward to a passing of the machine era: it with its consequent organization of industry, is here to stay. (4) In view of these conclusions we must not jump to the opposite extreme and conclude that the modern worker needs no trade education. (5) The juvenile worker of today needs education more than ever before; but in nature it should be far different from that which the old apprentice boy required. It should be both a broader and a narrower education: broader in that it should include more training in industrial life, hygiene, and safety: narrower in that it should not include as large a proportion of training in specific trade processes. (6) Finally these youths cannot all forego earnings to acquire this education before they enter employment; if they could it would be impossible for any all-day school system to afford them all the varied and diversified industrial training they all need; if indeed such a program of full-time work were possible pedigogically it would not be the most profitable program to undertake.

Re-establishment of apprenticeship—Since universal apprenticeship in the skilled trades functioned effectively in its day, a revival of compulsory apprenticeship has been suggested as a solution to this problem of training our youth for employment. Why not do it through re-establishment of a comprehensive system of apprenticeship?

Wisconsin has made a remarkable contribution in this direction. Wisconsin's recrudescence of apprenticeship shows unmistakable signs of growth. It is compulsory. The indenture agreements are filed with a State Board of Supervision. In the indenture a definite time for instruction is stated, regulation of hours and wages is provided for. Specification of the particular processes and the time for instruction therein are included in these indenture agreements. Supervision by public authorities who mediate differences is required by the law.

The actual functioning of the law appears to be limited to certain highly skilled trades. In the nature of the case this must be so. It does not readily appear how it can apply to so-called trades which are in fact little more than an aggregation of occupations.

To the extent that the old apprenticeship in certain highly skilled trades failed because of faulty organization, re-establishment of indentured apprenticeship with such restrictions as are imposed by the Wisconsin law points the way. Such re-establishment does not offer hope, however, in the extent that the old apprenticeship failed either because of the advent of the machine era or because of certain business and social considerations.

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In the operation of any apprentice law these and other considerations have great weight. Apprentices are immediately unprofitable to the employers because good apprentices desire to learn as much as possible in a given time: the employers aim to produce as much and as cheaply as possible in that same time. When an employer has trained apprentices there is no guarantee that the corporation which trains them will enjoy their services. Since this is the only opportunity the corporation has to recoup on the expense thereby sustained, employers hesitate: they wait for their competitors to do the training. The common attitude of corporations is this: "Let Jones train them; then I will hire them."

Workmen really dislike apprenticeship systems; they are suspicious and jealous of the apprentices. They really withhold information and help through real or fancied danger of undermining their own jobs. Parents favor apprenticeship very little because of the juvenile character and long duration of the initial stages of employment and the immediate loss of full wages. The boys dislike apprenticeship because of the small initial wage, a desire for independence, and most of all because of their liking for clean-collar jobs rather than those in overalls.

Few of our youth may profitably be specifically trained as apprentices in the whole of relatively few trades. The majority of our youth should probably be trained as inter-changeable parts in the industrial scheme: trained for elasticity of adjustment. If it is to be effective the agency that undertakes this scheme of training must itself be an elastic one, comprehensive in its scope and range. It must automatically reach all employed youth at the earliest stages of their employment, and it must constantly be engaged in training individuals to meet adjusted conditions.

The educational agency which in any way gives potential promise of being able to perform this varied service is the part-time school. Responsilibity for apprenticeship can well form an integral part of the program of the part-time school. That school should function for all youth who leave the full-time school to enter employment, it should follow them from the full-time school into employment, evaluate their needs, capacities and attainments, and then coöperate with industry in affording them effective training.

Part-time schools—In recent years an active interest in State-controlled and directed part-time education has had new expression in the re-establishment of compulsory apprenticeship and in the establishment of two types of part-time schools sometimes independent of the apprentice system and at others included with it: the voluntary part-time (coöperative) day school and the compulsory part-time day school (continuation school).

The typical coöperative school provides for its pupils' alternation between theory and practice by giving school training and shop experience in equal periods of time to equal groups of pupils. Attendance is voluntary. Both shop work and class work are supervised. The school finds employment for the boys in the coöperating industry, often in large plants and dominant industries.

The typical continuation school assembles young workers 14-16-18 years of age in school for a few hours each week: four hours of school attendance is

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at present the requirement in Massachusetts. The boys or girls enrolled therein have left the traditional school and entered employment. Attendance at these schools is compulsory. The pupils are visited by the instructors at their employment but their shop work is not supervised or directed by them. The school work may or may not be correlated with the pupils' employment.

The solution—Through apprenticeship, coöperative schools, and continuation schools, part-time schooling has given tangible evidence of the procedure we should adopt if we are to solve our problem: the problem of training all our youth for employment. In these and other types of part-time schools it is entirely possible for pupils unable to remain full-time in school to continue their general education: to secure trade training for placement in industry; and to pursue courses dealing with the theory and practice of the occupations in which they are already engaged.

It is possible for types of part-time schools to reach and help those employed in the smallest plants. In them can be found an opportunity for industrial training, dependent neither upon the pecuniary profitableness to the individual employer nor the ability of the pupil to entirely forego earnings: an opportunity for large numbers of the abler members of the lower economic classes to rise to the top in industry. Through them the youth may earn while learning; may have an equal opportunity to fit and to try for the better positions. Through them will be found those inside stairways for employed minors which lead to the upper floors of the industry, stairways which, because of economic necessity, are unavailable for them when supplied only by a full-time school. It is a program of educating our youth based upon sound democratic principles, a scheme which will go far toward preventing class stratification, a plan which will operate to build up rather than deplete our stock of work habits.

An organized effort for the uniting of the realties of life with our educational programs so that the abrupt break between school and employment may be abolished, affords almost as convincing an argument for all forms of education and for all groups of our youth as for the type and the group to which I have thus far restricted the argument. The school, the college, the university should function not only in training the individual members of its student body, but in helping those trained to adjust themselves to worthy employment. In the process of securing an education all the members of a democracy could profit by this type of service.

A part of the program of part-time education can concern itself admirably with vocational advisement. In the part-time school both the advisers and the " advisees " find themselves on a profitable apperceptive basis, from which those in one group may be directed into the occupations in which they can find the greatest efficiency and happiness; and those in the other group can help determine the positions for which our youth are best fitted and the positions best fitted for our youth, who annually leave our schools for employment: willing and anxious to work, sometimes highly trained. These healthy, husky, intelligent youth tramp from office to office begging for a chance.

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Any rationally organized educational system should require that those leaving any unit of the system, able and willing to work, be helped to a chance to do so; those who desire preliminary training on full-time for specific employment as an alternative to leaving school for employment should be given that training. Those who leave without training, and later find its need, should be given some measure of specific help either in preparation for or supplementary to that employment.

A program—The most successful programs of part-time education will be those which supplement a prolonged and thorough preliminary training of the child. In order to give functional part-time training most effectively, the part-time school should deal with mature, rather than immature youth. At some future date we should perhaps look forward to a uniform compulsory full-time school attendance requirement for most of our youth up to sixteen years of age. This requirement can be defended and the departure wisely taken only when the full-time schools are ready to undertake and are equipped to afford profitable full-time training to all of the pupils retained therein. At present for our youth between 14 and 16 years of age who seek employment I believe in the four hours per week part-time school program. This should be increased at an early advisable time to a half-time compulsory school program for this group. The next step beyond that should be a four-hours-a-week compulsory program for employed youth 16-18. All of these compulsory steps should be supplemented by voluntary part-time coöperative school and a publicly controlled apprenticeship system in certain highly skilled trades. And, of course, for the group that desires and can remain to pursue the courses, full-time schools of varied types should afford the opportunity.

Beyond this setting for our grammar and high-school stages, for those who desire to avail themselves of it, a part-time opportunity, parallel in essential content, if not in scope to their full-time programs, should be organized in colleges and schools for advanced study. The University of Cincinnati, Antioch College, the Institute of Technology, Northeastern College, and many other excellent institutions have already commenced to plot the way.

Business should be willing to join in this program for the education of our youth and their adjustment into participation in the world's work. Business concerns write off annually, large amount for replacement of their machinery. Only with their "human resources" does business pursue a policy of using up rather than recreating. Through coöperation with established school authorities in programs of part-time education business can profitably apply to their human resources the principle long in effect with their material resources.

OPEN FORUM ON PART-TIME EDUCATION

An open forum on Part-Time Education, under the direction of the Committee on Vocational Education in the National Council of Education, was held in Private Dining Room No. 4, Mezzanine Floor, Statler Hotel, Thursday, March 1, at 4:00 P. M.

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J. G. Collicott, superintendent of schools in Columbus, Ohio, and a member of the Committee on Vocational Education, presided, and at his request Robert O. Small, State director of vocational education of Massachusetts, presented certain problems for discussion as follows:

1. Industry claims that it is at present able to adjust young workers to their particular needs if the schools will only attend to their general education and send them to business well-trained as to obedience, punctuality and the like, and therefore does not need the help of the schools.

2. It is impossible for business to adjust its program to any part-time scheme. Juvenile labor is that of the helper. To let the juvenile go means to stop the labor of the adult.

3. Four hours is too short a time. Nothing of value can be undertaken or accomplished in four hours.

4. There is little or no evidence that part-time education is a practical thing. All of the evidence pointed to is specific, and its success is explained by particular conditions very far from those of ordinary business.

The first problem presented led to responses from a number of the directors and from one or two actively engaged in industry on the efficiency of the part-time extension classes in which the young people are trained for specific work in industry and a number of instances were cited in which it was shown that the school, better than industry as it is generally organized, can adjust young workers to their particular needs and therefore industry does need the help of the schools over and above the general education they are providing.

In regard to the second problem, it was clearly shown by representatives from several States that business can adjust its program to a part-time scheme and that shifts of young workers can be so arranged that the absence of the juvenile in attendance at a part-time school does not in any sense stop the labor of the adult. In other words, industrial concerns can be so organized that groups of young workers may be off during the working hours for four hours a week, and the output not affected by this situation.

The objection to part-time education on the basis of the limited number of hours and therefore the impossibility of being able to accomplish anything educational in that length of time, had been met in different communities by calling attention to the evening schools, which were supported and approved, and showing that the length of time given to evening school work was only four hours a week and if one was accepted as organized on a time basis within which valuable things could be accomplished, the other should be dealt with likewise.

In States and localities where the compulsory part-time law has been in operation long enough for results in a large number of cases to be studies, reports showed that under conditions not remote from those ordinarily found in the business world, the program had functioned in a most practical way to the success of the individuals and the betterment of the industry.

There was some discussion of legislation and the consensus of opinion was that laws for dealing with compulsory part-time education should be enforced gradually. A number of those present favored a permissive

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mandatory law first, followed by a compulsory part-time law later, but there were others who felt that time was wasted by a permissive mandatory law and the compulsory part-time law should be first enacted but with provisions for its gradual enforcement. It was also emphasized that the age limits of the compulsory part-time law should harmonize with the child labor laws and the juvenile court laws.

The time for the open forum was limited to one hour because the room was available only for that length of time, but it was well attended and enthusiasm and interest in the discussion kept up through the entire session. It was expressed from different angles and at different times during the forum that the teacher is the large factor in the part-time school and its success depends largely upon her faith in this type of organization and the zeal with which she carries out her program.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON HEALTH PROBLEMS IN EDUCATION

THOMAS D. WOOD, CHAIRMAN, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY, NEW YORK CITY

The Committee on Health Problems was appointed in 1911 as a committee of the National Council of Education. This committee with its enlarged program was officially adopted in 1921 by the National Education Association. Our committee with affection and devotion continues its allegiance to the National Council as the grandparent of the idea and program with which our committee is identified.

The health committee continues its work with the continued cordial and effective coöperation of the Corresponding Committee on Health Problems in Education of the American Medical Association. The wide-spread interest in the work and bulletins of the health committee is well sustained. The expression of the interest comes not only from the schools and educational officials but also from a wide range of other health and welfare agencies in this and other countries. The reports and bulletins of our health committee include the following:

1. Country Schoolhouses, by Dresslar (now out of print).

2. Minimum Health Requirements for Rural Schools, of which more than 800,000 copies have been sent out. The third edition is now being distributed.

3. Health Essentials for Rural School Children. Over 50,000 copies of this have been sent out.

4. Health Charts. Over 60,000 copies of full sized health charts have been distributed.

5. Illustrated Health Chart Report. More than 10,000 of these reports have been used.

6. The Teachers Part in Social Hygiene was issued in 1921 with the coöperation of the American Social Hygiene Association. This is the only

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report of the committee that can still be supplied free of cost. A limited supply of this report is still available.

7. Health Improvement in Rural Schools was issued in the summer of 1922. This bulletin completes for the time being the special program of the committee dealing with the health problems of rural schools.

8. Health Service in City Schools of the United States was also issued in the summer of 1922. This report has also met with a very cordial reception, showing already that the service of our committee in relation to urban schools is as much appreciated as the earlier response to our program in behalf of the health of rural schools.

The above-mentioned bulletins and the health chart reports are being sold by the committee at the bare cost of printing.

The charts and bulletins may be inspected and obtained at Booth 128 in the Educational Exhibit at the Public Auditorium during this week's meeting of the National Department of Superintendence.

Our joint committee of the National Education Association and the American Medical Association is giving all possible encouragement to the organization in the various States of coöperating committees on health problems in the schools of the State teachers' associations and the State medical societies.

Organization and active maintenance of joint committees of this type in all of the States seems of great importance and practical usefulness in making most widely effective the measures for promoting various phases of school health which our joint committee is attempting to inaugurate and advance on a National scale.

While our joint health committee of the National organizations of teachers and physicians can propose material and secure data of great value, and can recommend measures which would secure better health conditions in the public and other schools of the country, it is obvious that if such measures are to be generally adopted and put into practice it must be through the efforts of many groups dealing with these activities in the several States and communities. Our committee will find one of its most effective fields of usefulness in serving as a medium of inter-communication and coördination of these several State committees.

The coöperating medical group of our committee has initiated the custom of holding an annual conference at the time of the meeting of the American Medical Association, of the members of the committees of the several State medical societies. Our committee recommends that a similar plan be instituted for the Committee of the State Teachers' Associations and that our committee be authorized to arrange for such a conference at each annual meeting of the National Education Association. The interchange of information regarding progress in the several States in solving the health problems in education, together with the opportunity for discussion and suggestion which a conference would afford, could not fail to be helpful in promoting this great movement.

Our joint committee is launched upon the most important, difficult and extensive project of its career of twelve years. This is the preparation of

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a program of health education for public schools and teacher training institutions. This plan was proposed by our committee at its annual meeting in Chicago in February, 1922, and was officially approved and authorized by the National Education Association, in July, 1922. Since that time an advisory technical committee of twenty seven members has been appointed, composed of educators, physicians, psychologists, dentists, nutrition experts, physical educators, and specialists in the field of biology and public health. This advisory committee includes the following members: Frederick G. Bonser, Department of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City; Julia Wade Abbot, Specialist in Kindergarten Education, U. S. Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C.; Helen S. Watson, Assistant Superintendent, Los Angeles City Schools, Los Angeles, California; Alexander Inglis, Department of Secondary Education, Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts; H. H. Ryan, Principal, Blewett Junior High School, St. Louis, Missouri; Lucy L. W. Wilson, Principal, South Philadephia High School for Girls, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania; John W. Withers, Dean of School of Education, New York University, New York City; Ambrose L. Suhrie, Dean of Cleveland School of Education, Cleveland, Ohio; George H. Black, President of Washington State Normal School, Ellensburg, Washington; Dr. W. S. Rankin, State Health Officer, State Board of Health, Raleigh, North Carolina; Walter B. Cannon, Department of Physiology, Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts; Dr. Haven Emerson, Professor of Public Health Administration, College of Physicians and Surgeons, Columbia University, New York City; Mrs. Leta S. Hollingworth, Associate Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City; Bird T. Baldwin, Director, Iowa Child Welfare Research Station, University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa; E. A. Kirkpatrick, Fitchburg Normal School, Fitchburg, Massachusetts; Arthur Davenport Black, Dean, Northwestern University Dental School, Chicago, Illinois; Dr. Max Giesecke, care of The Smedley Dental Group, California Bldg., Denver, Colorado; Dr. Harvey J. Burkhart, Director, Rochester Dental Dispensary, Rochester New York; Edna N. White, Director, Merrill-Palmer School, Detroit, Michigan; Anna E. Richardson, Chief, Home Economics Education Service, Federal Board for Vocational Education, Washington, D. C.; Mary Schwartz Rose, Associate Professor of Household Arts, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City; Ruth V. Atkinson, Instructor in Physical Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City; Dr. Laurence S. Hill, Director of Physical Education, Albany City Schools, Albany, New York; Dr. William Burdick, State Supervisor of Physical Education, Baltimore, Maryland; Emma Dolfinger Associate Director, Child Health Organization of America, 370 Seventh Avenue, New York City; Dr. George T. Palmer, Epidemiologist, Department of Health, Detroit, Michigan; and Dr. E. P. Lyon, Dean, Medical School, University of Minnesota Minneapolis, Minnesota.

The present wave of intense interest in health work in schools, accompanied by unprecedented stimulation of interest in health education by voluntary organizations outside the schools, and by contribution to the

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schools of a fascinating and confusing mass of materials and devices for health teaching from many outside sources, greatly increases the desirability and the urgent necessity that the educational forces within the schools shall study, interpret and coördinate the material and methods in the field of health education so that the schools of the country may be supplied with an educationally sound program of health teaching and training.

In this new project the joint health committee has undertaken a task of National scope and of pressing importance in the program of public education. The joint committee with the aid of the technical committee now at work seems peculiarly situated and constituted, to attempt under distinctively favorable conditions, this pressing educational task.

The program adopted by this committee provides for sub-committees to grade the material for the kindergartens, elementary schools, high schools, and also for normal schools and other teacher-training institutions. Other sub-committees will judge and help organize subject matter from the various health fields. This program, if fully carried out, will involve the work of several years, and a series of reports.

The preliminary report is planned to present to teachers in service and in training, a statement of aims and principles in health instruction with suggested materials and methods to be used in the different grades, and in different types of schools.

It is hoped that the preliminary report may be completed and printed within a year.

The National Education Association with admirable appreciation of the amount of work required in the beginning of this new program, at Boston in July, 1922, made a special appropriation sufficient to start this work. If the plan is to be carried on to a reasonably satisfactory completion, additional appropriation beyond the usual budget of the health committee will be needed for several years.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES—SAN FRANCISCO MEETING

OFFICERS

President—Joseph M. Gwinn, Superintendent of City Schools.....San Francisco, Calif
Vice-President—*Ada Van Stone Harris, Director Elementary School Instruction, Pittsburgh, Pa.
Secretary—Adelaide Steele Baylor, Chief, Home Economics Education Service,
Federal Board for Vocational Education.....Washington, D. C.

FIRST SESSION—MONDAY AFTERNOON, JULY 2, 1923

The meeting was called to order by the President at 2:15 P. M., in the First Congregational Church. After a few preliminary announcements, the President briefly addressed the Council on "Continuity of Education in Its Relation to Citizenship."

Thomas E. Finegan, formerly State superintendent of public instruction, Harrisburg, Pennsylvania, gave a résumé of "Recent Progress in Education."

* Deceased.

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"How the Research Division of the National Education Association may Serve the National Council" was presented by John K. Norton, director of research, National Education Association, Washington, D. C.

John Adams, professor of education, University of London, London, England, gave an address on "Suspended Animation in English Education."

SECOND SESSION—TUESDAY AFTERNOON, JULY 3, 1923

The meeting was called to order at 2:15 P. M. by the President, in the First Congregational Church. The Final Report of the Committee on Rural Education was submitted by the chairman, John F. Sims, president, State Normal School, Stevens Point, Wisconsin. On motion this report was adopted by the Council. The Council then went into joint session with the Department of Vocational Education and Practical Arts for the report of the Committee on Vocational Education and an open forum on Part-Time Education.

Adelaide S. Baylor, acting chairman of the Committee on Vocational Education, gave a brief statement of the work of the committee to date.

Henry Lester Smith, dean of the School of Education, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana, conducted the open forum, in which D. O. Brillhart, acting director of Part-Time Education, Oakland, California, spoke on "Objectives of Part-Time Education for Boys" and Maud I. Murchie, State supervisor of home economics, Sacramento, California, spoke on "Objectives of Part-Time Education for Girls."

Mrs. Susan M. Dorsey, superintendent of schools, Los Angeles, California, described the "Objectives of Part-Time Education as set up in Los Angeles."

The following participated in the general discussion:

W. G. Hummel, State vocational director, Olympia, Washington; B. W. Johnson, teacher trainer for Trade and Industry, University of California; H. A. Campion, director Part-Time Education, Stockton, California; Arthur D. Dean, University of California; and Charles de Garmo, Cocoanut Grove, Florida.

THIRD SESSION—THURSDAY AFTERNOON, JULY 5, 1923

The meeting was called to order by the President at 2:15 P. M., in the First Congregational Church. At the request of the Secretary, who was called to attend another meeting, Linnaeus P. Hines, president, State Normal School, Terre Haute, Indiana, acted as Secretary for the session.

Arthur H. Chamberlain, secretary, California State Teachers Association, spoke on "Applying the Principles of Thrift in the Course of Study."

In the general discussion of this topic, the following participated:

Anne McMeekin, City Schools, Berkeley, California; Mrs. Sue L. Fratis, Oakland, California; S. Agnes Donham, dean of Women's Division of the National Association of Mutual Savings Banks, Boston, Massachusetts; and L. E. Wolfe, San Antonio, Texas.

The Committee on Visual Education then presented the following program:

Visual Education—Linnaeus N. Hines, president, State Normal School, Terre Haute, Indiana, and Chairman of the Committee; Visual Education in Community Center Work—Mrs. Susan M. Dorsey, superintendent of schools, Los Angeles, California; The Child and the Commercial Moving Picture—Olive M. Jones, principal of School No. 120, New York City; Typical Visual Aids and How to Handle Them—Ernest L. Crandall, director of lectures, Public Schools, New York City; Mrs. Josephine Corliss Preston, State superintendent of public instruction, Olympia, Washington, who led in the discussion that followed.

FOURTH SESSION—FRIDAY AFTERNOON, JULY 6, 1923

The meeting was called to order by the President at 2:15 P. M., in the First Congregational Church. The report of the Committee on Character Education was made by Milton Bennion, dean of education, University of Utah, Salt Lake City, Utah, and Chairman of the Committee. L. E. Wolfe, San Antonio, Texas, and Joseph

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Swain, Swarthmore, Pennsylvania, were among those who took part in the discussion of this report.

Anna Laura Force, principal, Lincoln School, Denver, Colorado, and Chairman of the Committee on the Status of the American Woman Teacher, reported for her committee and introduced speakers with topics as follows: "Woman's Personality in Teaching," by A. E. Winship, Editor, *Journal of Education*, Boston, Massachusetts; "Supervision by the Principal," Jessie M. Hamilton, principal, Morey Junior High School, Denver, Colorado; "Attitude of Teacher Toward Supervision," Jesse H. Newlon, superintendent of city schools, Denver, Colorado; "The Improvement of Supervision and Teaching," Mrs. Susan M. Dorsey, superintendent of city schools, Los Angeles, California; and "The Rating of Teachers," Effie MacGregor, Minneapolis, Minnesota.

At the close of the meeting, the report of the Committee on Membership and Election of Officers was made as follows:

Membership—A. Class of 1917 with terms expiring in 1923, re-elected with terms expiring in 1929: Joseph Swain, Swarthmore, Pa.; Mrs. Susan M. Dorsey, superintendent of schools, Los Angeles, California; E. E. Bass, superintendent of schools, Greenville, Mississippi; Frederick E. Farrington, Chevy Chase School, Washington, D. C.; G. W. A. Luckey, U. S. Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C.; George L. Towne, editor, *The Nebraska Teacher*, Lincoln, Nebraska; Thomas W. Palmer, Montevallo, Alabama; T. E. Johnson, State superintendent of public instruction, Lansing, Michigan; and J. A. C. Chandler, president, William and Mary College, Williamsburg, Virginia.

B. To supply vacancies caused by death: Wil Lou Gray, Columbia, South Carolina, with term expiring in 1929, to succeed Ada Van Stone Harris; and Lida L. Tall, Towson, Maryland, with term expiring in 1924, to succeed Mrs. Grace Strachan Forsyth.

Officers—Vice-president, to succeed Ada Van Stone Harris, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, Lester H. Smith, Bloomington, Indiana, with term expiring in 1925.

Secretary, to succeed herself, Adelaide Steele Baylor, Washington, D. C., with term expiring in 1926.

Although the above report was unanimously endorsed by those present, it was thought best by the President, because of the small representation of the Council in the audience when the report was made, to request further endorsement at the mid-winter meeting. Adjourned.

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WALTER R. SIDERS, *Chairman of the Board of Trustees, National Education Association*.....Pocatello, Idaho.
JOY ELMER MORGAN, *Manager of Publications, National Education Association*.....Washington, D. C.
PAYSON SMITH, *State Commissioner of Education for Massachusetts and President of the Department of Superintendence*.....Boston, Mass.

THE CONTINUITY OF EDUCATION IN ITS RELATION TO EDUCATION FOR CITIZENSHIP

J. M. GWINN, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, SAN FRANCISCO, CALIFORNIA

It is a far call from that citizenship into which one comes by virtue of his birth in this country to that citizenship that is essential to the realization of those ends both for the individual and the State for which this government was established to perfect the Union, establish justice, insure domestic tranquility, provide for the common defense, promote the general welfare and secure the blessings of liberty. The one is a citizenship of political rights, the other is a citizenship of trained abilities, of achievements, of established ideals and motives for action and modes of conduct. The first is like the embryo oak in the acorn; the other, the great oak rooted deep in mother earth and serving well all the purposes of an oak tree.

What comes in between the cradle and the ballot to transform this embryo citizen into the full-fledged citizen? Chiefly, the home with all its great opportunities during these earlier years and through all these years. Then there is the church with its impressive sanctions and appeal to the emotions

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and to the religious instincts of those early years. Of great importance are the associates of the child and youth met with outside the home and church. Later books, magazines, and newspapers all work their influences into the life of developing citizen. Finally there is the school with its program of education fashioned especially to make good citizens.

Representing the school and school education, I am authorized to say that the school accepts its full responsibility for the school education and training for citizenship; but I desire to call attention to the fact that these other institutions and influences have charge of the child on an average of twenty-three hours out of each day during the period from birth to manhood, leaving the school but one of the hours out of each day, or if you deduct the sleeping hours, the school has charge of the child only one sixteenth of his time during these years. When some young people turn out badly there are some who are ready to cry that the school has failed. Unless these other institutions and influences do their work well it can hardly be expected that the school, having charge for so small a part of these years, can always secure the desired results. The school accepts its share of the responsibility and those other citizenship-making institutions and influences must accept theirs—a much larger share than can be placed on the school.

Citizenship consists for the most part of certain habitual ways of looking at things and ways of responding to situations and stimuli. Information is, of course, necessary, but a knowledge of all the facts avails nothing without the response in modes of thought and action. There is a certain mental prejudice or mind-set which might be termed American mindedness that is essential to proper citizenship in this country. The formation of these citizenship habits is subject to the same laws of habit formation as are other habits. Conditions are most favorable when the end is clear and greatly desired and the repetitions required to reach the goal of achievement are performed under uniform conditions and uninterruptedly. The lack of uniformity of ideals and practices among the citizen-making agencies—the home, the church, the school, the press, leisure, and vocation—give foundation for the change that nowhere are less satisfactory results obtained with such a show of power. The young citizen-in-the-making is like the wild young race horse that for some hours is handled by one trainer and raced toward a certain goal with love and encouragement. For the other hours another trainer races him toward another goal at a different gait—he must trot and not pace and for still other hours another trainer with lash and fear runs him toward a third and different goal. No winner on a race track could ever be so developed.

The crying need is for continuity in the whole program for making citizens. We school men have been busy seeking to improve the school, others are endeavoring to make home conditions better, recreation organizations are striving to make the playground and leisure time better agencies for good citizenship. It is of tremendous importance that coöperating agencies be made organic rather than remaining as they are today an aggregate of more or less efficient factors which in many respects nullify the good work

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done by another agent. The answer to our quest continuity in education can never be found till a more comprehensive program for making citizens has been perfected including as functional parts the home, church, press, and literature, school leisure and vacation so that all these different institutions may say the same thing and do the same thing.

Enough has been said to indicate the need for coöperation among these citizen-making forces. Coöperation is possible when there is unity of aim and diversity of function. The unity of aim can be found in the ideal of good citizenship and there is different and also supporting work for all to do in producing this complex product. These forces must be hitched tandem or parallel in the same direction. Forces act to the greater advantage when parallel and working together in the same direction. Sometimes the school and the home pull at an angle or even against one another and so do these other forces. There is great need for a common understanding of the goal in all its elements and of the part each agent has in producing that citizenship which is the goal of all.

Education for citizenship is much broader than the school, but the school has a much greater part in the program than is proportionate to the hours allotted to the school.

"What might have been" and "what ought to be" are themes for easy and eloquent writing and make good excuses for teachers as well as for others for failure to do their full share. We teachers are past masters in shifting the blame—it is always the fault of the home or of previous teachers. A little liberty with Shakespeare and we say, "The fault, dear teacher, is in the stars and not within ourselves." However, we do not know that when one is going somewhere one must start from where he is. So, it matters not if when the child reaches the teacher he looks like some journeyman had made him and not made him well—it is our job to take him as he is and do our bit in building citizenship.

Not only must one going somewhere start from where he is but he must also know where he is going. If the young citizen in the making does not know the end the teacher in charge of him must know and be that end. What is the end? The answer would be, for this discussion, a definition of good citizenship, for that is the goal at the end of the way. I shall not attempt a definition. It seems necessary, however, to call attention to some of the elements of good citizenship and to indicate some of the misconceptions of what it is and how attained.

All modern conceptions of citizenship make citizenship broad and complex—as broad and complex as life itself. It includes political citizenship, economic citizenship, community life citizenship, group life citizenship, family life citizenship, and personal life citizenship. These elements are not mutually exclusive. They are each complex in themselves. Citizenship includes knowledge, ideals, and motives for action and attitudes of mind but most of all it includes habits and power of action and deeds done. Citizenship, to be worth anything, must be dynamic and not merely potential, it must be deeds and not merely ideas and words. It is acquired chiefly by doing

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things and not to any large degree through studying the Constitution of the United States and of the State.

The average layman when he thinks of citizenship thinks political citizenship, and when he advises the schools on the means for making better citizens he is likely to do as did the American Bar Association when it recently took action looking toward a law to compel all public schools to teach American citizenship and would require school children to learn the Constitution of the United States and the Constitution of their State and to study American institutions and ideals; all public schools and colleges receiving support from public funds must refuse to graduate any student who fails to pass a satisfactory examination on these courses. This program is all right and should be carried into effect but this course alone will never make good citizens. The new note in citizenship building is activity; do by doing. The children need an opportunity to *live* their civics rather than a better chance to *learn* their civics. More of the deed if not less of the word is what is required. In so far as the school has not already done so, it must provide adequately for pupil participation in the activities the future adult citizen is expected to perform. School teachers may not all be competent to respond to this call for action. They, or the older ones, were educated back yonder a few years in the epoch of the *word* and naturally they still find it easier to teach the *word* more than the *deed*. Re-education and replacement must remedy this defect.

Fundamentally public and, for that matter, private schools are for the State or its smaller division, the county or community, and are not primarily for the individual. The State provides schools that it may be preserved and its interest promoted. Hence, the chief if not the sole function of the schools is to produce good citizens.

Everything in the course of study and all the ways and means for teaching and managing children employed in the schools are for teaching good citizenship. The alphabet and the multiplication table are for good citizenship as are the tooth brush drill, the school garden, the basket ball game, and the psychological clinic. If a course specifically designated as a course in citizenship seems to leave out some parts of some subjects taught in the schools, it is due to the fact that the course is narrow in its conception of citizenship, or desires to stress certain means that should be employed in the making of good citizens. Such a specific course in citizenship would begin in the kindergarten and continue through the high school.

Starting with the child as he is when he comes to school, the kindergarten teaches and trains the child in home relations and in relations to his playmates. He learns and dramatizes the work of the butcher and baker, the postman and the garbage man. He lives through with paste and scissors, hammer and crayons, tacks and nails, the Christmas season, Thanksgiving day, Washington's birthday. Learning to be a citizen is essentially learning teamwork and this lesson is begun in the kindergarten. It is greatly to be regretted that many parents associate education with books only and fail to appreciate the important work of the kindergarten in making good citizens.

Since the revelations of the war no one now doubts that good health and physical efficiency are essentials of good citizenship. These the schools must

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promote and the public must pay the bills for playgrounds and equipments, swimming pools and lunch rooms, doctors and nurses, hygienic school rooms and buildings, and competent teachers. I am confident that the general public approves and I wish it were better acquainted with the work of the public schools in protecting and promoting the health and physical well-being of the children. The instruction in hygiene carries over into habits and transfers many a home kitchen menu and even compels the corner groceryman to change his stock and methods of sale.

Good citizenship seems more closely related to civics, history, and geography than to the other school subjects. The social sciences have, in these later years, pushed themselves well down into the elementary school. Also, history comes down to date. Education in the past has seemed afraid of today and here. The United States history I studied did not approach the present nearer than about twenty years, and my geography and history were always far off. Home geography and civics and contemporary civilization are only recent entries into our courses of study. The young citizen is going to have to practice his citizenship in the present, in the here and now, and so needs to be taught much of his immediate surroundings and of the movements and forces in the world of politics and government today. Excursions to courts and parks and city hall; dramatization of many of the arts of a citizen and pupil participation in school government are movements in the right direction. Civic leagues, Junior Red Cross, Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, athletic associations, thrift and school savings are all indications of the modern demand for ways and means for the practice of citizenship.

Where the school has done all it can do the young citizen is still far from perfect. Learning on the job is necessary in education for citizenship. In these recent years, there has been a wonderful development of agencies for adult education in citizenship. Chambers of Commerce, Rotary and other similar clubs, Young Men's Business clubs, the activities of the American Legion are but a few of the agencies provided for men and all with their fundamental purpose being that of better citizenship. A similar set of organizations exists for women.

Good citizenship comes through years of training. The future citizen, like the child learning to walk, needs to be led and guided and gradually brought into the knowledge, skill, and motives for actions of a good citizen. This process of training must be coöperative effort with home and school working understandingly together.

EDUCATIONAL PROGRESS IN 1922

THOMAS E. FINEGAN, STATE SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION
HARRISBURG, PENNSYLVANIA

Public education has assumed a status of National importance. The stimulating influence of the National Education Association and the program which this organization has sponsored are largely responsible for the National spirit which has been developed in public education.

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The discussion of the provisions of the Towner-Sterling Bill at not only local, State, and National educational gatherings but also at such National meetings as the Federation of Women's Clubs, the Daughters of the American Revolution, the League of Women Voters, the Parent-Teacher Association, the American Federation of Labor, and other important meetings has not only revealed the limited educational facilities provided for the children of many sections of the country but has also resulted in a clear understanding of the responsibility which the Nation possesses in the education and training of all future citizens.

The sentiment of the country is undoubtedly reflected in the serious consideration given by the President of the United States and his Cabinet to the subject of education, and the plans of the Commission for reorganizing the administration of the official affairs of the Government. The President has announced that the report of the Cabinet to the Commission will contain a recommendation for a Department of Education and Welfare.

A decisive movement has been inaugurated in every section of the country to equalize educational opportunity and thus afford the youth of America the facilities to obtain that education and training which shall qualify them for service—for citizenship in a great democracy. This movement is generally called "democratizing education." It is shown by an increase in the length of the compulsory school period, as well as in the length of the school year, by more rigid enforcement of the compulsory attendance laws, by an enrichment and an enlargement of the school curriculum, by an increase in State appropriations and a more equitable distribution of State funds, by the consolidation of schools, by more thorough and scientific supervision of instruction, and by an advancement in the social status, the scholarship, and professional training of teachers.

A recent survey of the entire country by the Secretary of the National Education Association revealed a more wholesome respect for compulsory attendance statutes. Every State in the Union appears to be making substantial gains in the enrolment of children and in the average daily attendance. In some States the increase has been phenomenal. The tendency is to make the compulsory school period include all children between the ages of six and sixteen years. There is also a general trend toward increasing the legal period of time during which school must be in session. Those States that have hitherto been maintaining school for a shorter period of time than the average term for the country have increased their school year from one to four weeks. This is especially true in relation to the term for rural schools. There is developing, throughout the entire country, a strong current of public opinion for making the term in rural schools equal in length to the term maintained in cities. This movement will ultimately mean a uniform term of ten months.

In the field of general education this effort to democratize education is reflected best in the phenomenal development of the junior high-school movement; and in the field of vocational education, in the unprecedented growth in vocational agricultural, commercial, home economics, and industrial education that has taken place throughout the country during the past

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year. There is a pronounced tendency, in other words, to adapt the curriculum, in so far as possible, to the varying needs of individuals and to make available the types of education that will meet the desires of the greatest possible number of persons by giving due recognition to their individual differences in native physical and mental capacities, and in aims and ambitions in life.

An important development in industrial arts education during the current year has been the idea of the "general shop." This is the term that is used to designate a single shop of ordinary classroom size, or preferably somewhat larger, in which are housed a number of types of industrial activity. For example, the shop may contain equipment that will enable five boys to participate in each of four kinds of work, such as printing, woodworking, electrical work, and metal work. A class of twenty boys may thus be taught by one teacher, in a single shop, and by rotation, in four important forms of industrial activity.

One of the most significant and hopeful developments of the year in the field of vocational industrial education has been brought about by means of conferences of several kinds and through reports of a number of persons as well as by public and private organizations who are striving to establish mutually helpful working relations between the schools and industry. School people in several States have taken the initiative in demonstrating that the public schools can be of distinct service in furthering trade and industrial training to employed persons. It has long been recognized that the schools as well as industry have a responsibility for assisting in apprenticeship training, but during the last year there has been a general agreement that one of the first and most effective ways in which this may be brought about is by first reaching the foremen that have instructional responsibilities in order that they may be equipped to give, in turn, effective, well-organized instruction to apprentices and others in need of job training.

In the field of vocation agriculture during the past year there has been the tendency to measure the extent to which the teaching of vocational agriculture is functioning in making more and better farmers. Data from the Nation at large shows that more than fifty-five per cent of the boys who have taken vocational courses in agriculture are now engaged in gainful agricultural occupations. Evidence is also at hand that indicates improvements in agricultural practices and increases in agricultural production because of instruction in vocational agriculture.

Music is gaining an increasingly large place in all public school curriculums. It has been made a required subject in every school maintained in California and Pennsylvania. In the latter, under the direction of the State school authorities, a Music Week has been permanently established and is observed by the schools, colleges, churches, civic organizations, and the commercial, industrial, and mercantile establishments in every city and school district in the State.

The funds appropriated by State legislatures for the support of public schools have been greatly increased. Notable increases have been provided in New York, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Florida, Louisiana, Maine, Mary-

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land, Massachusetts, North Carolina, Tennessee, Virginia and West Virginia. The method of the distribution of such funds adopted by the States has been upon a basis intended to give the greatest aid to those communities which are the least able to bear the burden of taxation necessary to provide good schools.

The movement for the consolidation of schools has made great advancement. The States in the South and those in the West are generally leading the States in the East. Many States are endeavoring to stimulate an interest in this work through financial aid. Provisions has been made in some States for paying part of the cost of transportation. In other States aid is extended toward the construction of new buildings, and increased aid is often provided on a more generous plan to a consolidated school than that given to a single school. The building of good roads facilitates the consolidation of schools. The development of consolidated schools during the past year has been pronounced in Mississippi, Louisiana, and Pennsylvania.

Decided progress has been made during the past year in the supervision of instruction. This is especially the case in rural schools. California has employed one hundred rural school supervisors. These supervisors are not associated with administrative supervision but with instructional supervision. State Superintendent Harris, of Louisiana, in coöperation with city and county superintendents, has inaugurated an effective system of this type of supervision. These supervisors are persons of sound liberal scholarship who have been students of children and of methods of instruction. The methods under which this plan has been adopted have developed coöperation between all the school forces, created a fine professional spirit, and stimulated teachers. Demonstration centers have been adopted which have been substituted for the traditional teachers' institute. Many supervisors have been employed in the State.

The legislatures of Kentucky, North Carolina, and Pennsylvania made largely increased appropriations to the State Department of Education in these respective States for the organization of a professional staff to give intelligent direction and supervision to the schools of these States. The subject of instructional supervision has been discussed in all parts of the country and it may be said that there is a decided trend in favor of scientific supervision of instruction. School boards are generally showing a greater appreciation of this service.

School authorities in all parts of the country have placed increased emphasis upon the qualifications of teachers. The general tendency has been to set as a minimum standard for all schools those standards which progressive cities have adopted in recent years. Some States, as Pennsylvania for instance, have written into their school codes a provision to the effect that no teacher shall be employed in any school in the State after September 1, 1927, who has not been graduated from a four years' approved high school and, thereafter, from a two years' professional course in a State normal school or college.

Advanced standards have been set for admission to State normal schools and the professional courses in these institutions modernized in many of the

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States. A strong movement is also developing throughout the country to increase the length of the professional courses in State normal schools from two to three or four years, to change the names of these institutions to colleges, and to confer upon them authority to grant academic degrees. There has been a phenomenal increase in the number of students in attendance upon the education courses given in the colleges and universities of the country. In Louisiana five thousand out of eight thousand white teachers are college or normal-school graduates.

There is a Nation-wide movement for the improvement of the teachers in service. This movement is also traceable to the influence of the National Education Association, which adopted the slogan a few years ago "A trained teacher for every classroom in America." The campaign of this organization to improve and professionalize the teaching force of the country is bearing fruit. The two agencies exerting a powerful influence in this movement are vacation courses given in summer schools and extension courses given during the school year. The number of teachers attending summer courses for teachers in 1922 exceeded by many thousands the number in attendance during any previous year. In North Carolina, 12,500 of the 19,540 teachers of the State attended summer schools; in Oklahoma, 13,000 out of 17,000 attended summer schools, and in Pennsylvania 30,000 out of 45,000 teachers were in attendance upon summer courses. In these States and in others the session covered nine weeks. The extent of this movement has been general, and most successful in the southern States.

Many teachers are also taking extension courses during the year. These courses are given by professors on the faculties of normal schools, colleges, and universities. These professors go out into the communities accessible to their institutions two or three times per week and give instruction to classes which they organize from the surrounding country. In Pennsylvania twenty-two thousand teachers in service were registered in these classes during 1922.

The improved social status of the teacher accounts in part for this stimulation of the teachers of the country. Teaching is gradually being recognized as a profession. The teacher has a better social standing in the community and generally enjoys tenure during efficient service. Retirement laws providing for annuities have been enacted in many States. Salary schedules have been enacted into laws which provide more adequate compensation and therefore attract a better type of teacher into the service. Furthermore, the decided trend in all parts of the country to grant teachers a larger participation in the formulation of general school policies has given a decided professional status to the teacher. The establishment of codes of ethics by the voluntary action of teachers in many parts of the country is a significant indication of the enlarged outlook which teachers possess of the importance of their work and of its development into a real profession. Any action which gives standing and dignity to the individual members of the profession tends to attract men and women of strong mental and moral fibre into this important field of public service.

The National Education Association, through its Committee on Foreign Relations, has inaugurated a movement during the past year for a World

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Conference on Education in connection with the annual meeting of that Association which will be held at Oakland, California, in July, 1923. It is believed that the leaders of the educational systems of the important Nations of the world may become a potential factor in the development of "a new order of international friendship, justice, and good-will." The main objectives of the conference are to promote peace and good-will among the Nations of the world, and to bring about a world-wide tolerance of the rights and privileges of all Nations. These great ends may be attained through proper instruction of the youth of each Nation. The schoolmaster has started out to accomplish what the statesman has been unable to achieve.

It is further proposed to organize at this conference an International Education Association and, through the coöperative spirit of such Association, to federate the influence of several effective international, social, economic, educational, and religious organizations and make them a powerful agency in developing a bond of common brotherhood among the men of the civilized Nations of the world.

Educational measurements and mental tests have made notable progress and gained much public confidence during the past year in public schools as well as in colleges and universities. These agencies have not supplanted other essential factors in public-school administration but they have been made a supplemental and confirming agency to such factors. Probably no event in educational circles during the year has provoked more wholesome and sound discussion than the able and thoughtful address of Dr. William C. Bagley, on Educational Determination: or Democracy and the I. Q. This stimulating address raised several timely and pertinent issues in regard to the proper function and limitations of educational tests and measurements. There have been many excessive claims and ill-considered conclusions in regard to this rapidly developing field of educational research and practice. Doctor Bagley's scholarly and masterly treatment of the subject is opportune and courageous. It properly challenges the proponents of educational measurements to establish by sound evidence the position which these agencies are entitled to hold in modern, scientific educational procedure. His contribution to this problem has served not only the desirable end of checking the indiscriminate "testing" which has been carried on by those who have had no training in this field and have no understanding or conception of the aims or objectives of such procedure, but has also brought squarely before the school administrators the desirability of giving this practice a fair trial under competent and skilled men.

A legitimate and wide field of usefulness for educational tests and measurements is, however, being rapidly established by the experimental work of many able investigators who are interested in a more effective adaptation of the educational process to the individual needs and capacities of the girls and boys of our schools.

Accepted and established educational policies are often the products of tradition or accident. More and more they are being made the subjects of careful study, to the end that they may be either confirmed or revised.

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Certain recent laboratory investigations of reading may serve as a type of the scientific study of educational problems. By photographic processes, the number and length of the pauses a reader makes in reading a line of printed matter are determined. It is established that competent readers see more at a glance than do poor readers; that there is a marked difference between oral and silent reading. It is made quite evident that, in the upper grades, the school ought not to emphasize oral reading, which is a slow, clumsy form of reading, when the pupils ought to be cultivating the power of rapid silent reading. By means of investigations of this kind, each of the subjects of instruction is being examined, and as a result school work is becoming increasingly effective in cultivating children's intellectual powers.

Studies of individual differences in pupils; sex differences; the periodicity in the pupil's development; the measurements of the outcome of instruction, and the developments of standardized tests and measures; curriculum-organization; planning of buildings; supervision and administration—all these—demand and are now receiving patient, detailed scientific study.

This character of scientific investigation has received pronounced attention during the past year. Some of the notable movements in this field have been the investigations in reading made by the University of Chicago under the financial support of The Commonwealth Fund, the studies in Latin subsidized by the General Education Board and conducted under the leadership of Mason D. Gray, and similar investigations in the field of high-school subjects by A. J. Inglis, of Harvard University.

The guidance movement, starting mainly with vocational guidance, has expanded to take in numerous other kinds of guidance. The choice of curriculum, health, worthy use of leisure, character and other objectives of education are included as having their bearing on a vocation. Its narrowest conception, the guidance of pupils into occupations, has widened to include school preparation for a life work which goes far into the field of general education.

Because so much of the service of vocational counselors has been in the field of curriculum guidance and social counseling, it is being recognized that a more inclusive term must be used. The terms " educational guidance " and " vocational guidance " are giving way to " guidance."

The trend in guidance service during the past year has had a decided tendency toward a greater coöperation of teachers and those in charge of compulsory attendance, health, tests and measurements, and with employing interests and social agencies of the community.

The National Vocational Guidance Association, the U. S. Child Labor Bureau, the U. S. Junior Employment Service, and many of the larger school systems have been making important strides in the guidance movement. Notably among the latter are Pittsburgh, Chicago, Boston, Seattle, and Cincinnati.

Safer and more sanitary school buildings, with better facilities for health activities such as gymnasiums, swimming pools, nurses' and doctors' rooms, rest rooms for teachers, and facilities for hot lunch for both pupils and teachers, are being built. Larger playgrounds are being provided.

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Physical education is broadening in scope and time allotment. Physical efficiency tests and mass competitions designed to reach all pupils are more emphasized. Inter-scholastic competition is being based on physical activities for the whole student body, and is under better control.

Physiology is becoming a real health training and instruction through habit building, based on information regarding cleanliness, rest, sleep, fresh air, proper food, good posture, and control of communicable disease; ideals of health and physical efficiency, and the establishment of individual and community healthful attitudes.

Medical inspection is developing into a real health supervision, including the activities not only of school physicians, but those of nurses, dentists, dental hygienists, teachers, school clinics, and special classes for the care of the physically handicapped.

The health of teachers is being conserved through better facilities, environment, program arrangement, and increased salaries.

It is now realized that all these factors must work together as a real school health program.

No question in the field of public education has received more careful and scientific consideration during the past year than that relating to the financing of educational enterprises. In all parts of the country there has been much criticism of progressive public school programs and of the increased expenditures not only for the maintenance of such programs but for the support of colleges and universities as well. In many sections of the country organized movements were promoted to curtail such programs in order to reduce expenditures for education. Notwithstanding all the activities of the reactionary forces of the country in relation to educational affairs, the year has been one of substantial progress. Very generally the advances made in increased salaries for teachers, in the development of more adequate school plants, in the broadening and expansion of courses of study, in the organization of better rural schools, and in the efforts generally to equalize educational opportunity have not only been held but additional gains have been made. The expenditures for public school maintenance, for the construction of new buildings, and for the support of colleges and universities have exceeded those of any previous year in the history of the Nation. More important than this, however, has been the support which men of large affairs have given to the financial necessities of education and the support which the influential press of the country has also given to the needs of public education.

One of the outstanding features of educational interest during the year has been the "Finance Inquiry" into the cost of public education supported by the leading Foundations in Education, sponsored by the American Council of Education and conducted under the direction of Doctor George D. Strayer, of Teachers College, Columbia University.

With the extraordinary increase in the number seeking admission to institutions of higher learning, it has become increasingly necessary to restrict the size of the groups admitted, and to devise means for selecting the applicants of greatest ability. The discovery and encouragement of students of

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superior ability and of promise of achievement in research is a project recently inaugurated by the National Research Council.

As an outcome of the crowded conditions of the colleges and universities, there has recently been an increase in the number of junior colleges. More of these colleges will probably be established, particularly in the cities, and as the result of reorganization of the weaker four-year colleges.

As the result of recognition that undergraduate institutions are founded and maintained as teaching, rather than research institutions, an increased emphasis is being placed upon the importance of the teaching done in college classes. There is now an insistence that the college instructor must be not only a profound scholar, but also a trained teacher.

The industries of the country are coming to look to the higher institutions of learning for assistance and will coöperate with them to their own advantage and the advancement of education and progress. The establishment of industrial fellowships is typical of this development.

Everywhere we note a movement directed toward the establishment of intimate relationship between institutions of higher learning and their communities, through extension courses and the provision of opportunities for students other than those regularly enrolled.

While there has been more than the usual amount of criticism of public education during the past year and in some instances from sources which are supporting educational interests, it may be said without fear of contradiction that the power and influence of educational progress has not only swept out of its path all of the reactionary forces and influences which attempted to impede its onward march but has also challenged and brought to its support the men and women of the country most interested in the preservation and promotion of our democratic ideals which will realize their greatest fruition through a sound progressive system of public education.

SUSPENDED ANIMATION IN ENGLISH EDUCATION

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To England the educational heritage of the Great War is a unique situation of unstable equilibrium. The forces of progress and reaction have exactly neutralized each other for the time being, and there is a general agreement to let the *status quo* exist for a while. The pre-war state of education has been radically modified, but the changes agreed upon have not yet been carried into effect, and the reactionaries on the one hand and the progressives on the other are looking on idly but expectantly, each party hoping that when the move does come it will be in the direction they desire.

Before the war, education in England was making quite satisfactory and steady progress under a cabinet minister who really cared for education and knew something about it. The Honorable H. A. L. Fisher had been called to the post of Minister of Education because of his academic stand-

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ing and his recognized interest in education as such. The government to which he belonged was favorable to educational progress, and his Majesty's opposition was on this point at one with it.

Things were going very satisfactorily when the war broke out. The first effect naturally was a sort of educational paralysis, less marked, however, than might have been expected. In education it was possible for a long time to give effect to the general national policy of "business as usual." No doubt the call for men depleted the ranks of the men teachers, but the women carried on in excellent style, and what was lost through the understaffing of the schools was to some extent at least compensated by the increased interest of the nation in educational affairs. For the usual effect of a European war made itself evident. People began to tell one another that if we were to maintain our prestige we must improve the education of the people. The old saying was brought out: It was the schoolmaster who won Sadowa and Gravelotte. We were told that it was her national system of education that gave Germany her initial enormous advantage in the war. We assured one another that if Germany could do so much evil with her good but badly applied education, we could do wonderful things with an improved education intelligently and morally applied.

Accordingly, Mr. Fisher was able to present his magnificent Education Bill, of 1918, and to carry it on a burst of popular enthusiasm. His Education Act is the English equivalent to the establishment of prohibition in America. Each was a magnificent gesture. In both cases, when the enthusiasm died down, there arose a questioning spirit and people began to ask one another whether they had not been precipitate. In neither country was there a general desire to undo what had been done, though many doubted its wisdom. The situation in America was easier, for in the first place there was an almost insuperable difficulty in rescinding the new law, and in the second it was a mere matter of allowing the new situation to stand. In England, on the other hand, the carrying out of the terms of the Education Act demanded positive effort. Things had to be done, and money had to be spent. It was this last item that was the effective spoke in the wheel.

Before the development of what came to be called "the economy stunt," it was felt that the new Act called for an expenditure of money beyond anything ever before dreamt of in connection with education. The reluctance to apply the Act soon became manifest throughout the country, even in districts where education is highly prized and liberally supported. In Yorkshire, for example, where the local education authorities have a well-deserved reputation for progressiveness, the councillors shook their heads, and said that excellent as the Act was it could not be applied in its entirety in the present state of trade. As the appointed day approached on which the Act was to come into operation the gloom deepened, and Authorities began to make excuses.

Then came the nation-wide demand for economy in State expenditure, and after the time-honored custom education was among the first of the public services to receive the attention of the economists. Most of the Education Authorities throughout the country made no attempt to carry the

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Act into effect. London, no doubt, made a gallant attempt to establish the proposed system of Continuation Schools. But so far from receiving encouragement from headquarters, they got into trouble about their grants, and had to fall in with the general do-nothing policy.

Thus ingloriously ended an educational spurt that roused the admiration and even the envy of the world. Over in America here, the feeling among school people was that England was giving a lead to the world and was introducing a system that would have to be imitated by all the nations of the earth if they were to maintain their place in the competition for a place in the sun of civilization. The fundamental problem the world has to face in view of the present situation is whether society can afford the extension of the school age for *all* to the age of eighteen.

In general terms, the Act of 1918 makes full-time school education compulsory up to the age of 14, and some sort of continuation education compulsory up to the age of 18. The Act demands that between fourteen and eighteen the pupils be required to give at least eight hours a week (during the day-time) to work in school, though provision is made by which pupils who give full time attendance at school up till 16, shall be freed from compulsion to do any more school work. Till society concludes whether it can afford this expenditure of time, no further progress can be made. England is just now in doubt on the general question, but apparently quite clear that at the present moment the thing can not be done.

What, then, is the underlying meaning of this Mahomet's-coffin position of the Act of 1918? There are those who want the Act rescinded: they wish us to go back to the pre-Fisher period, and be content with the not-bad education then provided. But such a step would be unfairly reactionary: it would be a begging of the question. The case for the longer period of school education must be reasoned out, not let go by default. The question is sometimes asked: what is the difference between a rescinded Act and an Act that cannot be applied? The answer is: "Much in every way." So long as the Act remains on the Statute Book it is a part of the law of England, and bears witness to the fact that the English Legislature, after full deliberation, calmly and definitively agreed that education deserves a certain minimum of time, and is worth a certain minimum amount of outlay. Whether the country at any given moment can afford the necessary time and money is a different matter. By leaving the Act in being, we gain a breathing space: we have time to look around and make enquiries and experiments. There is at least a certain compensation in the close season for educational progress imposed upon us by economic stringency. Our Board of Education will be all the better for this period of enforced marking-time, though it must not be forgotten that the Board is not content to make no progress at all. It is at least keeping pace with the advancing needs of the time. The present President of the Board of Education, speaking at Exeter early in May, was able to claim that while in 1913 there were 180,000 pupils in grant-aided secondary schools, now there are 360,000, and that the provision of free places had kept pace with almost mathematical accuracy. In 1913 there were 61,000 free places, now there are 128,000.

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But what we are concerned about is not the automatic meeting of the growing needs of the population. The Board has hitherto been content to live too much from hand to mouth, and not to take sufficiently long views. It is to be hoped that it will profit by the close season to take stock of the needs of the future, and make the necessary provision. Hitherto it has had rather a bad reputation. In the training of teachers, for example, it has got into the habit of alternating between urging young people to come forward to be trained, and warning them off from an overcrowded profession. Three or four years ago the Board was urging its officers to do all they could to provide a greater supply of candidates for the profession: today they are issuing directions to keep down the number to be admitted to training. In this case the Board cannot be held altogether to blame, for the officials assumed that the Act was to be carried out, and that would have involved such a demand for teachers as none of the ordinary existing channels could supply. Indeed the Board's mistake here is really a proof of its good faith with regard to the now suspended Act. Unfortunately, however, the Board could not always plead this excellent excuse, and yet in the past a disastrous alternation of dearth and over supply of teachers stands to its account.

The same sort of thing occurs in other directions. Before the war the Board was rightly indignant about the excessive size of classes in the elementary schools, and actually fined the London Education Authority $50,000 for having excessively large classes in its schools. The rule was then made that under normal circumstances classes of boys or girls should not exceed forty, nor classes of "infants" exceed forty-eight. Today the Board is urging education authorities to increase the number of pupils in classes, and one of these days London may be fined for not doing what she was formerly fined for doing. Here again it must be admitted that while this example is an excellent one for a debate in the House of Commons, the Board can hardly be blamed for a change of policy rendered necessary by events over which it had no control. It is different, however, when we find a member of Parliament, himself a former head of an Education Department, seeking to defend the increased size of classes on educational grounds. In any case, it is to be hoped that the present close season will be utilized by the Board in planning out such a scheme of gradually applying the clauses of the Act as shall lead to an easy transition from the present straitened condition to the fuller development towards which we are all confidently looking. So long as the Act of 1918 remains in force, it is the law of the land and the Board must regard itself as responsible for its application at the earliest moment that financial conditions render this possible. No doubt when the Act is actually applied it will almost certainly take a different form from that set forth in the present document. But by that time it will have served its purpose by keeping alive an ideal. The educational system of England is at present, no doubt, in a cort of chrysalis state: but within the cocoon there are going on important organic processes that will have a powerful influence in determining the sort of *imago* that will in the immediate future fight its way out into the sunshine.

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The psychological effect of an Act-in-being is realized by increasing numbers of the friends of education in England, and by not a few of its enemies. The ideal embodied in the Act may be admitted to be for the present unattainable. But the Act stands there as a finger-post indicating the direction of progress. One of its most important effects is that it puts the onus of proof on the advocates of reaction. Each backward movement in called upon to justify itself in view of its obvious conflict with the officially recognized ideal. Without the Act, all manner of retrograde steps might be taken without a "by your leave": they are all in the day's work. But under the shadow of the Act, suspended though it be, it is necessary to now cause for every movement in the direction opposite to that indicated by the legislative finger-post. To have to adopt an apologetic attitude is very wholesome for the reactionaries. No doubt they can sometimes make out a good case, and the friends of education must accept all really needful restrictions. But at every concession they can turn to the Act, and while glancing over its clauses murmur comfortably: "After all it is only a matter of time."

No one will benefit more by this period of enforced inaction than the members of the Labour Party. As a group the Labourists have made a very clear and definite stand on the matter of education. They want the Act to come into operation, and they want it as soon as possible. But they realize that many of the least intelligent of their group are not quite prepared to go all the way with the Act. There are those who resent the loss of money-earning power involved in the long compulsory school period. They ask why the children should be compelled to attend school for so long, and why even when freed from whole-time thralldom their children should have their commercial value diminished by the demand for school attendance during working hours. The suspension of the Act will enable the party to educate its members up to the advantages it will bring, and the necessarily gradual introduction of the clauses of the Act will provide a further means of breaking the shock of its full application.

The position is full of hope, and the period of suspended animation may in the long run prove to have been the best thing that could have happened to the Act, by preventing a violent economic reaction following on its sudden imposition, and by providing a gestation period during which to organize its development along the lines that will best prepare for its welcome by all classes of the community. The friends of education will be well advised to use the breathing space to the best advantage, but not to allow any greater delay than is absolutely necessary. Piecemeal application in the immediate future is the line of safety.

OBJECTIVES OF PART-TIME EDUCATION FOR BOYS

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Fellow teachers: At the time your committee asked me to talk to you about part-time objectives for boys, I felt and do still feel that they made a mistake. Those of us whose hearing is dulled by the noise of the machinery

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and whose seeing is dimmed by close application to detail are hardly the ones to interpret the larger meanings of any movement—and especially so in school work where it is so difficult to measure progress—even in the full-day classes. I agreed to talk to you, however, because I hoped it would aid in classifying my own thinking if I tried to tell you how we have reasoned it out in Oakland.

Among those characteristics of our civilization distinguishing us above all other Nations in the belief that for each and every child the road of equal opportunity should be kept open, so that if he wills he may travel it to the city of contentment and usefulness; and to aid him on his journey public schools have been created. Unfortunately, however, our ideal falls far short of its goal, for only the favored few continue the journey to its destination; the vast majority fall by the wayside. To gather up these stragglers under the age of 18 and to carry them a little further along the road of equal opportunity in the last few years we have established continuation schools, not as a solution of all the ills of society, but as another aid in attaining our ideal. Hence, the prime and only objective of the Part-Time Education Law is to give to youths who must leave school before they have completed their education an opportunity to continue that education while they work. To my way of thinking we can assist these youths to continue their education in three ways: First, through pre-vocational shop work, vocational guidance, placement, and further training in related trade subjects we can aid them to find their proper place in the industrial world; second, through the right kind of health instruction we can help them to lead happier lives; and third, we can furnish them that citizenship training which is necessary to the safety of the Nation.

It would be easy to expand these objectives at great length, but I do not believe that I need to prove the case for part-time. The law has been in force long enough to demonstrate that it is worth while. Therefore instead of an abstract discussion of part-time objectives, I am going to tell you through a number of brief-case histories taken from our Oakland school, something of what we are trying to do to solve the problem, each case illustrating one or all of the objectives I have mentioned.

Take the story of J. L. He entered part-time two years ago at the age of sixteen, coming to us from the seventh grade. The father is dead, the mother supports J. L. and a number of his brothers and sisters by taking in washing at which task for over a year after he came to us he assisted his mother. About six months ago he obtained a job in what he called a cakery, his special work being the cleaning and greasing of pans. His attendance at school was regular in spite of the fact that the four hours of eighth grade work he was taking did not in any way apply directly to his work, and we looked forward to dismissing him with a blessing on his eighteenth birthday and we had the firm conviction we were doing him little good. About May first, he came to school with badly inflamed eyes. When we questioned him, he assured us he was taking care of them and that he would not neglect them. The next week he reported to class again but his eyes were even worse than the week before. Under cross-examination we dragged out of

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him the confession that he was doing nothing for them, felt too poor to have a doctor, and did not know how to gain admission to the free clinic. Just another one of the many poor children in every large city who suffer because they haven't a chance. Within an hour we had him admitted to the clinic, from there he was rushed to a hospital, and at last reports his eyesight will probably be saved.

J. T. was called to our attention by his mother who claimed she was very much afraid of her son. We knew that he was decidedly subnormal, but he had done nothing to distinguish himself from others of his group. The case history showed that his father had been insane, and that though closely watched by nurses he had taken his own life. The mother supported J. T. and his younger brother by cleaning offices and therefore was away from home much of the time. We discovered that J. T. was a dangerous boy, that he had an insane hatred for his younger brother, and that on several occasions he had threatened to kill both his brother and mother. Not a case for the schools you will say, and yet that mother was ignorant and without influence, and she had been sent from one public official to another without result. We went with her to the District Attorney, we arranged for the mental test, we interested the Associated Charities, and we saw to it that J. T. was sent to the Sonoma State Home. After six months in the home he was placed on probation and is now earning enough as a car washer for the Pullman Company to support both mother and brother. Such cases show that to the part-time school come the problems of poverty and disease, neither of which can be remedied by any school; and yet because the part-time school is built upon the idea of close coördination between the school, the home and the shop, and actually tries to be of service to all three, to it will come many such cases, as to a sort of clearing-house, which it must aid in solving until society finds a better way.

Let me give you several cases showing what can be done through pre-vocational shops vocational guidance and placement. R. L. came to us from the seventh grade of one of our schools. His introduction card reported him to be a special case, slow and considerably retarded. We tried him out in the machine and wood shops, exposing him to various occupations without finding any to which he took. He worked in several factories during the time he was in school. The reports were uniform; the boy was industrious and reliable, but not mechanically inclined. One of our larger painters wanted an apprentice boy. We induced him to try R. L. Three months have passed since that time and R. L. seems to be making good. Both he and his employer are satisfied. B. B. came to us from a fifth grade a typical class—whatever that is—his mother is a graduate of one of our leading universities; his father a skilled though uneducated mechanic. It seemed impossible for the boy to learn to read or figure. He had been examined by a number of well-known psychologists, who advised that his only chance was to learn a trade. We placed him in a machine shop class. He could not follow orders, but when he once saw a thing done he could repeat the operation. For a time he made so little progress we grew discouraged and gave him a temporary exemption. He tried a garage job and failed; but he had taken a fancy

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to our shop instructor and he insisted on returning to school. He added evening school shop work to his program. Learning through imitation he improved. Now he is past eighteen, but he continues his evening school and for six months he has held a good job in an Oakland machine shop. For hundreds of boys the story is the same. Doomed to do our semi-skilled work they profit somewhat from the small amount of tool skill they receive, but they profit more from the vocational guidance and placement work that must accompany the class instruction.

One case in which we failed miserably illustrates still another angle of the problem. J. B. came to us from the Juvenile Court—one of the most hopeless of all the cases they have sent us. The boy was bright—outside of a tendency to stutter his high-school teachers noticed nothing unusual about him. His parents were hard working, respectable people, though of small means. Within a year he had been before the court some four times, always on charges involving the taking of property not his own. The last offense had been highway robbery. When confronted with his crimes, the boy would freely confess to the police all they already knew, but as to other transgressions he was casehardened in his denials. He attended school regularly, doing good work in mechanical drawing and shop mathematics but because of his bad record it was difficult to get him work and of course the Juvenile Court officials, who are not always sympathetic, contended it was the part-time school law which prevented his finding a job. However, at last he did find work but several months later on checking an absence we learned he had been caught red-handed in a burglary by the police. He was sent to Whittier where he still is. So far we have worked out nothing in our part-time school for this criminal type and we believe it belongs with the parental home rather than any continuation school.

The cases of L. C., E. I., and Jerry illustrate the possibilities of the supplementary trade instruction. L. C. came to us as a grammar school graduate; he had just obtained a bank messenger job. For two years he has been taking bookkeeping, commercial forms, arithmetic and comptometer and his promotion has been rapid. The bank likes our work so well that it comes to us for all its boys and sends them gladly to part-time school.

E. I. was expelled from two high schools because he would not do any work in anything but shop and drawing. In a mathematics class he was impossible. He hated school so bitterly that we had to serve a citation on his parents to get him into school again, and for several months we did not know whether we were going to hold him or not. Then he got a job in one of our large gas engine companies as a pattern apprentice. We talked it over with his employer, who convinced the boy he needed more drawing and mathematics, especially work on gears. Fortunately we have a shop teacher who is an expert in this field. For six months the boy has not missed a day in school, and what is better he not only is improving in his value to his employer but his attitude towards life has changed.

Jerry came to us from a 9b class two years ago. He had a job in the mechanical department of one of our large service corporations. He knew what he wanted—trade drawing, trade mathematics and trade science.

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Last October he became eighteen, and we dropped him automatically. Two weeks later I found he was again in class and he has been present each week since because he is getting that supplementary trade instruction he needs.

These cases are but a few of thousands, but I hope it illustrates part-time objectives as we see them. So that you may get a clearer picture of our work, let me sketch for you an ideal part-time school as we see it now after three years of pioneering. It is to be in a new building, as well equipped as the best high school in the city. Why should these poorer children whose lives are dull and drab be discriminated against by being placed in unattractive surroundings? It will have a gymnasium, a place for games, bathing facilities, everything that will aid in the teaching of clean living. It will have pre-vocational shops, fitted to sift the ill assorted boys into their proper jobs, and the placement and coördination to see that this work functions. It will have courses in all the related trade subjects: blueprint reading, trade mathematics, science, drawing, music, all new commercial subjects including salesmanship and advertising. It will have as its motto the dignity of labor and in its teaching force those men and women only who respect honest work well done and who feel a keen sympathy for these lads denied their equal opportunity in this world. And lastly as its capstone it will have the best course possible in citizenship and health.

The problem of making and keeping the body fit is not peculiar to any age, but employed youths are subjected to more than ordinary temptations. The logical time to get sex hygiene over to boys is during the period from 16 to 18 when with their new found earning power and partial emancipation from home control they face the issue of clean living.

Each year most of the boys who leave school do so without any adequate knowledge of our history, our government or the principles of political economy. In the past generation we have been undergoing a peaceful revolution. Through the primary, the initiative, the referendum, and the recall government has become responsible to the laboring man. Where are these men to receive their citizenship training? Is it something breathed in with the free air of America or is it founded on a knowledge of principles that find their inspiration in Plymouth Rock and our Constitution? This boy who leaves school in the seventh, eighth, or ninth grade immediately meets the great problems of our age. What attitude shall he take towards the labor union, the closed shop, the strike, sabotage, law enforcement? I hold no brief for propaganda of any sort; but the hope of America lies in intelligent citizenship. Otherwise, how can there be a wise moulding of the industrial democracy of tomorrow.

REPORT ON VISUAL EDUCATION

L. N. HINES, PRESIDENT, STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, TERRE HAUTE, INDIANA

The chief purpose of the committee report we now have in hand is to clear our thought and add to our knowledge along the line of visual education in so far as that topic touches the procedure of the schoolroom and can

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be made of assistance in the learning process. An investigation of this kind is eminently worth while because of the great possibilities in the way of making learning easier and more attractive than it has ever been. That is the chief task of this committee and to that task the members of the committee have set themselves.

Something like a year ago, the then president of the National Council of Education, President Seerley, of Iowa, appointed a committee to make a report on Visual Education. The membership of that committee is as follows: L. N. Hines, president Indiana State Normal School, Terre Haute, chairman; W. C. Bagley, Teachers College, New York; Superintendent Susan M. Dorsey, Los Angeles; Superintendent David B. Corson, Newark, New Jersey; Mrs. Cora Wilson Stewart, Frankfort, Kentucky; Olive M. Jones, New York; Thomas W. Butcher, Emporia, Kansas; Ernest L. Crandall, New York; and Mrs. Josephine Corliss Preston, Olympia, Washington.

Some of the members of the committee are making their reports. Others will appear later, according to the pleasure of President Gwinn. We hope that the final summation of the activities and findings of this committee will be distinctly valuable to those school people that are interested in visual education.

It is well enough, before going into the matter of visual education for the schools, to consider a part of the background of such an investigation. The commercial moving picture interests furnish such a background. One of the biggest industries in the United States is devoted to putting before people, young and old, visual material that perforce assists in educating them whether they intend it or not. We have a great industry that attracts its daily millions to such an extent that it is hard to think or talk of visual education without having our thinking dominated by what the movie industry gives to the people and the effect the commercial pictures have on the multitude, especially the young.

The daily work of the schools in all village and urban communities is affected by what goes on at the movie house. Over much seeing of the inanities and absurdities of the movie seems to be developing the so-called "movie mind." School is a rather slow place to millions of our youngsters. The whole situation affects the work of the school, creates a demand for visual education, and at the same time tends to make that demand one for the vulgarities of the commercial film.

It is well enough here to consider some of the characteristics of the movie interests that are having such a big part in the education of our children. These interests are:

(1) Opposed to censorship of any type; (2) in favor of any kind of picture that will get money into the box office; (3) opposed to prohibition and constantly devoted to propaganda in favor of the return of the saloon; (4) in favor of Sunday desecration and the unlimited showing of films; (5) shot through and through with the basest motives in devising plots and putting them on the screen; (6) constant purveyors of cheap, inane, absurd and impossible plots; (7) constant perverters of the morals of youth, through the pictures. Many movies are nothing less than lessons in crime; (8) ready

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at all times to change any classic story in order to give the movie touch of unreality and sensuality to it, perverting morals and misinforming those who see the picture; (9) ready at all times to penetrate any sanctuary or film any scene, in order to get a little more money at the box office. A great Frenchman some time ago visited the tomb of Lincoln and penetrated its confines in order to pay reverence to the great American. Could he do that in peace? He could not—the movie cameras were there.

It is interesting to know what some of the movie people think of the demand for better pictures. We quote from the magazine *Visual Education* for January, 1922:

Our films "too refined"—In the January number of *Picture-Play*, in the department edited by The Observer, appears an editorial which bids fair to realize its very evident purpose of provoking a spirited controversy. Like many another article anent the motion picture, it is a bitter and heart-wringing diatribe against conditions existent in the world of the cinema. And beyond doubt there are many who will be both shocked and surprised to discover how deplorable matters have become. To state the great difficulty in the author's own words, "the motion picture is getting wishy-washy, literary, educational, inspiring—something you 'ought' to see."

In the course of the editorial it is soon made more than apparent that those individuals who have been agitating for the artistic uplift of the screen are achieving their designs sooner than even they had reason to expect. But not unnoticed and unrebuked will they be allowed to plan and to achieve such ends. The unsuspecting public is not to be exploited because of the fine literary discriminations of a few unfeeling highbrows. Friend Observer, heeding the dictates of a conscience "that won't let him be a hypocrite," declines to permit any unpleasant resultant complications to interfere with his exposure "of the too darned nice and refined" condition of the motion picture. Never, he declares in effect, shall things come to such a pass and he remain silent.

Nor will he rest content with merely drawing the attention of the public to the sad situation. His desire to serve leads him to point out what must be done to remedy matters. "More pep," he demands, "more detective stories, more red-hot love stories, more thrills, spine-tingling thrills, thrills that make you grab your girl's arm and gasp—action, drama, punch, galloping horses, mortgages, fires, sudden deaths, suspense, suspense and more suspense! . . . . We want the gosh-darndest drama that anybody can give us, well done. We're not crying for crudity, but we are yelling for something to happen in the picture shows."

It is The Observer's unshaken belief that the motion-picture producers are trying too hard to make pictures for the folks that seldom come to see the shows and that they are forgetting the regular "fans." If the film companies would stop making dramas like "Sentimental Tommy"—dramas that are appreciated only by the occasional intellectual—and do more pictures such as "The Sign on the Door," with its Norma Talmadge and its melodrama which pleases the American people, the present sad state of affairs would be vastly ameliorated.

The stinging regret which assails the reader is that The Observer confines himself to the cause of the motion picture. One craves to have him extend his efforts to other fields of artistic development. A few paragraphs from his elastic pen might make evident also the supreme absurdity of grand opera and concert music, and thus help to assure to the people their jazz, too often the subject of rude and uncharitable comment. His advice might likewise accomplish much in the realm of art. Influenced by his penetrating and encouraging remarks, people might in time be moved to divorce the misty Corot or Inness from their walls and throne in their stead the vastly stimulating studies of Harrison Fisher, and other members of the front-cover fraternity.

The day is rich in opportunity for just this type of valiant reformation.

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There may be those that question whether a commercial movie discussion has any place in such a committee report as was first contemplated. In reply it may be said that the movies are a powerful influence in giving our children a certain type of education. This education, intellectually and morally, can not be ignored, especially by any one interested in the moral development of our children.

Further, educators need occasionally to say some things about the commercial movie and its influence on the child-life of the Nation. This occasion and this committee report furnish an opportunity. So much for a part of the moral and social background of this problem of visual education in the school.

There are purely academic phases of this question that will engage the attention of this committee. The importance of what the child sees; what type of school work can best be done through pictures; the work of the specialist in visual education; is the still or the moving picture better for classroom use? means of securing visual material for the school; the need of more controlled experiments in visual education; can moving pictures stimulate mental growth? what kind of visual aids are best suited to school use; these and other questions will be touched on by our committee.

Visual education is here and is here to stay. It is for the school people to say what part it shall play in the schoolroom. We have not yet gone as far as we must in our thinking along these lines. Persistence, insistence, team work, clear thinking, on the part of school people and the problems of visual education will be solved.

Quotation from Dr. John J. Tigert, U. S. Commisioner of Education:

In nearly every small town and village—anywhere and everywhere you go throughout the country—you find the movies. They are a part of our life; their scope is constantly being enlarged and improved. What can be done with them as a means of imparting knowledge already has been demonstrated; it is for us to utilize them on a larger scale and adapt them to the peculiar purposes of education. Within that celluloid film lies the most powerful weapon for the attack on ignorance the world has ever known.

VISUAL EDUCATION IN COMMUNITY CENTER WORK

MRS. SUSAN M. DORSEY, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS
LOS ANGELES, CALIFORNIA

So popular and so universal has the motion picture screen become that we unconsciously associate visual education with that particular form of photographic representation. Most of this discussion will be concerned with the motion picture. Before, however, passing to that phase of the subject, it should be urged that for community education there are other types of visual instruction quite as important. An impressive example of what may be done for a community is that of Richmond, Indiana, where earnest-minded, art-loving citizens are accomplishing the progressive education of a whole community through successive exhibits of the best obtainable pictures, with, as a result, the establishment of a permanent gallery of art. This effort in edu-

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cation is not so popular, possibly not so entertaining, as the motion picture screen, but the educational results are doubtless more significant as a permanent residuum of community culture.

As the screen increases in favor there is danger of discounting the educational value of the slide, although hardly any adjunct of visual instruction surpasses the slide in effectiveness for two reasons: It remains within the range of vision so long as desired and lends itself most readily to the illustration of verbal instruction. Few communities in the country are unable to find someone who can provide an evening of the finest kind of instruction with the material furnished by selected slides as a theme.

The film, however, we must admit is the most enticing form of visual representation for adult and child alike. In these days many things are claimed for it by inventors, interested producers, social workers and educators. While some of the claims to value are a bit excessive, he would be rash indeed who would contest the probable supremacy of the film as a visual attraction and a medium of instruction.

When discussing visual education in community center work, the first question that arises is: What community agency can best take responsibility for its introduction, its continuance and its worth-whileness? For it is not enough that pictures be mildly unobjectionable; they should be worth-while in their content if they are to have a place in community center work. They should give a positive uplift, a finer conception of life and, if informational, the information should be of a value and a type that will abide.

The three agencies that suggest themselves as the best media for visual education in the community are the club, the church and the school. Sometimes one of these agencies is the more appropriate, sometimes another, but always the public school offers itself as the most available.

As I write, I recall one Woman's Club that was a true community center, dispensing good, wholesome, hearthside cheer, contributing to the education of a wide-awake community nestled in the foothills, and serving as a veritable center of sweetness and light. Twice each week the doors of the clubhouse, which had been built by popular subscription, were opened for a motion picture entertainment and he who would might enter for a trifling admission fee. On Thanksgiving Day the community dinner was shared by all. Patriotic programs marked recurring anniversaries of great National events and the birthdays of National heroes; a real community center was this and no commercial motion picture house could establish itself, thus insuring to those people their own complete control of education through the film. Would that there were more women's clubs and more clubhouses consecrated so completely to community service.

And the thousands of churches all over the land, dark and damp from disuse throughout the week; if only it were possible to establish the machinery by which these could become, especially in sparsely settled communities, centers of uplift through visual instruction by the slide and the film.

Clubhouses and churches are for the most part semi-private property. The public school is the community's very own, in which all share and on

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which all citizens have a just claim. Hence it is the natural community center and here visual education for the people has a right to lodge.

There are difficulties, however; always the chief of these are inability to finance the project and to set in motion the necessary machinery for satisfactory and continuous programs of visual instruction. The addition to an old school building of a room or auditorium with booth costs money; funds must be had for projection outfit and for the rental or purchase of films; these are discouraging items of expense for a small community and in a great city, where the appliances must be indefinitely multiplied, the cost is almost prohibitive and yet, not prohibitive if only we set about to do it.

This is the way one community solved the problem of the projection outfit; they bargained with the board of education to install the appliance and permit them to refund the board by a series of visual programs at which a small admission fee was charged. It was a great concession on the part of that board as there was a cast-iron rule that only two entertainments with admission fee might be held each year. Once it was found that nothing fatal happened to anyone by the concession, other schools in the district were allowed the same privilege. In this community the superintendent announced to the Parent-Teacher Association at the beginning of the year that it was the intention of the Board of Education and the superintendent, especially to encourage the extension of visual education through the film as the important project of the year. Now, it so happens that there are many strong Parent-Teacher Associations in that city and with one accord they offered their services to compass the purchase of projection outfits. Why not? They would profit by many a delightful afternoon and many an evening with their families at the school center.

The cost of darkening rooms in a fashion not to interfere with ventilation is a stubborn problem. My own conviction is that the one greatest benefit to be conferred by some keen inventor is a satisfactory device by which the motion picture can be shown under daylight and consequently in a well-ventilated room. At the present time the cost of darkening arrangements is very considerable. If anyone has solved this problem for boards of education, who desire to serve their communities in a generous fashion, within reasonable limits, that person is a benefactor. Would that our illustrious countryman, Thomas A. Edison, who has recently announced that the motion picture as an educational medium is destined to render textbooks unnecessary, would confer yet one more blessing upon his America and make it possible for us to view the film out-of-doors with light and air in abundance.

Then there is the problem of safe storage of films, safe for the film and safe for the building and the occupants of the building in which the films are stored. Since city authorities now require cement or other fireproof safes for film storage, this means still more expense for boards of education.

The problem of timely distribution and reliable transportation is no mean one. Nothing is more chilling to a community enterprise than a full house with nothing to show, or with an unsatisfactory substitute. This is so serious a matter that suitable provision should always be made for a substitute program if the film fails to arrive.

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All the problems thus far mentioned have to do with the cost and the machinery of visual education programs in the school house as the community center. They have not touched the really vital considerations of such education, which are the selection of suitable films and the necessary bulletining and advertising connected with film events; and one other adjunct which is almost wholly neglected in motion picture programs, namely, the educational comment.

For the selection and lists of appropriate pictures there should of course be a central committee immediately responsible, but it should be the duty of every teacher, student and good citizen to report to that committee the name of any film known to him to be worth seeing. The education of the community in taste, discernment and good morals goes on through the *selecting process* as well as through the actual visual participation. While communities must sometimes assert themselves, through repudiation and denunciation of the unfit picture or the disqualified actor, as in the Arbuckle controversy, even to the point of forcing compliance with their remonstrances, it is after all through the process of continuous selection of the best and the results of such choice that there comes an education of taste and an establishing of standards that will prove permanently uplifting.

There must of course be devised a plan for bulletining the events; with the school house as a community center, publicity is fairly well assured, as nothing so delights the childs heart as to be the herald of important news. If the school is fortunate enough to have a printing press, the work of publicity is greatly expedited, while the setting up of the necessary notices furnishes training material for the young printer.

If, however, the film is to do its perfect work some one should be able to *speak* of its significance and to call attention to its high points educationally. It is a great mistake to suppose that mere motion elucidates, far from it. Quite as often the motion interferes with the fullest grasp of the picture content, confuses instead of clarifies. Just listlessly to watch congeries of moving objects with screen comment of uncertain value is not necessarily educational. I recently saw a series of beautiful pictures of ancient Rome; not one in one hundred of the audience carried away anything of value because they knew nothing of what they saw. In picture seeing this uninformed gazing is the same sort of dissipation as incessant story reading with no other purpose than a passing fancy.

By all means let visual education have its full fruition in the school house as a community center, let school authorities relax a little their sense of ownership and coöperate with interested and intelligent citizens to make the school property serve the highest interest of the entire community. There is no more senseless extravagance than great masses of costly school masonry dead, inert, useless, night after night when they might be throbbing with light and life, while the community through visual representation might be receiving an educational and spiritual uplift. The drawing power of the motion picture should be frankly acknowledged and community leaders should set themselves to turn the "movie habit into educational account" through the public schools as a community center.

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THE CHILD AND THE COMMERCIAL MOVING PICTURE

OLIVE M. JONES, PRINCIPAL, SCHOOL NO. 120, NEW YORK CITY

There are four viewpoints from which to consider this subject: (1) The child in relation to moving picture shows as existing only for commercial profit; (2) the child in relation to the possibility of producing pictures of educational value and yet with possibility of profit for producers; (3) the question of how teachers can aid in the solution of either problem; and (4) the suspicion of commercialism sometimes attached to teachers advocating moving pictures and other visual aids.

I touch on the last first because I believe it can be dismissed in a few words. I don't believe it has many fields, in fact, any basis except the difficulties of unbeliefs and suspicion always attached to what is new. For commercialism in the sense of undue or unjust profit to exist in connection with the introduction of any accomplishment in the schools two conditions must first exist: first, in regard to its introduction; second, the possibility of profit unexcelled in its introduction. Neither of these conditions exist.

In the field of visual education competition is open to all and there is no closed list of supplies. Furthermore, the producers of educational films cannot make money enough to bribe or influence any one. There is no market for their goods in the commercial picture house and boards of education are not yet appropriating money enough to make increases in profit attractive enough to induce commercial producers to go into that field.

I want next to speak of children in relation to moving picture shows in houses run for commercial profit, and I want to speak from the point of view of the practical teacher who keeps informed of what is occupying the minds of the children in her class. From this standpoint the commercial moving picture is doing several things to our school children. Dr. Ettinger, our school superintendent in New York, made an address last fall which he called, "Face the Facts." It compelled us to look squarely in the face the questions of the progress the children are making through the grades and the relation of our courses of study to retardation. Similarly let us face the facts regarding the moving pictures.

Hitherto most teachers have spent their time in vain against the evils of moving pictures and bewailed their influence on children. Let us face the fact that the moving picture is here to stay like the theatre. Let us face the fact that the moving picture is a non-removable factor in children's lives and consider wherein it is evil and wherein it is good.

Considering the evil effect first, we find that moving pictures make too strong an appeal to imagination. It wakes up and stirs imagination without giving it proper direction or training. Secondly, the moving picture shows certain lines of behavior and tempts the observer to imitate—matters which ought to be left to imagination or never known. Thirdly, the moving picture is at present a temptation to superficial and to disconnected bits of knowledge instead of thoroughness and organized knowledge.

On the other side of the picture, we find three results on children's interests which are desirously good. First, the moving picture does give knowledge

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and information not otherwise obtainable by the average child in public schools, especially in our big cities. A New York City teacher can give children a definition of "canyon," but no child there has the opportunity to drive through wonderful canyons or get in any other way a clear impression, because words fail to give it, but the moving picture does. In the second place the moving picture rouses interest in objects of knowledge otherwise closed books to those same children. The children here in California know what an orchard is. The child in New York City, years ago, would have listened to the teacher talk about an orchard or would have learned it as a word in spelling. The moving picture has taught him what an orchard is. Third, and most important of all to my mind, the moving picture has provided a victorious rival for the corner gang, the pool room, and the crap game for a child in the city streets. The third question, How can teachers aid in the problems arising from the commercial moving picture?, is the most important of all and I want briefly to make certain suggestions.

(1) Bring the moving picture to the school and make it a means of education rather than trifling amusement.

(2) Coöperate with the producers so that they will comprehend our point of view and not think us creatures of blind prejudices and possible ignorance.

(3) Educators write the best textbooks for the publications. Let teachers become the best writers of scenarios and themes for the film producers.

(4) Guide children as to the films they should see as we now do the places they should see and the literature they should read.

(5) Do not try to keep children away from moving pictures but train their taste in what to see and teach the producer what we, as teachers, think artistic and moral.

(6) Make use of the moving pictures which the children see in your classroom exercises.

To illustrate concretely a recent school test in composition given to graduates from the eighth year classes in elementary schools required children to combine their study of literature with their attendance upon moving pictures by means of the following questions:

(a) Write the scenario you would use to produce as a moving picture, the scene between Brutus and Cassius.

(b) What captions would you use selecting them from the material provided between words spoken by each character in the scene between Brutus and Cassius.

(c) What staging and scenery effects would be required to produce the picture.

The last point is the possibility of producing pictures which children should see and which would at this time permit commercial profit for their producers. We cannot, as teachers, become producers of moving pictures. That is a business in itself. But we can combine with them in organizations for mutual benefit. The great precedent for this was established long years ago in the relations between the producers of textbooks and teachers.

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VISUAL AIDS AND HOW TO HANDLE THEM

ERNEST L. CRANDALL, DIRECTOR OF LECTURES AND VISUAL INSTRUCTION
NEW YORK CITY

Visual aids may be divided into four general classes or types: (1) Real objects, (2) loose pictures, (3) stereopticon views, and (4) motion pictures. Each type has its peculiar characteristics and should be handled accordingly. I believe the paramount question is when each particular type is most appropriately applied—that is, at what psychological age of the child and also at what stage of the lesson or recitation. Too little attention has been paid to this vital consideration.

Personally, I should apply them in the order named, objects, pictures, slides, and films. I am convinced, for example, that the motion picture should come later than the slide, later in the child's development and later in the lesson.

Let me state it in another way. These visual aids should come earliest which involve some physical activity, because the motor impulses are dominant in the earlier years. Those should come latest which exact most mental activity, to fit the child's maturing mentality. I would let a small child handle objects. I would show an older child motion pictures. Likewise I would start a lesson with specimens and I would conclude it with a film, because, other things being equal, I believe the development of a lesson should follow the same lines as the child's psychological evolution.

Of course, under proper conditions all visual aids may be used interchangeably at all ages and stages. I am merely stating a general principle. Let us see whether closer examination of each type will bring us nearer to its appropriate use.

Real objects—With real objects the child comes in contact in three ways: (a) Excursions, (b) specimens, (c) experiments. The excursion is an invaluable teaching device, particularly with younger children. It is virtually the only means of introducing the little folks to certain geographical concepts, such as land forms, water forms, and points of the compass. At this stage it has the great advantage of bringing into play the motor impulses so strong in the young child.

Later, naturalist hikes, museum visits and shop and plant excursions may and should be added.

If you cannot take your children from the building, there are two recourses: (1) The mental excursion—reminding the children of objects and scenes known to be familiar; and (2) the classroom excursion. For example, if you are studying a group of States, have the pupils label certain desks, suitably grouped, as States. They may then distribute specimen products brought from home—an egg for Ohio, any steel object for Indiana, a jar of bacon for Illinois, a picture of a Ford for Michigan, etc. Finally let selected pupils conduct interstate excursions. The essential point is to elicit self-activity, particularly of the motor type.

Speaking of specimens, every class should have its own specimen collections, especially an industrial collection, for geography is largely a study of the

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sources of the great primal necessities, food, clothing, and shelter. Do not aim at gorgeous, immaculately labeled collections securely locked behind glass. Let each class make its own collection, which it can handle freely. This provides an outlet for the hoarding or collecting instinct, induces self activity and furnishes an excellent class project.

Under the general heading of specimens, one may also include models of various sorts. It scarcely need be added that where practicable these should likewise be made by the pupils and preferably through coöperative effort.

Of the experiment little need be said. It is firmly entrenched in modern school practice. My own observation is that the elementary general science teacher uses it more effectively than most high school physics and chemistry teachers, for he invariably makes it the initial step of the lesson—which it should be.

Loose pictures—Under loose pictures may be designated (a) the illustrated text; (b) photographs and their reproductions, chiefly available to the teacher in the form of post cards and illustrations clipped from current periodicals; (c) posters; and (d) stereographs.

The illustrated text is perhaps the oldest of visual aids. It is still badly made and badly used, however, because neither author nor teacher builds the lesson around the pictures. Examine a real illustrated text, such as those put out by the American Viewpoint Society and you will see what I mean.

Like the specimen collection, the making of a model scrap-book to which each pupil contributes post-cards, illustrations and clippings, is a suitable class project. Here the teacher again utilizes the rather troublesome collecting instinct, so strong in boys at a certain age, and socializes it by applying it to the common good.

Another effective use of post-cards and small pictures applies equally to posters. Both should be used to dress up the bulletin board and classroom walls, the girl's instinct for self-adornment, usually appearing at about the same age as the boy's collecting craze, can thus also be sublimated and made to serve a useful and a social purpose.

Many valuable industrial posters are obtainable. Also, every teacher should know the National Child Welfare Association's wonderful posters, which are sold at cost.

Everything thus posted should also be vitalized for the pupils through some class exercise, preferably conducted by a member of the class.

Among loose picture devices must be reckoned the stereograph and stereoscope. The illusion of reality conveyed by this marvelous little instrument makes an indelible impression. A well indexed set of stereographs should be in every school library, for the use of the upper grades. In the lower grades the best usage is to leave two scopes, with two or three pictures each, on each window sill for two or three days. This enables the youngsters to examine them at their leisure. Then whip the whole series into a coherent weekly or bi-weekly lesson, by reproducing the same subjects on the screen. If this is impracticable, review the series by question and answer.

Thus the motor impluse is utilized by having the children leave their seats and handle the pictures themselves; and mental coördination of retained visual images is effected by the review.

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Stereopticon views—This brings us to the slide or stereopticon view, which must always remain the staple among visual aids, especially in the development stage of the lesson.

Useful for all ages, the slide is virtually indispensable with pre-adolescents. By shutting out distractions and facilitating concentration upon a leisurely series of agreeable images, it lends itself to an intimate give and take of observation, inference and judgment that can be secured by no other means of which I am aware.

Yet the slide is frequently misapplied. Except with college classes, its use merely to embellish a lecture, robs it of its value as a teaching aid. The stereopticon is essentially a classroom instrument, better dispensed with altogether, unless used in the intimate manner indicated.

Motion pictures—Last but not least comes the motion picture. Last in its application to the lesson, because it presents essentially a review, a summation, a coördination of the detached percepts and concepts of which the lesson has been built up. Last also with reference to the child's psychological age, because it addresses itself to powers of coördination, imagination, judgment, and consecutive thinking, rarely well developed below the seventh and eighth grade. Last in all these senses, but, when properly applied, the crowning glory of the whole visual instruction edifice.

To convince ourselves of this, we have only to reflect how even the theatrical screen has broadened life's horizon for the masses.

No door is shut to the camera's all-seeing eye, no barrier deters, no distance daunts. It mounts up into the air, rides upon the wind, and is companion to the cloud. It dives into the ocean's depths and brings forth the slimy secrets of the vasty deep. It penetrates alike the frozen fastnesses of the North and the tropic jungles of the Equator, bringing back a faithful record of the life history of bird and beast and reptile, as well as the manners, customs, and habit of thought of strange and divers peoples.

It follows the statesman into his cabinet, mounts the bench with justice and accompanies the soldier out upon the field of battle. When the "rockets red glare, the bombs bursting in air" have been translated from poetic trope to grim reality, it again follows the wounded soldier into the hospital. Plunging after the surgeon's knife amid nerves and tissues, it preserves the life-saving operation for future generations of medical skill.

It takes unto itself the telescope of the astronomer and the microscope of the scientist. It dissects and analyses all manner of cell formations, traces the genesis of life, counts the red corpuscles as they course through the blood vessels, spies upon the virgin crystal, rising like Venus from its bath in the chemical solution, and reproduces mimetically the battle of the electrons, thus visualizing the whole structure of organic and inorganic matter.

It fixes upon the tell-tale celluloid the record of world affairs and of the human drama of today, revitalizes the story of the past both in history and in romance, and lends a subtle aid to man's speculative impulse to prefigure ages yet to come.

Yet its very power renders the film of all visual aids the most difficult and dangerous to handle. Merely turned loose upon the plastic mind of youth, its

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effect may be deadening, if not devastating. Its proper application requires judgment, skill and constant study. Unlike the slide it may safely be used for mass instruction; but in that case, and in any case, the ground must be cultivated in advance and results carefully checked up afterwards.

May I offer a summary of my conclusions, in the shape of a concrete illustration? If I were to teach a lesson on cotton to a third or fourth year class, I would begin with a collection of cotton products and I would probably end by letting the pupils examine some post-cards, cuts, or stereographs. If I were teaching the same lesson to a fifth or sixth year class, I would begin in the same way, and probably wind up with a stereopticon lesson. If the class were a seventh or eighth year class, I would omit no single step, but I would add the motion picture.

Many may not accept all my conclusions, but I think we shall all agree that each of these typical visual aids must play its particular rôle in the teaching process; and that a large part of our problem is to allocate to each its own most effective place and function.

THE STATUS OF THE AMERICAN WOMAN TEACHER

ANNA LAURA FORCE, PRINCIPAL, LINCOLN SCHOOL
DENVER, COLORADO

This is the third report made to the National Council of Education upon The Status of the American Woman Teacher. The first report, given at Boston at the summer meeting, was a careful analysis and organization of data collected from questionnaires prepared by members of the committee and sent out to superintendents and teachers. In February these reports were continued. Legal, financial, and social status were discussed, also the status of the rural teacher.

It is conceded by all interested in public-school education that the status of the teacher is rapidly changing. Since the last meeting of the council, important educational legislation has been accomplished in several States. In Colorado the minimum salary law which was passed two years ago was amended, but that part affecting salaries of teachers commensurate with preparation and experience remained unchanged. The new certification law passed by the last session of the legislature will do more to change status of the rural teacher than any ever placed upon the statute books. It provides for a gradual raising of standards to obtain a county certificate until 1921, when an applicant must have two years normal training beyond the high school. All county examinations shall be arranged and graded by the superintendent's department, thereby securing uniformity in grading. Certificates issued under these examinations are valid in any county or district in the State. The purpose of the law is to provide a trained teacher for every school in Colorado.

Changes in economic and legal status is largely responsible for the teachers' professional advancement. She is encouraged in every way to improve her

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work by attendance at summer school, in extension work and participation in administrative matters that involve her special problems. She has opportunities for taking part in curriculum making as well as in experiments for scientific investigation. She need no longer work in the dark. Use of intelligence and educational tests diagnose perplexing situations in the classroom which in the past have remained unsolved. Her teaching technique is based upon educational principles and aims. New materials, books and class aids, also an abundance of professional literature, books, and magazines on every phase of educational practice are available.

Identification with professional organizations—local, State, and National —give her an opportunity to broaden her vision and to help shape the destiny of the American public-school system. The public expects expert service. Teachers must be ready. All need to get big conceptions of social possibilities of education. The beginning of a true profession is being laid, if the teacher will pay the price by preparation and continuous study. It has been said that in the making of wise and competent teachers, man finds the fulcrum that will lift the world. As the status changes, the profession will be acknowledged, duly honored and appreciated.

We shall consider more definitely at this meeting the professional status of the teacher. The subject uppermost in the minds of administrators today is supervision. This kind of educational practice has been regarded as an unknown field. The nature of supervision and the character of criticism will largely determine the quality of excellence of classroom procedure.

Some one must be responsible that the instruction in every way meets acceptable standards of excellence. Some one must be responsible for organizing opportunities for teachers to learn and to grow and for seeing that they do learn and do grow. There must be emphasis upon results obtained and technical skill displayed. Increased professional training increases efficiency.

"Efficiency in teachers is joy; it means power; it lessens work; it lightens burdens; it illumines the room; it exalts the spirit; it elevates the classroom procedure into an art."

WOMAN'S PERSONALITY IN TEACHING—ABSTRACT

A. E. WINSHIP, EDITOR, JOURNAL OF EDUCATION, BOSTON, MASSACHUSETTS

Teaching is an art rather than a science. Education is a science rather than an art. While there are men gifted in the art of teaching and women devoted to the science of education, the feminine qualities in woman magnify her skill in the art of teaching.

The main characteristic of the art of teaching is appreciation of the individual rather than the group, of the child rather than the subject, in winning rather than domineering. A woman puts a dimmer on the feminine in her nature if she is a better general of a group than a comrade of individuals.

Art in teaching is measured by the effect upon the child learning the best things in the best way when he makes his own choice of what to learn and

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how to learn it. The feminine mind thinks of the child's tomorrow just as she thinks of the beautiful fragrant rose when she sees the bud.

Feminine personality is indispensable in the elementary grades. A teacher in the elementary grades without a feminine personality is a professional moron. Feminine personality without subject method training is better than subject method training without feminine personality. For one who worships subject methods supremely to try to teach the art of teaching to women is a professional tragedy.

For a teacher-training institution to give professional credit for knowledge of subject methods and refuse credit for personality in the art of teaching children in the elementary grades is a professional crime. To test and measure children's ability in subject methods and not test them for the influence of the teacher's personality is absurd.

SUPERVISION BY THE PRINCIPALS

JESSIE M. HAMILTON, PRINCIPAL, MOREY JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL
DENVER, COLORADO

There is probably no phase of education toward which our views have changed more during the last few years than toward "Supervision of Instruction." This field of work is necessary if we are to gain better results in teaching. It is a fundamental principle in all that pertains to life, that there must be either growth or decline—living things can not stand still. This same principle holds equally true with teaching, it is either growing better or worse. It is the teacher's right to expect all the help and encouragement necessary for her greatest improvement.

The success of supervision will depend very largely upon the attitude taken toward it by the supervisors and principals.

It has not been long since supervision was regarded almost entirely from the standpoint of inspection. It meant to look for poor work, to tear it to pieces as a foundation upon which to build something better. Fortunately for all concerned, that idea has gradually changed until now the best accepted meaning of the word could be used synonymously with "inspiration." The part taken in supervision by the principal on account of manifold duties is much more limited and quite different from that of the supervisor, the major part of whose work is to supervise. There should be no difference, however, in preparation, background, ideals, or standards. In order to be a good supervisor, the principal must be the leader of his school in all educational matters. I believe it is safe to say that one of the greatest single causes of waste in our schools is due as much to poor leadership and direction, as to incompetency on the part of teachers.

The principal should have, first of all, a broad general education as a necessary background. He should have a knowledge of the aims and underlying principles of education. He should know the fundamental issues and the guiding principles as revealed in the philosophy of education.

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He should study closely all the problems bearing upon his work, as well as keep informed on current practices.

He should know the principles which underlie the best practices in the field of method.

He must have the confidence and coöperation of his faculty—the kind of confidence that is based on mutual understanding, sympathy and honesty of purpose. He must be able to analyze a situation quickly and correctly. However good his mental equipment may be in other directions, he can do but little to justify his position if he is unable to determine the good and poor points in teaching. Power of analysis is one of the determining factors of a good supervisor.

It is just as important for the principal to organize his supervisory work in a careful systematic way as it is to have systematic administration. Various methods of supervision may be employed but to secure the best results with a minimum loss of time requires a carefully worked out plan which will include the orienting of teachers, classroom visitation and follow-up work. It is well for the principal, in making his plan, to recognize the fact that his teachers are intelligent men and women of ability, whose judgment is valuable and that it is their desire not only to be successful in their work but to be happy in it.

In our study of supervision, let us eliminate all phases of the work that are merely inspectorial and give our attention to coöperative supervision. I like the term " coöperative supervision " because it calls for the attitudes and practices which are present when the teachers and principal are working together on educational problems that are of vital interest to the welfare of the school. Since teachers should have a larger part in determining the educational aims and ideals reflected by the school one of the major functions of supervision should be to provide opportunities for the study, reflection and discussion of the fundamental issues. Revision of curricula affords one of the greatest opportunities for this professional growth. It not only gives the teacher an opportunity to show her initiative in her particular field of work but gives her a comprehensive view of the situation as a whole. It is unfortunate for any school system if the time ever comes when its curricula are entirely furnished.

After the principal has succeeded in stimulating a health interest in professional development will be the time to work directly for the improvement of classroom instruction. You will find that many of the phases of orienting the teacher will have had a very direct influence on her classroom work. When the spring term has closed and you are far enough away from your job to get the right perspective on it, is a good time for the principal to take stock of himself and what he has accomplished. This sometimes turns out to be a very painful and discouraging operation. However, you will recover and if you have been perfectly honest with yourself you will be much better for it. Let me suggest that this is also a good time to look forward to the coming year. Very few principals at the beginning of the year are fortunate enough to have all of their previous faculty or a homogeneous group so far as skill in teaching is concerned.

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This in many ways is not a disadvantage. It furnishes a good excuse for again emphasizing important points which were not fully grasped by all the teachers. It is well to have clearly in mind the supervision for the entire year.

Having had a number of years experience in this work, I fully realize the obstacles to be overcome and the demands made upon the principal's time. Nevertheless, you will have fewer regrets when inventory time comes again if you have tried to follow a definite plan.

With your permission I will give you a hasty summary of a year's work which I have attempted to carry out. In the beginning, I should like to say that we are most fortunate in our city, in having an administrative staff which is not only vitally interested in supervision from the new viewpoint, but also willing to give assistance at any time. There is nothing new in the plan I am about to offer, it merely shows one of the many kinds of organizations which is possible and it has helped in improving instruction and building up a better professional morale in the faculty.

The work was divided into three phases—preparing teachers for the work, demonstration lessons, classroom visitation and other forms of follow-up work. The greater part of this work, with the exception of the principal's visit, was done by the teachers themselves.

During the early weeks of school all teachers read certain portions of McMurry's "Elementary School Standards," and Betts' "Principles of the Recitation." The parts to be read had been carefully selected in advance so as to have a direct bearing upon our topic for study which was "The Recitation." Then a number of faculty meetings were given over to the discussion of the readings. This discussion brought out the different types of recitation, methods of presenting a lesson, and the procedure. It also helped us to have clearly in mind standards by which to judge a recitation.

One of the best outgrowths was that all the teachers had their attention focused on certain fundamental things which are necessary to a good recitation. They were discussing these things among themselves and were striving to put them into practice in their daily work. After these principles were well in mind, classes were taught to demonstrate what we had been studying.

Each teacher had a copy of standards for judging. These classes were taught in different subjects followed by a discussion as to the application of the fundamental principles of the recitation. During this work teachers frequently spent their free hour in visiting classes of other teachers in the same line.

The principal's visitations may be conducted in a number of ways, but they must be made through an entire class period—preferably two days in succession.

Haphazard, occasional visits are of no value in supervision, they can only be of an inspectorial nature. Visits may be planned by grades, by subjects or by following one class for a certain length of time. All of these plans have both their advantages and their disadvantages. I prefer visiting by subjects. However, in this plan care must be exercised to see that all the grades are visited equally.

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When all the teachers of any one subject had been visited and each one of those teachers had visited at least one other teacher of the same subject, a general conference of the group was called. The strong and weak points of the work were discussed in an impersonal way, questions were asked, ideas and plans were exchanged. This plan was used in all subjects. Following these conferences you will find that more and more the teachers will come to you for personal interviews. This is a splendid opportunity to discuss a particular method, or the peculiar weaknesses of that teacher. The principal, in these conferences, must avoid being too critical, he must have a helpful friendly attitude or he will defeat the very end for which he is working.

Occasionally it becomes necessary, when all other means have apparently failed, for the principal to ask for an interview with a teacher in which he should tell her frankly of her shortcomings and insist that there be a change in a reasonable time. This work is not for the purpose of rating teachers but for the improvement of instruction. It is well for us as supervisors to make the teachers feel that they have a real part in the organization of the school, that they are working with us, not for us, in the upbuilding of "our" not "my" school.

ATTITUDE OF THE TEACHER TOWARD SUPERVISION

JESSE H. NEWLON, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS
DENVER, COLORADO

The success of America's great experiment in public education will be determined to a large extent by the attitude of the classroom teacher towards supervision.

It ought to be unnecessary at this late day to present arguments in justification of supervision. In an enterprise which expends approximately a billion dollars annually supervision is necessary to guarantee that this money will be used most effectively in the interests of the boys and girls. In a given school system it is necessary that there be a certain unity of purpose and coöperation. This can be obtained only by supervision. Many of the teachers employed in the schools of America are not well trained for their work. Such teachers are in need of supervision in order that they may be trained in service. A large number of inexperienced teachers take up their duties each year. These teachers need supervision in order that they may more quickly master their work. Supervision is needed to stimulate the most experienced and most successful teachers in the school system to keep them alert to the best work that is being done educationally throughout the world.

No system of supervision will function unless the attitude of the classroom teacher towards it is one of sympathetic coöperation. The attitude of the teacher will be determined by two factors of equal importance. It will be determined first of all by the kind of supervision that is attempted, and, second, by the teacher's professional and personal spirit and outlook.

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In the past supervision has been chiefly inspectorial, fault finding, and mechanical in character. If one were to judge by current writings on the subject, supervision is still largely of this type. You will still find the point of view frequently expressed that the supervisor is responsible for the work of the teacher, that the supervisor must place in the hands of the teacher a course of study with definite instructions as to methods to be used.

Time will not permit of a detailed discussion of the spirit that imbues present day supervision. I shall satisfy myself with the assertion that, with a shining exception here and there, and in spite of the good intentions of most supervisors, supervision is too arbitrary and misses its great opportunity for constructive leadership. If we are to expect a sympathetic, coöperative attitude towards supervision on the part of the classroom teacher, we must in some way get rid of the old idea that the chief function of the supervisor is to give directions and to hold the teacher responsible for a minute following of these directions. I conceive of the supervisor as a leader charged with the responsibility of organizing a teaching force for the study of its professional problems. Recently in an address before a group of supervisors I listed a number of supervisory activities in what I conceive to be the approximate order of their importance as follows:

1. The organization of the teaching staff for the study of general professional problems.

2. The organization of the staff for the revision of curricula and methods of teaching.

3. The organization of carefully controlled experimentation and research in curricula and methods.

4. The organization of demonstration teaching, this teaching to be done by teachers rather than by supervisors.

5. Visitation of class work: First, for the purpose of determining how methods and curricula determined upon in conference are working out in the classroom; second, to observe the work of the individual teacher with a view to carrying suggestions to other teachers; and, finally, with a view to giving constructive suggestions when necessary to the teacher visited.

6. Conference on occasion with teachers following class visitation. There is more bunk going the rounds about conferences between teachers and supervisors than about any other phase of supervision. Sometimes such conferences are of value.

You will note that in this catalogue the inspectional functions of supervision are rated as of decidedly the least importance. In speaking of the function of the teacher I said that any system of supervision is a failure that does not free the teacher and give her a wider opportunity for the exercise of initiative and for displaying outstanding abilities as an instructor and leader.

Teachers cannot be expected to take a sympathetic and coöperative attitude towards supervision until we change our conception of supervision. Indeed, supervision is a most unfortunate word, for it does not connote the conception that I have of what supervision should be. It does not express the ideas of leadership, of stimulation, of coöperation that should be a part of all true

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supervision. A new term should be found. Many of our troubles will be over when that word is discovered.

The problems of supervision will never be solved until the teacher takes a correct attitude. The teacher who proceeds on the assumption that supervision is unnecessary is hopeless. There are many teachers who resent supervision of any kind. Frequently they are the poorest teachers in the school system, although they are generally the most talkative, and frequently they are accorded places of leadership in teachers' organizations. One of the greatest responsibilities and opportunities that confront associations of teachers is that of facing squarely this problem of the attitude of the teacher towards supervision. The problem can be solved only when the teaching body and administrative staff are willing to meet on a common ground for a study of the issues involved.

Perhaps the greatest professional fight which both the supervisor and the teacher have to make is the fight against the tendency of the human being to view these questions from a purely personal standpoint. We can never make teaching a real profession until we can eliminate personalities and see our work from a more detached viewpoint.

Similarly the success of those engaged in school administration may be measured by their ability to view their responsibilities impersonally. Mind you, I speak of their success in administration and not of success in securing and holding positions. Sometimes the teacher who takes the most personal viewpoint is, for the time being at least, the most politic. And this is true quite as much of superintendents as of teachers. We need a crusade in our profession against the practice of viewing our work from purely personal viewpoints. The teacher then has a great responsibility if the supervision of instruction is to be placed on the right basis.

I know of no greater opportunity for constructive work than presents itself to the National Education Association or to the National Council of Education than the opportunity of studying the field of supervision and formulating a policy, a statement that will set forth the best thinking on this problem to date. A great commission should be created for this work. This commission should have on it a large representation of classroom teachers.

I do not wish to seem unduly pessimistic as to the present conditions. My observation has been that the best teaching staffs of the country may be divided into three groups as regards the attitude of the teachers towards supervision. The large body of teachers are going about their daily tasks without complaints of supervision. These teachers are loyal and devoted and for the most part are doing good work. Their failure to complain is unfortunately too frequently due to the fact that they are not as alert as they ought to be to the conditions which exist. The best teachers in the school system are crying out for more supervision. I could name twenty outstanding teachers in the city of Denver who have said to me within the last year that they are in need of more supervisory assistance; that there ought to be more supervision rather than less. These are the teachers who make the schools.

There is a small minority who are opposed to any kind of supervision. These are the people who do the most talking. Without intending, they are

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disloyal to the cause of public education. The unprincipled newspaper that wishes to attack a school system or administration can always find such teachers who are willing to criticise the administration for its methods of supervision. Such teachers are a menace to our profession, and their numbers should be eliminated, first, by educating them to a more sensible point of view; and, second, by eliminating from the system those whose point of view is so anti-professional that they cannot adjust themselves to new conditions. But this process of elimination cannot be carried on to any great extent by a school administration. It is a responsibility that must be faced by the teachers themselves. Every local teachers' association should take up the study of this problem of supervision. What is needed is more light.

I always finish a talk of this kind with a desire to pay a tribute to the woman teacher. When I utter words of criticism that are applicable only to a few, I think of the great body of women who are pouring out their lives in devotion to the work of public education. When I think of these teachers, I am conscious of the grave weaknesses that exist in our system of supervision, of the failure on the part of supervisors to measure up to their responsibilities of leadership, and I am reminded that neither the teacher nor the supervisor is in a position to throw stones. The crying need is that we should lay aside our petty prejudices and preconceived notions on this important subject and join one another in an attempt to find a solution.

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Department of Business Education

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FIRST SESSION—MONDAY AFTERNOON, JULY 2, 1923

FUNDAMENTAL OBJECTIVES IN COMMERCIAL EDUCATION

AS THE PERSONNEL MANAGER SEES THEM—Roy W Kelly, Personnel Director, Associated Oil Company, San Francisco, California.

AS THE SALES MANAGER SEES THEM—R. H. Mouser, Assistant District Manager, Equitable Life Assurance Company, Oakland, California.

AS AN EMPLOYER SEES THEM—F. Dohrmann, Jr., President, Board of Education, City and County of San Francisco, San Francisco, California.

IN A STATE EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM—Melvin S. Lewis, State Director for Vocational Education, Boise, Idaho.[1]

SECOND SESSION—THURSDAY AFTERNOON, JULY 5, 1923

FUNDAMENTALS IN METHODS

THE PSYCHOLOGY OF HABIT FORMATION—J. V. Breitwieser, Department of Education, University of California, Berkeley, California.

METHODS OF TEACHING TYPEWRITING BASED UPON A PSYCHOLOGICAL ANALYSIS OF EXPERT TYPISTS—J. E. Coover, Department of Psychology, Stanford University, California.

Demonstration by expert typists to illustrate the points brought out in address.

At the business meeting which followed these officers were elected:

President, F. G. Nichols, Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts.

Vice-President, Frederick R. Beygrau, Evander Childs High School, New York City.

Secretary, Dr. Laura H. Cadwallader, South Philadelphia High School for Girls, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.

[1] This address is published in full in *Vocational Education Magazine*, October, 1923.

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FUNDAMENTAL OBJECTIVES IN COMMERCIAL EDUCATION AS VIEWED BY THE PERSONNEL MANAGER

ROY WILLMARTH KELLY, MANAGER, INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS, ASSOCIATED OIL COMPANY, SAN FRANCISCO, CALIFORNIA

The average applicant who comes to us from high school or college falls into one of three different classes. A few applicants come from schools where they have been well trained for specific kinds of work. Many have had a broad, general training, but no preparation whatever for making a beginning in any of the opportunities which we are able to offer them. A third group has had the same broad general training, but has acquired sufficient experience in summer vacations or otherwise to give them adequate preparation to make a satisfactory start.

The personnel manager's chief criticism of the present methods of commercial education, as well as of public education in general, may be summarized by saying that they do not sufficiently prepare the student to make the right beginning as a bread-winner. Our point of view may be exemplified by referring to what many of the firms in San Francisco are now accomplishing in training office boys. The office boy of today, in a well-managed corporation, commands a good wage, his duties are standardized, and he is offered a variety of excellent promotional opportunities. In fact, the position is so attractive in some of the larger corporations that young college men can well afford to start as hall boys because of the chances given them to learn the business.

Office managers realize that a few lost orders, delays in delivering important messages, or affronts to distinguished visitors cost the firm many times the amount expended for training and supervision. The desire to secure efficient employees has been the reason for introducing training courses for office boys and junior clerks. At the present time there are in San Francisco probably a dozen firms carrying on work of this kind. Prominent among them are two large oil companies, several department stores, a packing corporation, and an insurance company.

The basic ideal in all of these courses is not to acquaint the student with the requirements of the individual jobs, nor the products handled by the company. It is to give the boy a broad general preparation upon which he can make satisfactory advancement as he continues with the firm. Incidentally, of course, he is made as highly efficient as possible in the job for which he was hired.

None of the public day schools, and only a few of the part-time extension classes, have recognized the need for such training as these firms provide. Much of it could be done just as effectively by the school and in many cases, it could be done much more effectively by the local educational officers than by the company, because of the lack of trained industrial teachers.

What is true of the office boy is true of salesmen, the general run of office employees, and such jobs as service-station attendants, inspectors, collectors,

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and agents representing small divisions of manufacturing concerns or establishments doing a retail business. A great majority of such persons lack skill in the fundamental operations. They need additional training in business mathematics, their penmanship is very poor, their use of English is a disgrace, and even stenographers are traditionally poor spellers.

Courtesy combined with the simple requirements of business etiquette is one of the things which every school ought to lay stress upon, and yet not one teacher in a thousand is sufficiently acquainted with the routine of everyday business life to give the practical instruction required. Business correspondence, filing, and the use of the more common office appliances, are, of course, important for the beginning student.

Every young person who goes into business ought to know something of the elements of successful saving and investment. The practice of thrift is altogether too much neglected, and largely because of the failure on the part of schools to acquaint their students with such matters as life insurance, the facilities offered by savings banks, and the safeguards to be borne in mind in purchasing bonds or stocks.

A study of thrift can easily be made to lead to the study of general business economics. Scores of progressive companies are beginning to sell their corporate securities to employees, and unless these employees understand the fundamentals of corporate finance and some of the underlying principles upon which good business management rests, they are not really partners in the enterprise but merely forced depositors of small amounts of capital.

Radicalism receives its chief set-back from the widespread education of employees in the elements of economics. Too much stress cannot be laid upon the importance of training commercial students in this subject.

For the advanced student, more emphasis needs to be laid upon an understanding of the functions of the various departments and divisions of a typical growing concern. There is too often a lack of coöperation among departments because of ignorance of the problems faced by other divisions of the company, and this in part, of course, goes back to faulty training during the school period.

The president of one of California's largest public utility corporations, in a recent address to a group of engineers, pointed out that engineers generally failed to make good as executives because of their failure to study the problems of other departments in the business, such as marketing, purchasing, personnel, and office management. What is true of the engineer is true, of course, in the same degree of men who specialize in other departments.

Industry today faces a dilemma. It must either establish its own training courses in the fundamentals, which is an expensive and unnecessary procedure, or it must in some way encourage the active coöperation of the already established educational institutions so that better preparation will be given for those who join its ranks. We estimate that not less than 50 per cent of all the students who come to us from the colleges and high schools have no adequate preparation for making a beginning. They must, of course, be given some instruction in our own methods of doing business,

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and this part of the training program no business house can delegate to other hands. It must be remembered, however, that the practical foundations can be laid in the classroom and the commercial laboratory for an easier beginning and a more rapid promotion to positions of greater responsibility.

THE FUNDAMENTALS OF COMMERCIAL EDUCATION AS A SALES MANAGER SEES THEM

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It is said that 82 per cent of the several millions of children under fourteen years of age in this country leave school before finishing the eighth grade. From this vast army come the hundreds of thousands of young men and women who, with the awakening of ambition and the realization of the necessity of special training, knock at the doors of vocational and commercial schools. Therefore the importance of commercial education cannot be too strongly emphasized. Business itself is coming to recognize this more and more and, in fact, much of the scientific knowledge at hand regarding commercial principles and practices has been evolved by business itself. But, with all the splendid progress which has been made by business and by our schools in the field of commercial education, there still exists an urgent need among the millions of men and women engaged in all departments of commercial life for a more efficient grasp of their routine duties; a more comprehensive understanding of the commercial objective, and a more thoroughly scientific approach to business details. Indeed, as John A. Lapp has said, "Specific education for the innumerable departments of business, education that will reduce business to a science and meet squarely the imminent problems of the commercial vocations, is our crying need at this time." For, as Cheesman A. Herrick has written, "Business now means more than a rule of thumb; it is complex, intricate, scientific, and those who are to engage in it need a different equipment than has hitherto been thought sufficient."

In speaking of information and training needed in all business Carl H. Mote says, "Penmanship, commercial arithmetic, bookkeeping, commercial geography, the natural sciences, typewriting and stenography, industrial history, business forms and corresponding, the science of trade, political economy, cost accounting, some modern languages, business administration and the theory of modern mercantile operations, may well be embraced in a system of training for business to which may be added, say, the principles of corporation, finance, salesmanship, advertising, real estate taxation, commercial law, money and credit, insurance, study of raw materials, civil government, foreign trade customs, according to the scope for which preparation is sought."

It would be a fine thing if all those entering the business world could have the broad and comprehensive training as outlined above. But limitations in time, opportunity, capacity, and more often, the press of living necessities,

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make it extremely difficult and in many cases impossible, for young men and women to get more than a fundamental commercial training. This being true we naturally ask ourselves the question, "What are the fundamental objectives of commercial education?" In endeavoring to answer this question, I can best approach it from my own profession of life underwriting, drawing upon my experiences in that profession, for there I am on familiar ground.

To build a permanent and increasingly profitable success in life underwriting, speaking from the educational standpoint, a man or woman should be able to speak and write good plain English; have a working knowledge of practical arithmetic; spell correctly; be able to read clearly and forcibly; be trained in systematic methods; have some knowledge of commercial law, business forms, and organization; some training in applied psychology; a working knowledge of banking especially as relates to credits; training in ethics and thrift, and at least an elementary knowledge of logic. In my experience I have found many men and women, even though graduates of high schools, business colleges, and universities, woefully weak in training as outlined above. I have found them unable to write a letter expressing themselves in good English correctly spelled. I have been amazed at the inability of some to figure simple problems in interest and percentage. Others have had no idea of the most common business forms. Many have been unable to originate a systematic plan of work and have shown themselves careless in the handling of their personal business affairs. We have a school of instruction in life underwriting in our agency, but the purpose of this is to train men and women in life insurance. We haven't time to brush them up in commercial education.

Of course, some men will succeed in spite of the lack of commercial training or even elementary education. Some will succeed in spite of any and all handicaps. They are the self-starters, men of vision, determination, persistent endeavor, and indomitable courage. They will work up and surmount all obstacles. But these same men would be saved many hard knocks and much time by a proper commercial training at the start. Unfortunately we find them rarely. We must depend upon the average for our material and this is true of all lines of business.

In speaking of the fundamental objectives of commercial education we must not overlook the consideration of the general attitude toward life; toward one's fellow-beings and toward one's success which a course in a high school or business college should give.

Vice-President Frank H. Davis of our company often says that success is fifty per cent character. Charles Rockwell, director of the Life Insurance School of Carnegie Institute of Technology, declares that "the predominant essential to success in life underwriting is leadership."

The great leader is a man of fine character. Anything which builds character develops leadership. Therefore we hold that the commercial course while developing the mind should at the same time be building character. The student should be given the vision of unselfish service to his fellows; aroused to a sincere desire to be of real service in the business world; fired

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with the conviction that, after all the real measure of success is in what one has been able to do for others, and that the slogan, "He profits most who best serves," is not a nice sounding platitude but a living fact. He should come to know that success for the sake of success alone is an empty disappointing thing and that life in the world of business offers riches besides those we measure in dollars and cents. While being shown the privileges of business life he should be taught its responsibilities and obligations.

Upon you, the leaders in commercial education, falls the duty of turning over to us business men, young people so trained. You have done great things; made splendid progress, but greater and more exacting tasks are ahead. The business world is crying for properly equipped men and women. The great corporations are hungry for them. Never has there been finer opportunities for efficient, stable, thoroughly trained young men and women in business than there are today. Do not think that we business men do not appreciate the wonderful work you are doing for us in the field of commercial education. Do not think that we are insensible to the magnitude of your task or without sympathy with and understanding of the tremendous problems you have to solve. To you has been flung the torch, which, held aloft and borne on and up by your willing, patient hands, will serve as a beacon light to countless thousands of young people, lighting them to success, happiness, and useful lives through service in the business world.

THE PSYCHOLOGY OF HABIT FORMATION

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William James, America's greatest psychologist, in his inimitable style called attention to the importance of habit in relation to human behavior. It would be impossible to state the situation any more effectively than to quote his words as they are found in his Principles of Psychology.

> Habit is thus the enormous fly-wheel of society, its most precious conservative agent. It alone is what keeps us all within the bounds of ordinance, and saves the children of fortune from the envious uprisings of the poor. It alone prevents the hardest and most repulsive walks of life from being deserted by those brought up to tread therein. It keeps the fisherman and deckhand at sea through the winter; it holds the miner in his darkness, and nails the countryman to his log cabin and his lonely farm through all the months of snow; it protects us from invasion by the natives of the desert and the frozen zone. It dooms us all to fight out the battle of life upon the lines of our nature or our early choice, and to make the best of a pursuit that disagrees, because there is no other for which we are fitted, and it is too late to begin again. It keeps different social strata from mixing. Already at the age of twenty-five you see the professional mannerism settling down on the commercial traveler, on the young doctor, on the young minister, on the young counsellor-at-law. You see the little lines of cleavage running through the character, the tricks of thought, the prejudices, the ways of the "shop," in a word, from which the man can by-and-by no more escape than his coat sleeve can suddenly fall into a new set of folds.

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The importance of habit is universally admitted. It is basic in the psychology of learning. Skill consists essentially in a coördinated group of habits that bring about the quick and accurate performance of a task. Since the teachers in the departments of business education are interested to a great extent in the development of certain skills it may be worth while for us to review briefly the psychology of habit formation, with a view toward the application of this process to the teaching situations encountered.

Modern neurology and psychology are going hand in hand in the description of the reflex arc. This arc or series of neurons that are connected in the process of any complete reaction has come to be known as a neural pattern especially when it involves a more or less complicated group of neurons.

The process of setting up neural patterns in a reaction is always started by a stimulus. This then is the beginning of the formation of a habit. Good teaching consists in the habituating of effective reactions with the least waste of time and energy on the part of the student. The first law of habit formation then is that the stimulus must be clear, positive, and adequate.

Doubtless this statement in one form or other has come to the ears of teachers time and again but the full import of this statement, simple as it is, is often overlooked. Students should always know just what they are expected to do before they start into a situation. If the stimulus is visual there should be no eye defects permitted to prevail if they can be corrected; lighting should be looked after. Every teacher should be able to give oral instructions so they can be easily understood. She should pronounce her words distinctly. The teacher ought to be able to say: "She sells sea shells" without creating the impression that her mouth is filled with mush and milk.

In addition to clearness the value of positive as opposed to negative teaching must be kept in mind. It takes three times the energy to learn a situation by being told what it is not as opposed to what it is. The praise of successful effort stimulates to further activity, while the condemnation of failures brings about discouragement and inactivity. The strengthening and encouragement of the successful performance can go on to such an extent that the mistake and failure is starved out rather than carved out.

There should be a careful adjustment of the stimulus to the situation. Too weak a stimulus fails to bring about an adequate response; if the stimulus is too intense there results a spread of neural energy which results in waste and fatigue. Mere volume or intensity of work will not bring results unless there is an element that is worth while in the performance.

The second law of habit formation is repetition. It means that we must simply do the thing over and over until the neural pattern becomes fixed. This repetition, however, is conditioned by certain factors in the organism. Repetition must not go on to the extent of setting up interference through fatigue or loss of interest. Periods of integration are also essential. It is these periods of integration that enable one to rise to higher levels.

The third law is the avoidance of exceptions. This of course needs no explanation. Rip Van Winkle always spoiled his good resolutions by the introduction of exceptions. A poor method will often yield better

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results if carried through consistently than a good method carried through inconsistently.

While experimental data is still inadequate there is evidence to the effect that for the more intelligent the integration of a group of experiences takes place more rapidly than for the dull. If you have a dull child he will have to practice longer on a simple group of reactions before he is ready to go to a higher or more complex group than the bright child.

There has been data that indicated that we could save time and energy by attempting the more complex combinations from the very first rather than starting with simple elements and then to later combine them into the more complex situations. This seems to be true up to a certain limit, for if a series of reactions is too complex and too involved there is an interference effect set up very much like in memorizing experiments. Here again we find that the brighter student can learn the more complex series. What we probably need for quick habit formation is a series of tests of the " following of directions " type to classify students as to their capacity to integrate experiences. When we have this data it becomes evident that in order to progress most rapidly exercises in typewriting or shorthand should be presented in degrees of complexity that correspond to the respective indices of integrative power. The organization of this material into these respective units presents an interesting problem to the psychologically trained teacher of these subjects.

Usually the learner concentrates his attention too tenaciously on the sensory objective to be attained by the action. This goal is fixed and if the attention is constantly focused on the objective, like the written word or letter as it appears in the end, much time is wasted, for there is involved the comple sensory recognition reaction which can add nothing in the way of efficiency. This short circuiting first was thought of when we took the eyes of the student away from the key-board and written copy. My experiments in reaction time showed that we get the quickest reactions by attending to the motor set or attitude or in other words that we prepare the path of discharge or drainage of mental energy rather than focusing on end effects. This fact in my opinion is significant in typewriting and in stenography. Get clear kinæsthetic images of the key-board and the movements to the respective positions on it. Introduce as many additional stimulating effects, such as rhythm, short distances, proper body positions as possible, then reduce the attentive tension on the sensory situations to the minimum and get the feel of the motor process as going on. When we have to stop to " recognize " or " identify " either the stimulating word or the word or phrase when it is written we have introduced an unnecessary additional reflex arc which consumes its 120 thousandths of a second or more.

Finally then the laws of habit are basic to the laws of learning. They dig deep the channel of discharge for the energy that is to be directed by experience in the form of the educational situation. The consciousness of a mistake slows up the habituated expert because this energy has been shunted into a by-path setting up additional resistance. The strain of energy that results from inadequate discharges is after all the essence of consciousness, just as

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in the moral world that act that does not fit in with our habitually approved activity stirs in us the feeling of maladjustment called conscience.

Let us remember also while we are applying the laws of habit to a particular activity like typewriting that there are many accessory habits like neatness, accuracy, concentration, consistency, and perseverance that are also potent in the final result. That a well-trained commercial or business graduate, because of his bundle of habits has at the same time had—not through the transfer of training but because of the identical elements involved—a fine moral training of the highest building type.

A METHOD OF TEACHING TYPEWRITING BASED UPON A PSYCHOLOGICAL ANALYSIS OF EXPERT TYPING

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The traditional and current methods of teaching typing have not taken into account the pertinent results of laboratory research in experimental psychology, and consequently are wasteful of time and energy. By long and strenuous drill some typists are able to overcome in large measure the disabilities imposed upon them by these methods, but the great majority settle down in a commercial position and, under their handicap, render typing service at a permanently low level of efficiency. In the International Typing Contests there has been a more or less steady rise of efficiency from Miss Rose L. Fritz's rate of 82 words per minute, in 1906, to George Hossfeld's record of 144 words per minute, in 1922. The latter won the Novice's Championship, in 1914, at 98 words per minute, which is perhaps top-notch for the highest class of skilled typists in the commercial world; yet in eight years he has increased his speed by 47 per cent. Margaret B. Owen, who in 1910 won the Novice's Title at 83 words per minute, a high standard for commercial typists, won the Professional Championship in 1917 at 143 words per minute, improving her speed during the seven years of training by 72 per cent.

Why is the disparity between the professional typist and the commercial typist so great? Why does not the commercial typist keep improving year by year until she reaches the professional level? It is not because of lack of practice, for her exacting work year after year provides practice in ample measure. I suspect that it is because her "form" has become set and that practice will not improve her efficiency unless it changes her form.

What "good form" in typing is, must be determined by an analysis of the performance of the expert typist, for this is the legitimate goal of the student. For its attainment, the method of instruction must be as direct as possible, and must prevent the forming of such habits during the earlier stages of learning as are incompatible with expert performance.

Both the analysis of expert typing and the construction of a direct method of learning have been the subjects of research in the psychological laboratory

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at Stanford University since the summer of 1915. The analysis began with the work of E. G. Wiese, at that time speed demonstrator in the Remington booth at the World's Fair in San Francisco, and continued during several years with the performance of three other speed writers. From a wealth of data somewhat over 65,000 measurements were selected as appropriate for the purpose. Over three years were required for the calculation and tabulation of the results, some of which are to be presented in this paper. The method of learning was started in the laboratory class during the summer of 1916, finally revised and tested on a section of a regular class in typewriting in 1920, and later tested by Mr. Wiese on classes in a large private commercial college in the Northwest.

In the analysis of expert typing, we find that the technique of typing embraces a large number of variable elements, which for convenience we may group into three main classes: (1) With respect to letter-sequences; (2) with respect to copy-getting; and (3) with respect to manipulation of the machine. These classes we shall consider in their order. First, the technique with reference to letter-sequences. When we examine two-letter sequences in touch typing, we find a great variety which we may roughly classify according to obvious features that are associated with distinct physiological processes as follows:

The simplest letter-sequence is the double letter (as in *f-f* or *o-o*) which, since it calls for a second stroke on the same key by the same finger, we may call a TAPPING sequence. When the second stroke of the finger is applied to a second key (as in *f-r*, or *r-t*), we may call it a REACH sequence. The second stroke by an adjacent finger (as in *e-r* or *o-i*) is a TRILL sequence; the second stroke by a remote finger of the same hand (as in *f-a* or *n-o*), a ROCK sequence; and finally, a second stroke by a finger of the opposite hand (as in *e-l* or *d-o*), an OPPOSITE sequence.

The differences between these various sequences—the tapping sequence, the reach sequence, the trill sequence, the rock sequence, and the opposite sequence—are reflected in the time it takes the expert typist to make them as will be seen by the results (calculated for the right hand when the fingers of but one hand were used): The tapping sequence (*j-j*) required .142 of a second. The reach sequence across one bank (*j-m*), .161 of a second. The reach sequence across two banks (*u-m*), .171 of a second. Thus, when a two letter sequence is typed by one finger, it makes a difference in the time when the second stroke is made on another key, and increased distance of reach requires more time. If we choose the tapping sequence of the first finger of the right hand for our unit and call it 100 per cent; the time of *j-m* is 113 per cent (or 13 per cent more), and the time of *u-m* is 120 per cent (or 20 per cent more). The trill sequence *j-k*, or two good fingers, requires but 73 per cent of the time (27 per cent less); but *l-;*, on two poor fingers, 122 per cent (22 per cent more). The rock sequence *j-l* requires 69 per cent, or *l-y* 70 per cent (about 30 per cent less). Thus we see, if we neglect the trill of the third and fourth fingers, the trill has an advantage over the tapping, and the rock has an even greater advantage. But the most advantageous sequence of two letters is the opposite sequence, *d-k* for example, which

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requires only 58 per cent, or a little over half the time of a tapping sequence. If the rock and opposite sequences are combined as in *a-;-g-h-a-;-g-h,* the average time is but 54 per cent of tapping sequence time, and for the phrase " this is the," which not only combines rock and opposite sequences, but contributes the great practice effect of a very frequent phrase, the average time is 48.6 per cent of tapping time—actually less than half.

These results were obtained by using our customary laboratory unit of time, one thousandth of a second, and the comparisons in terms of percentage of tapping time are used here to give you a sense of the relative values. Now, let us use the absolute values with which you are most familiar—rate of typing expressed in number of words per minute.

The tapping-sequence time was .142 of a second; that would yield a rate of 85 words per minute—a slow rate for an expert typist; but the reach sequence *u-m* was written at a yet slower rate, 70 words per minute; the trill sequence yields 115 words per minute; the rock sequence, 122; the opposite sequence, 145; the combined opposite and rock sequences, 156; and the familiar phrase " this is the," 174 words per minute. One sequence technique holds the expert down to 70 words per minute, another permits a facility of 174 words per minute. This difference in facility is inevitably imposed upon the expert typist by the laws of mechanics and the anatomical structure of the hands. The average rate of continuous typing on new editorial matter was 130 words per minute.

" Good form " with respect to letter-sequence technique, therefore, consists in maintaining the proper relative rates of speed for the respective techniques. Poor form consists especially in failing to crowd the physiological limit of facility on the more rapid sequences, and any training that cultivates the habit of typing in even time by metronome, phonograph, or otherwise, lands the student on a mediocre plateau of performance from which continued practice may not be able to raise him. " Perfect rhythm " in expert typing is a popular delusion, and striving for it in learning is a serious fallacy. What is needed is a steady drive producing continuous performance, free from balks and starts, and special drill on the sequence-techniques in which the student is shown by diagnostic tests to be backward.

The tapping rate is a fundamental physiological performance that does not increase materially with practice. On this sequence-technique the beginner is about as speedy as the world's champion typist. The latter gains this expertness by improving the other sequence-techniques, especially the reach and opposite sequences.

The second class of technique is copy-getting. If copy is presented one letter at a time, so that as soon as the letter is typed another automatically appears, the expert's performance is reduced to a series of reaction-times to the letters, and his rate is greatly reduced, because his habitual typing performance, characterized by a telescoping of the preparation for two, three, or more letters, as they come in their normal sequence in words and phrases, is prevented. When the sequence of letters is such as not to form words, practice-effect of word and phrase forms is excluded, and the optimum copy-reach is readily determined, in terms of

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number of letters, by the laboratory procedure of presenting copy so that the number of letters in view at one time is limited to one, two, three, or more. The expert gains advantage by increasing the number of letters to about seven. But such is not the case with the student of typing. At the beginning he types letter by letter, and, left without instruction, he is apt to delay the reaching ahead in copy-getting, and thus to postpone the development of the telescoping of preparation for sequences of letters that is a prime element in the technique of "good form," and upon which satisfactory progress depends. When diagnostic tests reveal backwardness in this element of technique, the student's immediate progress depends upon deliberate special practice on this technique.

The skill of the expert does not differ so much from that of the student who has practiced 30 days, in writing letter by letter as it does in writing from copy of larger units. This telescoping of preparation for sequences of letters is closely associated with "word-kinæsthesis" which is considered in a following paragraph, but it is dependent upon a technique of reaching ahead by the eye and grasping copy in units of more than one or two letters.

The telescoping of preparation for sequences of letters leads to word units in copy-getting and in typing. But the typing in word-units is apt to be delayed if the student's attention has not been properly directed during his practice. It comes readily and surely if his attention while typing is on the "feel" of the sequence of strokes. When that special "feel" of the sequence of strokes in the word is the mental representation of the typing of the word, the student has acquired word-kinæsthesis for that particular word. Word-kinæsthesis is an element of good form, and diagnostic tests will reveal the student's backwardness in this element when he is in need of special practice in it.

The technique of manipulation of the machine is the final class of technique to claim our attention. The expert uses a stroke that is quick and firm, but resistant to fatigue. It varies somewhat according to the key-action of the machine, but its general character can be determined and designated as an element of "good form," toward which the student's practice should lead him as directly as possible. I have exaggerated the characteristics of this stroke for the purpose of forcing the student into it, and have given it the appropriate name of the tiger-stroke. It can be best communicated by demonstration, and should be so done for the student, but I shall endeavor to describe it very briefly here. The end of the finger moves through an elliptical course in one instantaneous movement and instantly comes back to its position of rest without tension or strain. At its farthest point of excursion it "swipes" the letter-position (analogous to the quick swipe of a tiger's paw). There is but one impulse, and instantly the finger is again in resting position.

In order that this form of stroke can be delivered with equal facility to positions above and below the home bank, it is necessary for the resting position of the hands and fingers to be carefully determined. The backs of the hands slope upward in a plane parallel with the sloping plane of the banks, and the fingers rest in a curved position resting on, or hovering over, their

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home positions. And in order that the left wrist does not become cramped by kinking the hand to the left, to accommodate the finger strokes to the left-oblique alignment of the keys across banks, the body should be shifted to the right so that the nose points to the right edge of the keyboard. This is important because the left hand does almost two thirds of the work on the standard keyboard, and copy on the right is close to the eyes.

The power and the excursion of the stroke is not furnished by the finger alone but by the combined movement of the hand and finger. There is no vibration of the forearm, and there is no forward movement of the elbow in making the reach strokes to the upper banks.

Other elements of the technique of machine manipulation are also under exclusively kinæsthetic control: finding home position, by reference to the feel of the corners of the frame on the ball of the hand which places the hand very nearly in its normal resting position; shift-key manipulation and carriage-return, of course, involve kinæsthesis of some arm movement.

Placing the manipulation of the machine completely under kinæsthetic control is required by the psychological principle that dual control slows down acquisition in learning, leads to conflict, balks and confusion, and leaves an automatized performance unstable and prone to revert on occasion, even frequently, to the alternate control. Visual imagery is therefore excluded as completely as possible from participation in all these elements of technique. Analysis of the expert's performance shows that there are periods of balks and retarded performance with foreign words and especially difficult copy that cannot be wholly accounted for by unfamiliarity with, and lack of practice on, these sections of copy, for the retardation continues for a time in the typing of easy copy that immediately follows the difficult. Control of the performance has shifted to visual imagery—a legacy of early training. Unimodal control of typing technique is an important element of "good form." But the sensory mode most directly available for the cue to, and the control of, a movement is the feeling of the movement itself, hence the control must be kinæsthetic and free from any admixture of visual imagery.

It has been stated now several times that the kinæsthetic control is the best and most direct. Perhaps an explanation with reference to the letter-stroke will be acceptable. Consider the beginner, with the traditional manual. He (1) perceives the letter in his copy, (2) places the location of the corresponding key in his visual scheme of the keyboard, (3) energizes a finger to strike the key, and (4) releases the impulse that causes the motion. There are two variables between the perceived letter and the impulse to make the stroke—the visual imagery of the location of the key, and the energizing of a finger to strike that key—which are unnecessary and which may introduce error into the process; the key may not be properly located or the wrong finger may be energized to strike it. Consider the beginner with the direct kinæsthetic method: He (1) perceives the letter in his copy, (2) releases the impulse of the finger that makes that letter-stroke. There is no visual imagery here and no possibility of moving the wrong finger, because the student has already associated the *seen letter* with the *feeling* of the proper finger movement. The stimulus of the letter automatically energizes the

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proper finger and prepares for the proper letter-stroke. The former method is wasteful of energy and of time, first, because the student is required to associate the seen letter with a visualized position on the visualized keyboard, and to then associate a finger with that visualized position in which feeling of the resident finger or of its movement must play a part; secondly, because more time is required for the greater number of associative acts; and thirdly, because the cue to, and the control of, the proper finger movement is not so sure and safe as the *feeling* of the proper movement when that feeling has been brought into clear consciousness during practice.

The rôle of kinæsthesis in typing is now evident. It remains to indicate how it is established in the beginning of training and how competing visual imagery is prevented.

The student should never see the keyboard or a chart of it. He begins with an outline of a hand and fingers before him, the letters of home position marked on the fingers. He starts work on the *f*-stroke, tiger-stroke fashion which he has learned without reference to letters or keys. (The fact is, keys are never mentioned during the training.) He makes the *f*-stroke first in the air, eyes closed, concentrating his attention on the feeling of the movement; by repetition this *feeling* becomes vivid, and is cognized as the kinæsthetic *f*. Then the *s*-stroke is realized in the same way. Then the kinæsthetic *f* is compared with the kinæsthetic *s*, and the very distinct difference is noted. It is then realized how sure the feeling is as a cue to, and a control of, the proper tiger-stroke. The strokes are then made on a blank position-form lying on the table and the clip or swipe of the end of the finger on the position is an added feature which intensifies kinæsthesis by contributing to it the resulting touch sensations. From this point on, the tiger-strokes are delivered to positions (only approximately, for they are not to be visualized even as positions), and the letters in the copy are converted into feelings of strokes, or, as we say, into kinæsthetic letters. Only one hand, and the letters of one bank are drilled on at one time, until the kinæsthetic letters respond automatically to the preceived letters in the copy at the rate of 70 strokes in 45 seconds. Then drill is taken on all the letters of the bank in chance order, until automatization is almost complete.

After the whole alphabet and punctuation marks made without shifts have thus been converted into tiger-strokes, completely controlled by kinæsthesis, and practiced to automatization, which requires from four to six practice periods, the student is put at the machine, keyboard screened and caps blank. First, the frame, space-bar, and banks are explored by the hands, eyes resting on printed instructions, then home position established from instruction by kinæsthesis and touch. Then drill on the same copy as was used before is taken, but with the difference that the tiger-strokes are adapted to the key action of the machine. This is readily done since the letters are already in automatic kinæsthetic form and attention is free to copy with this step.

Automatization is further perfected by the four to six days of drill on the machine. Then a daily routine of typing on straight English copy begins. This routine involves:

1. A short warming-up exercise of drill character.

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2. Writing from new copy for 15 minutes.
3. Reading proof on the typed material, marking errors.
4. Classification of errors and making drill copy from them.
5. Special drill on errors made: (a) on the letters to reinforce unstable letter-strokes, (b) on the words in which errors occurred.
6. Calculation of rate of strokes.
7. Counting errors.
8. Calculation of net rate of typing by deducting ten words for each error.
9. Plotting practice curves showing rate of strokes, amount of penalty for error, and net rate of typing.

One copy of the practice curves is retained by the student; the other is posted on a bulletin board.

Diagnostic tests already referred to are given at intervals and the student is provided copy for the special practice of which he stands most in need at the time.

The following figures will show the early rise of the practice curves of a class that took practice by this method three times a week under the supervision of the writer who conferred with them once a week and provided them with mimeographed lessons and a book of essays for copy: Although striving mainly for accuracy, because they were penalized ten strokes for each wrong stroke they made, after from 12 to 14 hours' practice (including pre-machine drill) an average rate of 20 words per minute on new matter for the typing period of half an hour; after 17 to 21 hours of practice, an average rate of 25 words per minute.

That higher skill is attained by ten months' training in the kinæsthetic method as shown by the rates of 110 and 120 words per minute made on new matter without error, by girls of high-school age in short demonstration tests. All the rates above have been calculated on the basis of five strokes to the word, the only legitimate basis for calculating the rate of typing.[1]

[1] The method partly described here has been copyrighted by Mr. Wiese and Professor Coover, under the title of "The Kinæsthetic Method of Learning Typing," but the manual is not yet on the market.

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Department of Child Hygiene

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

OFFICERS

President, Dr. William A. Howe, State Medical Inspector of Schools.....Albany, N. Y.
Secretary, Dr. Charles H. Keene, Director, Bureau of Health Education, Department of Public Instruction.....Harrisburg, Pa.

The Department of Child Hygiene, in connection with the Department of Physical Education, merged its sessions with the International Health Conference, which was part of the World Conference on Education. The papers of the International Health Conference have been compiled into a report by the American Child Health Association, 370 Seventh Avenue, New York City. For program, see Department of Physical Education.

The above officers will be retained during the coming year.

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Department of Classroom Teachers

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

OFFICERS

President .....EFFIE MACGREGOR, Curtis Hotel.....Minneapolis, Minn.
Vice-President.....IDA C. IVERSEN, President, City Teachers' Club...Los Angeles, Calif.
Secretary-Treasurer.....FLORA MENZEL, Milwaukee Teachers' Association..Milwaukee, Wis.
Other members of the Executive Committee..JULIA E. SULLIVAN, Wendell Phillips School.....Boston, Mass.
BESSIE EVANS.....Little Rock, Ark.
Secretary.....JULIA SPOONER, President, Grade Teachers' Association .....Portland, Ore.

FIRST SESSION—MONDAY AFTERNOON, JULY 2, 1923

Meeting called to order by President Effie MacGregor, of Minneapolis, Minnesota.

President MacGregor: We have with us a speaker who will take the place of Mr. Garland W. Powell, Director of the National Americanism Commission, American Legion, who is ill. He has sent us a short message which he has asked to have delivered by James K. Fisk, chairman of the Americanism Commission of the American Legion, Department of California.

President MacGregor: In working out the program of the Department of Classroom Teachers for this convention, it was the wish of the Executive Committee that the various National interests which serve as National supporters of education, should be represented on this program. We are interested in having the people who are the supporters of education join with us in telling us how.

For that reason we have asked members representing labor, agriculture, and business—our three great National educational supporters—to speak on our program. We will hear first from a representative who will give us the viewpoint of labor.

I take pleasure in introducing to you Mr. E. P. Marsh, Division of Conciliation, Portland, Oregon.

E. P. Marsh: First let me read to you a brief message from my illustrious chief, James J. Davis, Secretary of Labor, who sends you his good wishes and greetings.

E. P. Marsh: When it came to preparing for you my own message, I had an attack of "cold feetitis," because I said, "What do I know about practical education?" Then I thought, I am a father; I have had some

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experience with scholastic problems. I have a youngster just turned nineteen, a sophomore in the State University, who after several years majoring in the branches which would prepare him to be an engineer, suddenly, in all the wisdom of his nineteen years, served an ultimatum on his father and mother, that he is not going to be an engineer at all; he is going to be a lawyer or a journalist, or something or other.

So I have had my own problems to study. I became retrospective and thought of some of the other fathers and mothers. What would be their composite viewpoint if they could speak to you this afternoon upon this vital question? So while I don't expect, friends, that you will agree with everything that I have jotted down, I am going to let you have it for what it is.

President MacGregor: Before coming to the State of California, I was very sure that I had come from the greatest agricultural country in the United States. I am not so sure now. I have seen more things growing to a greater size than I have ever seen before in my life; so I think it is very fitting that the gentleman who will speak to us on the viewpoint of agriculture, should come from the State of California.

It gives me pleasure to introduce to you this afternoon Professor O. J. Kern, of the University of California, who will speak to us from the viewpoint of agriculture.

President MacGregor: I am sorry to report that the next speaker on the official program, Dr. Arvid Reuterdahl, president of the Ramsey Institute of Technology, St. Paul, Minnesota, who was to have spoken on the subject of the contribution of the classroom teacher from the viewpoint of business, is ill; but Dr. Reuterdahl has sent his paper, and Mr. Howard Gilkey, a member of the Oakland Kiwanis Club, has very kindly consented to present it.

Howard Gilkey: I am very sure that Dr. Reuterdahl, in presenting this wonderful message, realized that he was presenting it to an enlightened audience, because in going over this message, it is so full of pertinent facts, so full of wonderful phraseology, that you will have to give me your keenest attention lest some of the jewels of his thought escape.

President MacGregor: I am sure that the next speaker on our program does not need an introduction to any member of the National Education Association, or to many of the citizens of our country.

We have with us this afternoon Miss Charl Ormond Williams, who is not only one of our field secretaries but our very dear friend. It gives me pleasure to introduce to you Miss Williams, who will speak from the viewpoint of the National Education Association.

Charl Ormond Williams: Miss MacGregor and friends, I tried to write out a speech; I really tried, but all of the time when I thought of the other big problems that I ought to talk about to you, there was just one thing on my heart and mind, and that is the thing you gave me to do.

The National Education Association has a big, broad, comprehensive platform, and if it were boiled down into the fewest possible sentiments or plans, it would be, first of all, the providing of a professionally trained teacher

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in every classroom in America, this teacher provided with right conditions and surroundings in order to make them do our work in the best possible way, and securing for that teacher the right kind of recognition which the profession demands, then the summing up of all that sort of thing which would make for the highest and best welfare of the children of this Republic of ours.

Now the planks in this platform have been elaborated upon, but I think we can safely say that that is the broad platform of the National Education Association.

There is a plank in there which provides for the creation of a Department of Education represented by a Secretary in the President's cabinet; also Federal aid for the promotion of education in the State, but leaving the control to the State authorities. The securing of that particular plank in the platform would help to bring about all of the other planks that we are talking about.

I said the other evening to the group of foreign delegates that they would probably find it strange on arriving in America, in the country where public education has gone so far in some places and lagged so in others—they would probably be surprised to find that we did not have a minister or secretary of education in this country.

The National Education Association has pledged itself to that time and time again. Yet we have not a minister of education. I am here to say to you this afternoon that we are not going to have a minister of education until every one of the 700,000 teachers in this country get busy and coördinate the support that has already been developed.

The gentleman who spoke for labor made my speech for me. He said in brilliant fashion what I would say to you: that the classroom teachers are the strong bonds that tie together this support for education in the home and in the schoolroom.

Now that is not confined to one group; it is not confined only to labor; it is not confined only to the Parent Teacher Association, but it is broadly distributed to all these various State and National organizations that are supporting our platforms.

I have said at headquarters times without number that we need the active support of the rank and file of the classroom teachers in our legislative program. I think you have gone forth just about as I did when I was a superintendent of schools down in Shelby County, Tennessee. We had an excellent legislative secretary in Washington, Mr. Hugh S. Magill, and I cannot speak too highly of his ability. I was sorry indeed to see him give up. I thought Mr. Magill would put over this legislative program at Washington.

By some good fortune, his mantle has partly fallen upon me. I have learned that I am not going to put over your legislative program. I have no illusions about my charming personality, my powers of persuasion, or whatever else people are supposed to have at Washington who are trying to put legislation over. But I have the greatest confidence in what you, and you,

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and you, and the friends you have back there in the various 433 Congressional districts in the United States.

There the battle is going to be lost or won. It is going to be won if the teachers in this department, in coöperation with the superintendents and executives and boards of education and these organized bodies, get busy. That is what I have come to say to you today.

There are two particular reasons now for marked activity on the part of the classroom teachers. The first one simply points the way to activity. The United States Chamber of Commerce had a referendum on our educational bill. In nearly every case where the educators took advantage of the opportunities extended to them, or created the opportunity to appear before educational committees and boards of directors and chambers of commerce, the referendum was carried in favor of education—not in every case, but in the majority of cases.

There were many boards of directors and educational committees of the chambers of commerce who simply said, "We don't know anything about this. The majority report came down to us from the Washington office, and being good organization people, we simply supported the majority report." There were thousands of opportunities for us to have been on the job. Our next-door neighbor may have been a member of that educational committee of the chamber of commerce. A school teacher may have lived in his home. You may have been the best friend of his wife. There were thousands of opportunities for us to make our influence felt in that, and I fear we didn't do as much as we should have done.

There is another report that is being circulated throughout the country. I was told that propaganda relating to the Carnegie Report on Education was distributed throughout the Tennessee legislature. I was told in a number of States that that information had just percolated throughout the areas where there was a reactionary tendency in education.

Who is going to counteract that? Who shall stand up and say, "This thing is not so!"? Who is going to tell them that this is not the cause of the increased cost of education? Who shall do that? Shall we depend wholly upon the superintendent and whatever opportunities he may get for his words in the daily press? You know from the reading of daily papers here and elsewhere, if a man kills a man he will get box-car letters on the front page; if he has an idea of saving men, he may get a little corner somewhere.

We cannot depend on the daily papers to carry our views and educate all the people. The time has come when we must do it man to man, and by word of mouth. The teachers are the American ambassadors of education in this country today.

People say to me, "Yes, Miss Williams, that is all right, if we had them all professionally trained." We cannot wait until that day before we get them organized for the legislative program. I do not believe there is anything in that bill as it has been re-introduced, that the remotest one-room school teacher cannot understand. It remains for us to get it over to her.

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I think that the teachers at this convention largely come from cities and towns that call themselves cities. We have not yet reached the teachers in the rural schools. A tabulation of the membership at headquarters would show that we have but begun to work in rural school centers. It remains for those teachers who are organized in the towns and cities of various States to carry over somehow for the National Education Association and for education—local, State, and National—that program to those people. Large areas in this country are rural and every single rural Congressional district sends a Congressman to Washington, and he has one vote. We need that one, and we need your help.

Now can it be done? Some of you up-to-date grade organizations have publications. You can write articles popularizing these educational measures. You have done so; some splendid articles have been written. Your daily papers will sometimes take attractively written, up-to-date articles on this subject which you can in that way get over to the people.

We need above everything else speakers for this bill. An educational crusade list is being built up and we need on that list large numbers of classroom teachers. I get back from my letters sent over the country earnest letters saying, "I am for this measure heart and soul, but I can't speak." My heart goes out to those people, because I understand that. But somehow we must build up in every center a group of people who are ready and prepared to go out and talk to small or large groups about this measure.

A new Congress comes in in December, and with it large numbers of new men. That means much of this work has to be done over. We lose some friends in the old Congress, and we lose some enemies. We gain some friends, and we gain some enemies. Each two years this thing must be done. I have now been at work since the first of November, and I can honestly and frankly say to you that the support for this measure is growing by leaps and bounds.

I have attended six National conventions, and at the close of this meeting, I go to two more whose endorsement I hope to secure for this great educational program. Our task is to make this support function back where we want it to function. We do not want to use methods of coercion, but I have been told and had letters from numbers of Congressmen who said to me, "I am open-minded on this subject. I want to be convinced." Whose business is it to do this? Shall we leave it to the doctors? Shall we leave it to the lawyers? Shall we leave it to the farmers? Labor has said to me, "Miss Williams, we want to stand right next to the educators. We cannot furnish the leadership for this measure, but we want to stand right behind you and help you put it over."

I say this with a little bit of reluctance, that complaints have come to me from some of our support (not in the profession) that some of our people didn't know about the Bill. That has not come from just one group of people; it has come from various groups in various places. We are training every day in twenty big National organizations the rank and file of men and women to know about this Bill and to speak upon it.

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When those men and women, farmers, laboring men, women belonging to eight or ten of the National organizations—when all this group becomes informed about this measure, they expect the teacher in the district, in the school, in the city, in the college, in the university, in the normal school, to stand out just a little ahead of them in knowledge on this measure and in enthusiasm for it. I do not think that is an unreasonable thing to expect of the teachers of this country, if we want to put this measure over.

Those of you who are familiar with the suffrage fight know that we gained great headway in our campaign for this measure and we do not need to lose heart. One of the prominent men in labor said to me, "Miss Williams, you do not need to be discouraged. Just remember that there were just about 200,000 laboring men, and they got the Department of Labor."

Remember also that in this country every two years the people elect a new Congress, and every four years they elect a President, and it is but a matter of time if we stay on the job, every single one of us, until we can so make the importance of education felt that there will be the proper recognition of it which it ought to have in a democracy.

Now I have come here this afternoon in a frank, informal fashion to ask for your help in the next few months. You or your representatives will get letters that may seem stereotyped. They may not appeal to you as they ought to appeal to you; but every single one of those letters is recorded and checked and filed in my office in Washington, and every single answer in whatever fashion it is returned to me, is recorded likewise.

I am deeply grateful for the support which has already been given, and I am very eager to be the kind of leader that you ought to have there. I say again from the bottom of my heart that we need the support of all of the classroom teachers of this country in order to put into execution one of the big, outstanding planks in the platform of the National Education Association, and one of the planks which will mark almost the turning-point in public education.

President MacGregor: At the time we are holding our convention, there is another interesting convention in this part of the country. Many of you are also members of the Business and Professional Women's Club in the United States, which is holding its annual convention in the city of Portland, Oregon.

We have with us this afternoon a member of the Business and Professional Women's Club, who is on her way to Portland to give the women of Portland a message. We invited her to stop on her way, giving to the teachers of the United States a message, because we felt she had a message for us.

It gives me pleasure to introduce to you Dr. Ora Latham Hatcher, educational chairman of the National Federation of Business and Professional Women's Clubs, Richmond, Virginia.

Dr. Ora Latham Hatcher: I was very glad when Miss Williams set the example of not having a paper, for although I have a fairly proper one in my chair, I am sure that neither you nor I want to see it produced. I have something that I want to say to you without a paper. I would hate to put any more burden upon your shoulders than the inspiring ones that have

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been laid there this afternoon; and I think one solace in hearing me at all this late hour is that I really bring you a story of a strong arm of help in the thing which you are working to accomplish.

I do not know how many of you know about this National Association of Business and Professional Women's Clubs. I am not going to try to tell you about it, except to say that it has been steadily growing and is now an army of about 35,000 scattered all over the country. There is a very large and able group in this city of Oakland.

That group has chosen as its main task, as its distinctive task, the setting of proper standards of education for the prospective business woman, and the furthering of those standards by all possible means. You know without my telling you that you and we are partners in this big enterprise; that your measure of success is very largely our measure of success.

I am going to talk of the business woman in the older phrasing, not in the sense in which it includes the business and professional women. I am going to talk of the lower level; that is, the point at which the girl enters business, and say this one thing, because I am not going to make a real speech—that the business women of the country in their educational program have defined their first and most important step, the setting of a standard of a high school education as a minimum requirement for the oncoming business women.

We feel that the classroom teacher stands there at the crucial time when the girl decides whether she will go on and the teacher can help her to decide. This is a crucial period for her and for business and for society, where so much depends on whether she gets enough general education before she takes the technical training. We bring the testimony of thousands and thousands of business women that the wise thing for her to do is to keep on with her general education.

We have found nothing new, nothing that you haven't been working on for generations and centuries; but we have focussed the experience of business women and brought it to you to use in your persuasive way as teachers and counselors to this girl who comes up to the time to decide how much general education she will have.

Of course, we realize the employer is really the final decisive factor, and we know that the business scale whatever form it may take, is the level or the measure of the kind of technical training which the girl may have, whether it is crudely vocational, whether it is really professional in a business sense, or whether it is pre-vocational, or only applied to business.

But we know that they are fluctuating in varied quantities. We know that the girl may still get something to do if she has had a very inadequate general education. We know that the business schools are of all levels, that the heads are of all degrees of personal equipment and outlook, and that almost any one of these levels may be the lot of the girl who goes out from you.

But we feel that you are the ones for us to join hands with at the crucial moment, and that we can help you succeed, help you to put over your program, and that you can help us to put over our very determined educational aim, to bring this thing about in very much larger numbers.

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We feel that that comes about because the girl who is most apt to leave school early is going to be most apt to be influenced by outside consideration. She is thinking of some girl of her age and education who is getting ten or twelve dollars a week, and doesn't seem to have any better chances than she has. You can help her match that with the business woman who is getting more than that, and whether she had it or not, is urging the girl to have it.

We can help you and you can help yourselves in ever increasing proportions to bring the point of view of the enlightened employers of this girl, and through the business woman herself, who must appeal to the girl in her own terms, and through the coöperation of the employers who are increasingly telling the employees and the employment managers, of the proportion of girls turned down from lack of a high school education—that you and we may put this thing over in bigger terms.

That is really all I have to say to you, but that is a thing which perhaps you haven't fully realized, that all over this country are the business women determined to emphasize to the oncoming business woman the tremendous value of a broader educational foundation before she goes in for business.

So while asking you to work with us on what you are already tremendously interested in, we offer you our best support in working with you.

Adjourned.

SECOND SESSION—TUESDAY AFTERNOON, JULY 3, 1923

Meeting called to order by President Effie MacGregor.

President MacGregor: To begin with, I think we ought first to congratulate ourselves because we have succeeded in this first year, under an organized constitution, in gathering this large group of people together. Necessarily our point of contact with the National Education Association has been limited. We couldn't have done a very great amount of work in so limited a time, but it is gratifying to those who have been officers, and I am sure it is gratifying to the National Education Association, to see the very keen interest that is evident here this afternoon by your attendance at this meeting of the Department of Classroom Teachers.

I wish particularly to thank every person in the room who is not a classroom teacher and who is here through interest in the work of the classroom teacher.

Our first number on the program is particularly important. It is important to every classroom teacher in the United States, and it is particularly important to every educator in the United States. We have had in our country for the last ten or twelve years a National group of organized teachers. Long before the Department of Classroom Teachers had a Constitution and was officially organized, this National group, the National League of Teachers' Associations, was organized and was making an educational contribution to the educational world of the United States.

The Classroom Department of the National Education Association must always recognize that the members of this great organization have been the trail blazers. They are the classroom teachers who have shown us the way. In reality, the Department of Classroom Teachers is the follower of the

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National League of Teachers' Associations. They have shown us the way, and they will continue to show us the way.

It is a splendid thing that this department of the National organization has this opportunity of hearing from the president of the National League of Teachers' Associations. It gives me pleasure to introduce to you Mrs. Emma L. Dacre, of San Francisco.

Emma Dacre: Madam President and Members of the Classroom Teachers' Department of the National Education Association, I am going to present to you a paper on research work which was prepared by Mr. Lang, of Stanford University. He was a superintendent in the Canal Zone for nine years. We collected all of this research material, all the questionnaires sent out through the League, and Mr. Lang has compiled this report for us.

We wanted to get the background of all classroom teachers' organizations, and our questionnaires were sent out not only to the National League of Teachers' Associations, 23,000 members, but to other non-affiliated organizations. (For Mr. Lang's paper, see page 594.)

President MacGregor: We have asked Miss Julia E. Sullivan, of Boston, to talk on a subject which is particularly important to the East. It is not so important to the people on the Pacific Coast, I understand, except that the people of the East need your coöperation. (See page 606.)

President MacGregor: It has been said that as one gives, one receives. There is a local organization of classroom teachers which has come out and offered of themselves, to give. I think it is unique, and I am sure that because of its ability to see that it has valuable material to give and to offer, it will receive richly from its offer.

It gives me pleasure to introduce to you Miss Celia Osgood Peterson, of Denver, Colorado, who will discuss the solution of professional supervision.

President MacGregor: It gives me a great deal of pleasure to introduce a classroom teacher's sister. The classroom teacher who was to have spoken on this subject was Mattie M. Montgomery, of Sedalia, Missouri, who was to talk on a subject of paramount importance—the Towner-Sterling Bill.

It became impossible for Miss Montgomery to be here, but she is such an ardent worker that she has sent her paper on with her sister, whom she has carefully drilled to give the paper. Without further preliminary let me introduce Miss Montgomery, who will give her sister's paper.

President MacGregor: Coöperation always generates understanding. We have with us this afternoon one who comes to us representing our educational work to the West. We do not appreciate the problems of the Pacific as the Pacific Coast appreciates them, so we are much interested in a message from Emily Ewaliko, of Hilo, Hawaii.

President MacGregor: This ends our program and you are adjourned.

At the business session, Thursday afternoon, July 5, Miss Julia A. Spooner, of Portland, Oregon, was elected as acting secretary for the meeting. The report of the Rules of Procedure Committee, appointed in Cleveland, was adopted.

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Article V, Section 1, of the constitution, was amended by adding the words "the vice-president" to the officers composing the Executive Committee. There was also a discussion of the amendments to come before the Representative Assembly at the final business meeting.

Nominations for officers were now made from the floor. The following were elected. *President,* Ida Christine Iversen, Los Angeles, California; *vice-president,* Lucy M. Holt, Norfolk, Virginia; *secretary,* Anna Riddle, St. Joseph, Missouri; *Executive Committee:* Eastern Section, Julia E. Sullivan, Boston, Massachusetts; Middle Section, Anna M. Thompson, Kansas City, Missouri; Western Section, Julia A. Spooner, Portland, Oregon.

It was moved that the Executive Committee work out both rules of procedure for nominating and electing officers and present them at the first business meeting in 1924.

The question of regional conferences was ably discussed by the president, followed by her announcement that the budget of the Department for next year had been presented to the Executive Committee of the National Education Association and that an increased appropriation had been asked for. Adjourned.

THE CONTRIBUTION OF THE CLASSROOM TEACHER TOWARD PROGRESS IN EDUCATION FROM THE VIEWPOINT OF THE AMERICAN LEGION

JAMES K. FISK, CHAIRMAN OF THE AMERICANISM COMMISSION OF THE AMERICAN LEGION

There is a force against anarchy in America, greater than all the imperial armies of the world. That force is intangible, imponderable, invincible. It consists in the loyalty and devotion of the teachers of this country. These teachers are the builders of citizens for the Republic. We accord high honor to great architects and engineers, who build with stone and steel and bridge wide rivers. But the strength of the Nation is in its men and women, and the American Legion accords due honor to the builders of citizens. . . .

There was a lady of Rome who said, "My sons are my jewels." That lady has become the archtype of triumphant and holy motherhood. It is this spirit that is awakening ever more practically in the women of America, and there are less and less remaining who guard their trinkets carefully, yet send their children casually into schools that they know little about. From nine o'clock of mornings to four of afternoons the motherhood of this country abdicates in favor of the classroom teacher, into whose hands is given the charge of all the children. It is a vital necessity of the Nation that American mothers awaken to keen interest in the problems and the welfare of the classroom teachers of America.

The American classroom is America in miniature, America in process of development. The guardians and rulers of these classrooms, the classroom

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teachers of this country, have the future of the Nation committed to their hands. Nowadays there are many enemies and assailants of the Nation, who preach insidiously the riotous overthrow of all establishments and the ruin of organized society. These pleaders for bombs and the torch might be respected if they were sincere fanatics, but they are not even that. They are hypocrites, who hope for advancement for themselves through bringing about some general overturn. They make their appeal to ignorant or immature minds, and drive their human sheep into dangerous places, themselves remaining safely in the rear. Against these enemies of the republic there is a great and constant obstacle, a strong wall against the corruption of our youth—the united strength of the energy and loyalty of the classroom teachers of this country, builders of citizens for the Republic. We of the American Legion salute the educators of America, and pledge them our coöperation and comradeship.

THE CLASSROOM TEACHER

MESSAGE FROM JAMES J. DAVIS, SECRETARY OF LABOR, WASHINGTON, D. C.

In the very nature of things we are always facing circles. Man comes into this world with nothing but potentiality, to be fed, to grow and learn. Then he serves and hands back to another the fruits of his material and mental accomplishments, while he leaves the earth with no more than he brought into it. Yet that cycle was never exactly a circle. Man's brain has conceived and developed means of preserving some of the fruits of his labor in such form that it gradually became unnecessary to commit all knowledge to memory. Vast reservoirs of experience, so to speak, have been built and are tapped only when needed. Thus civilization has grown by the gradually forward-moving cycle, leaving a trail in the dust of the past.

There is something about the uncertainty of the future which tempts man to untiring efforts in tugging at the curtains of mystery which obscure the civilization and events of the morrow. And men step aside at times to gaze at the past and to follow the trail which the cycle of civilization has left imprinted upon the sands of time. Winds and storms in the lives of nations and individuals have obliterated that trail in places, but by careful tracing science has traveled back, and holding up the torches of knowledge of forgotten ages the trail is renewed, and with the accumulated light of faggots, torches, candles, and lamps the dim outlines of our future are cast upon the curtains which will never actually unfold to human eye.

Under the shadows of coming events men prepare for their lives' work while relying upon the experiences of others and of themselves to furnish the light in which to build. The babe born today is as helpless and as devoid of knowledge as the newborn babe of ten thousand years ago. Yet the future holds vastly more for the child of today. Then he learned only at home by personal experience. Parental love and protection aided only by the limited science of the times laid down the rules for life and conduct. Knowledge was only to be dispensed to kings and princes.

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The classroom teacher as we know her or him today, is one of the developments of civilization; as an institution such teaching has brought education within the reach of all. They tap the reservoirs of learning and feed the growing minds to meet the needs of an ever advancing civilization.

A great responsibility rests upon you as classroom teachers. Every child, while each born is born as devoid of knowledge as another, has a different need, a different capacity, a different propensity. Their teaching is not only academic, but by example, for consciously or unconsciously, those entrusted to your teaching will learn something from every act and every word and every deed wherever done or spoken. The discipline of your schoolroom today will show itself in the industry and commerce of tomorrow. Your character and personality will be reflected in the citizens of the Republic of generations hence.

But parents cannot today any more than yesterday place all the burden of tomorrow's civilization upon the classroom teacher. Many are overworked, and, unfortunately or fortunately, teachers have the human tendency of getting tired, sometimes of becoming irritable. An overworked teacher cannot do her duty toward her pupils nor to herself. She takes a pride in her service and feels the discouragement of less than 100 per cent delivery. Whether that over-taxing of energy be in the assignment of too many subjects or of too many pupils makes little difference. In the one case there is the shortcoming of quality, and in the other an inability of being able to meet the varying needs of individual boys and girls.

I believe in encouragement, and in encouraging the classroom teacher one gives encouragement to her wards. I believe the parent should become acquainted with the teacher, for she will then better understand the child. All the education given to a single child, at home, at school, at Sunday school, at church, at college and at university must first of all mould a single life. No matter how many are indirectly affected, education has failed to serve its purpose if it does not mould that individual life into a well-shaped being and career. And so it seems to me that American fathers and mothers owe it to their posterity and the teachers to more closely work together that our civilization may move steadily forward for those who are to come after us.

THE CONTRIBUTION OF THE CLASSROOM TEACHER TOWARD PROGRESS IN EDUCATION FROM THE VIEWPOINT OF LABOR

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Throughout the current year no gathering of men and women will be of such prime import to American weal as will this convention. Knowledge is the key that unlocks the storehouse of wealth in a broad spiritual sense. Yours is a responsibility greater than that resting upon any other group of

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people. The destiny of America, the material, moral, social, spiritual progress we shall make as a Nation, depend not alone upon the knowledge gained of the world's historic past, the classics, the arts, the sciences, the vocations, but upon the outlook on life, the responsibilities of social contact, imparted to youth's consciousness by you. Youth is the seedling time; maturity the time of harvest. If maturity brings disillusionment, it is partly because in childhood and adolescence parent or teacher or both failed to portray a true picture of life's duties and responsibilities, the world of men as it really is.

Yours is an unselfish profession. Measured solely in dollars and cents the reward you gain is pitifully small. America owes to you in return for the high moral and cultural standard she sets for you, for what she expects you to be in the lives of her youth, something more than a meagre living. That you are playing a large part in molding National character is in itself high reward, and I would not take that consciousness from you. But America should more adequately meet the salary question. No teacher can give of his or her best who constantly lives within the shadow of pecuniary need. If we demand—as we have a right to do—the best of you, you have an equal right to demand that we pay you enough to maintain a scale of living at least comparable with the skilled mechanic.

I have heard it estimated that between one fifth and one half of the children between 14 and 15 years of age leave school to engage in gainful pursuit; that three fourths of the children 16 years old leave with the same purpose. This may be an exaggerated estimate but the percentage is undoubtedly high. Some are taken out by their parents to eke out the family income; some because the parents believe "there ain't no great good to be reached by tiptoein' children up higher than ever their fathers was teached"; another group leaves because of no parental economic need but because of an urge for the quasi-independence of an earning power and a failure to understand the handicap under which it is entering the working world. All of these groups drift into blind-alley occupations, into industrial and commercial mediocrity. They constitute a menace to high industrial standards of living. They are half-baked products, the tragedy of society. They go out into the world of action full of illusions and fantasies; conscious too late of their unfitness for any vocation, paying through life the price of mediocrity in loss of wage, social position and self respect.

The first named group, leaving school of necessity to contribute to the family income, constitutes a social problem to which the teacher may be acutely sensitive but about which little can individually be done as part of the scholastic function. All other groups are directly amenable to educational influence and form for the teacher a solvable problem.

I know of no more helpful movement in education in recent years than the growth of the Parent-Teachers' Association. The parent group is the third of the human scholastic triangle. The parent-teachers' associations offer a direct medium of contact for a helpful interchange of views. What change does the teacher believe essential in curriculum, school policy, etc.; what change does the parent advocate and why? Where is coöperation lacking? Is there misunderstanding on the part of the parent as to what the

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school really offers in the way of life preparation? Is the teacher out of step with the workaday problems of working men and women? I am told that the parent group in these associations is largely made up of the wives of men in industrial and mercantile pursuits. Grade teachers should everywhere encourage the formation and active carrying on of these bodies, for they are potential of more mutuality in school thought and purpose than any movement that has come to my notice.

Secretary of Labor, James J. Davis, cites an eminent school authority as saying that only 8 per cent of our people were engaged in the professions. Our educational system then must be geared up to industrial and commercial life. I would not minimize the necessity of cultural education but hand in hand with the cultural must go the vocational. Before all must come a proper perspective of life, the groundwork of the practical education to follow. It will not do to tell little Willie if he is diligent in his studies, honest and obedient, he may some day be President. Little Willie had better let it filter through his system that in all probability he will be a butcher or baker or candlestick maker; that there is no more exalted position than President of this Republic, but that the vast majority of us must serve mankind in some other capacity; that the creative, constructive work is dignified and honorable; that he who toils at forge, farm or workshop, is playing an honorable part in the scheme of life.

The teacher's outlook on her own life is of paramount importance. With the broadening of woman's sphere to include so many activities outside the home walls, the teacher is functioning both as mother and teacher to the child. The child's moral concept, its code of ethics, its understanding of the social and economic forces at work, come from the teacher's own vision of life standards and social forces. The two great moral forces in community life are the school and the church, and I trust I won't be thought blasphemous if I cannot subordinate in my mind the school to the church.

You will hear much throughout this convention about vocational training. I realize its major importance and that we are really pathfinding in fixing its correct scope and relation to our educational system. The grade school teacher can only become in rare instances the actual vocational teacher. But the grade teacher can and ought to know the background of industry and commerce. The technique and craft, for instance, of the printing trade, can only be taught by a printing craftsman. But the part that the art of printing has played and is playing in building civilization—it may be said to be the keystone of the arch of civilization—should be taught by the grade teacher. The age of steam, of steel, of electricity, can be so taught by the grade teacher that each will take on a new and fascinating meaning in the student's mind. There should be an en rapport between the grade teacher and the vocational teacher which would make the function of each fit into the other like parts of a machine. To sum it up the part of the grade teacher in vocational training does not lie in the actual teaching of the trade but in mental preparation for actual trade instruction.

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Providing adequate trade school equipment and capable craft instructors is but half the problem. It is equally as important to determine what a student is organically and temperamentally fitted for. The youth does not always know and often spends priceless years trying to learn a trade which he is unadapted to pursue. Mathematical exactitude may be the prime requisite for one trade, artistic temperament for another. Each trade and profession makes demands upon some peculiar trait of character of mental and physical adaptability.

Aside from the parent none but the grade teacher comes into such intimate contact with the many sided nature of the student; none but the teacher has the opportunity to observe the likes and dislikes, the impluses and emotions, the natural gifts and adaptability of the student. It is here that the grade teacher should become the invaluable aid and ally of the vocational teacher in helping the pupil to find himself vocationally.

Discussing educational matters one day with a trade union friend, I was told of a teacher who asked her primary grade class what trade unions were. Answering her own question she told them they were bodies of workingmen organized to strike against their employers and raise trouble generally. This of course was an aggravated case but it is quite possible that many of her brothers and sisters if they spoke what was in their minds would make the same definition. It was really an unfair definition to make and goes back to what I said about the necessity of the teacher having the proper industrial background. The facts are that the trade unions have a fixed historical place and a definite social mission. These facts are not altered by the foolish, arrogant and despotic manner in which occasionally some units of this movement perform. Trade union philosophy may be controversial, its policies and politics sometimes wise, sometimes unwise, but it is a fixed part of economic and social life, has produced much social good and will undoubtedly produce more. To create in the child's mind such a mental picture of the trade union movement is as wrong and as harmful as to advocate the setting up in this country of a communist form of government in place of a democracy because all our people do not at all times uphold democracy's highest ideals. It strikes me that if the teacher is to talk to her students at all upon this or other industrial, social or political movements, the teacher ought to first understand their underlying philosophies. Proselyting in the public schools for this or that economic "ism" should not be tolerated and the teacher must distinguish clearly between instruction in structural history of economic movements and advocacy of such movements.

There seems to be too much of a tendency to turn scholars out from a common mold, to set an educational pace that all must conform to regardless of difference in child temperament and ability, a merging of the individual in the mass. If this is true it is possible that educators are not wholly to blame. This is the day of congested schoolrooms, large classes; every city struggling with its school housing problem. If more individual study and attention to the student is necessary—and I think it is—the public must pay the cost. Better school facilities, larger corps of teachers, mean an added

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tax burden which the public will have to shoulder. I don't believe the American public wants to be niggardly with its school system.

Collectively the people shrink when the calamity howler shrieks at the ever mounting tax rate. Individually the people believe the schools should be adequately supported financially and their only qualm is whether the children are getting the kind of education they really need. Deep down in the breast of every worthwhile parent is the ambition for an education for the children which will better fit them for the struggle of life than the parent was fitted. The inherent longing in the human breast for the welfare of its child has always been and always will be the well-spring of education. It remains only to bring the whole school problem to the parents' plane of desire and understanding, to bring mutuality of desire and purpose between the educational world and the composite parenthood of America, to bring the funds needed.

Not the least then of the function of the grade school teacher is a human, warm contact with parenthood. Your department of grade school teachers, the parent-teachers' associations I have mentioned, can and will bridge the gulf between the educational world and the working men and women of America. In your life work of making this world a little better and brighter than when you found it, the United States Department of Labor offers you its heart and its hand and pledges you its constant coöperation.

THE CONTRIBUTION OF THE CLASSROOM TEACHER TOWARD PROGRESS IN EDUCATION FROM THE VIEWPOINT OF AGRICULTURE

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Agriculture is the oldest of arts and the youngest of sciences. Perhaps the two most significant features of life today are the democratic and scientific influences. The farmer is supposed to be "long" on the practice or art side of his vocation and "short" on the science side. The first contribution, then, to educational progress from the classroom teacher giving instruction in the subject matter of agriculture is the increase of the scientific spirit in the economy of rural democracy.

Strategic position of the classroom teacher—Measured in terms of importance of food production to the welfare of human society, no classroom teacher occupies such a strategic position as does the teacher giving instruction in the science of soil, plant, and animal life. Such a teacher with a vision and standing at inspiration point in contact with youth has a great field for social service. The constituency available for scientific instruction is of no small proportions. A recent bulletin from the Bureau of Census for the first time gives the number of farm population, the tillers of the soil, those living entirely outside of cities and all incorporated places. The number in 1920 was 31,614,269 or 29.9 per cent of the total population of the

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United States. Of this number a total of 15,962,176 was 20 years old or younger. This comprises the body of farm youth to be reached in the rural elementary school; the consolidated rural high school; and the college of agriculture.

But this imposing army of 15,962,176 farm youth is not all of the constituency of agricultural instruction. The Bureau of Census gives nearly 20,000,000 more people living in rural territory and not engaged in farming. Of these 20,000,000 non-farmers, but dwellers in rural territory, a total of 8,496,413 was 20 years of age or younger. Thus there was, in 1920, a total of 24,458,589 youth, 20 years or younger, living in rural territory. Added to these the youth living in cities and receiving agricultural instruction in the elementary school through the school garden; those enrolled in agricultural classes in city high schools; and those living in cities taking agriculture in the college of agriculture and we have a mighty force for good.

To be sure not all of this vast army is enrolled in classes for instruction. No data are available as to the number under 6 years of age or those out of school beyound the eighth grade. But the indirect influence of instruction through extension methods is of no small value. No other government in the world is spending the amount of money for agricultural education and research as does ours through National and State appropriations. It is safe to claim also that in no other country is the mass of farmers so intelligent and so efficient. And yet there is room for improvement.

Ability of the classroom teacher to give instruction—It will be objected that the classroom teacher in the elementary school is not trained to give instruction in agriculture. Such persons are thinking of the technique of vocational agriculture. Such persons, also make no distinction between specialized agricultural production for the adult and scientific agricultural instruction for the child. There is a vast difference when one thinks it through. The pedagogical significance of the instruction in agriculture in the elementary school is much more and its technical significance much less than that given in any other school. If the elementary classroom teacher needs any special training, it is in the field of rural sociology rather than in that of vocational agriculture.

In agriculture there is a body of rich material for educational purposes that is not strictly vocational. This, for the grades of the elementary school, is usually designated as agricultural nature study. It is informational and inspirational if presented by a teacher who has the right viewpoint. It is material rich in motive to stimulate the imaginations and interests of children, to develop and increase their appreciation of and to strengthen their sympathy for the work of the farmer and industry in general. So many teachers in the elementary school, especially the rural school, fail to sympathize with rural life because they know nothing about it. Knowledge is necessary to a sympathetic understanding. If measured in terms of personal growth and a broader outlook on life, this of itself should prove a strong enough motive for the teacher to use material relating to agriculture to further educational progress.

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The classroom teacher, of course, will find a new method of approach for the time honored subjects of the course of study. Also the necessity of introducing some new material for the useless material that must be eliminated. As regards this new material, Lincoln in 1859 in an address before the farmers of Wisconsin, said:

> I know of nothing so pleasant to the mind as the discovery of anything that is at once new and valuable—nothing that so lightens and sweetens toil as the hopeful pursuit of such a discovery. And how vast and how varied a field is agriculture for such a discovery. The mind, already trained to thought in the country school or higher school, cannot fail to find there an exhaustless source of enjoyment.

The teacher using her knowledge of science—The average classroom teacher is at least a high-school graduate. Many have had further preparation for teaching. She should be able to apply some of the elementary science training in biology, physics and chemistry to enable her to understand some of the simple but extremely scientific principles underlying the art of agriculture. Such scientific principles as are contained in the most valuable literature published relating to soil, plant and animal life. Her previous science instruction should enable her to work over this printed material and make it available as mental stimuli for boys and girls.

It is the abuse of the textbook, of course, and not its proper use that is deplored in giving instruction in the science of agriculture. However, this is true of a textbook in geography or language. It is difficult to see how some scientific facts can be taught, in the elementary school, otherwise than from a printed page. It is not in the province of the elementary school, either in equipment or method, to attempt the research work of the university laboratory. We can only make plain to the child mind what scientific men have discovered after long years of investigation by methods quite beyond the classroom teacher. How is such a teacher to "develop" experimentally the identity of that element of plant food, nitrogen, so her pupils may know from observation what nitrogen looks like, how it feels and what is its taste. Science tells us that nitrogen is a colorless, odorless, tasteless gas, and that no plant can be grown without it. But some facts about nitrogen-fixation can be taught so that children will understand how to make the soil a better home for plants.

Each teacher will have her own method of approach. The following is one illustration. Nitrogen is in the air we breathe. The amount of nitrogen in the air is about four fifths of the atmosphere in weight. Since the pressure of the atmosphere is 15 pounds per square inch then the column of air resting on every square inch of ground represents 12 pounds of nitrogen. Query: How many pounds of nitrogen resting on every acre of farming land and how much is it worth? This then becomes a simple problem in arithmetic. The number of square inches in the surface area of one acre of land multiplied by 12 gives 75,271,680 pounds of nitrogen in the air resting on the acre surface. That amount of nitrogen if purchased at 25 cents per pound would amount to $18,817,920, literally "millions in the air." Of course the pupils need not be told that no farmer could purchase that amount of nitrogen nor would that amount be needed in any cropping season. It does

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give the teacher an opportunity to explain the latest development in science whereby nitrogen is taken from the air by an electrical process.

Since plants cannot use nitrogen in the " free " state as it is found in the air, there are two practical ways for the farmer whereby some of this " free " nitrogen is made available for plant food. Without going into detail here one way is for the farmer to grow certain plants called legumes in rotation with other plants. These legumes, clover, cowpeas, soybeans, alfalfa, etc., (under proper soil conditions) have nodules on their roots in which are found microscopic plants called bacteria. These bacteria feed upon the nitrogen in the soil air and make this nitrogen available for plant food. Experiment: Carefully dig up a bunch of clover or alfalfa and carefully remove the soil and observe the nodules. A second way is to put organic matter (as barn yard manure or plow under green cover crops) in the soil. Certain kinds of bacteria decompose this (with certain chemical actions) and finally the nitrogen of the organic matter is reduced to a form that it can be taken up by the plant through its root hairs. Root hairs may easily be seen by germinating some radish seed between two pieces of moistened blotting paper.

Now the point in this where the teacher is likely to make a pedagogical mistake is when the printed page ends and the digging up of clover begins. The country school, especially, is situated in the midst of the best laboratory in the world, some kind of life processes and farm operations going on all the year round. Let observation of life processes; experimental home and school garden work with plants and soils; projects tested out; and feeding and care of animals at home, test the printed page. Let the printed page and the teacher stimulate investigation on the part of the pupil.

This science teaching, like all good teaching, must be in terms that children can understand. Avoid the technical terms of the research laboratory. If you tell a farmer " the cow runs " he understands it and that is all there is to it anyway. But sometimes after the educator has made his research in the laboratory; made his deductions; measured and graphed the results; and derived the coefficient of reliability, the cow no longer runs. Instead, " the bovine quadruped in response to certain external stimuli finds her appropriate reaction in discharges of motor activities." One can imagine the feelings of a farmer as he watches his cow " motor " along like that. Now nothing said here must be construed to discredit research work. The writer would be the last person to turn his back upon the work of the agriculture experiment station. But a scientific truth loses none of its value if stated in simple language. It was Lincoln's practice to reduce the theorems of geometry to language terms that the common man could understand. This was the secret of his power over the common people and they heard him gladly. It is said that the learned university doctor often fails, as an instructor because he has forgotten how difficult the subject was when he himself as freshman was taking the same course. Public school teachers make the same mistake with their pupils.

New standards of appreciation—A second contribution to progress in education through agriculture is the creation of new standards of apprecia-

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tion of the beautiful in nature and the artistic in life. Classroom teachers, most of them, are trying to develop a higher appreciation of art in music, drawing, literature, etc. " Paradise Lost " is a great poem of high artistic and spiritual values. But paradise is already lost for thousands of children (and adults as well) so far as appreciation of the natural beauty of out-of-doors is concerned. It is quite possible and very necessary for the classroom teacher to have the right attitude toward nature. Growth in grace is possible. Growth in appreciation of art comes largely as an evolutionary process through education. For most of us our education began with books (and ends that way too often) rather than with things. But in the reading of the best and choicest descriptions of nature scenes we may be led to study the face of the earth and to see pictures we never saw before.

Children can be trained to become appreciative of the spiritual values in good environment. But they must come in contact with good standards of landscape art. The child cannot begin to like good music unless good music is heard. A taste for good literature cannot be acquired unless good books are read. In a sense there is the unwritten literature of forest and prairie, of hill and plain. The first thing, then, is to feed upon nature; to discover, if possible, the natural beauty of common things.

But this appreciation must be carried over from the domain of subjective enjoyment to the creative realm of objective expression. There must be the doing of things. Every lover of nature is privileged to grow at least a few plants and thus have a part in the painting of a beautiful picture upon the great canvas, the holy earth. The days of magic are gone but it is yet possible to acquire artistic appreciation and expression through observation and creative effort. No one has ever claimed that a treeless, flowerless environment has any power to charm and enthuse children. And to use an old figure again, how can we, from the plastic emotions of childhood, evolve golden conduct with the alchemy of leaden surroundings?

THE CONTRIBUTION OF THE CLASSROOM TEACHER TOWARD PROGRESS IN EDUCATION FROM THE VIEWPOINT OF BUSINESS

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The tapestry of life—Living is the most complex operation in the universe. The conscious and the unconscious, the organic and the inorganic, the free and the determined elements of being, enter into the fabric of human life. At the present time, life is far more complex than in primitive days. Civilization has introduced many fibers into the warp and woof of the tapestry of modern life. From the standpoint of conscious human life this wonderful tapestry has been woven out of fibers composed of *you and all other conscious beings. You,* regarded as a self, intermingling with and oftentimes

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colliding with the other selves, generate and set free the forces of organized life, producing vital reactions and life precipitates. These vital actions and reactions are sometimes fraught with pain and sorrow. Now and then, during the interaction of the selves, flashes of joy and happiness appear with their benevolent influence tending toward a brightening of the somber tones of life's fabric. Your environment is woven from the threads of the other selves and the fibers of the material world about you. You are in part the articulate expression of your environment. The waters of life, welling up from the fountain of truth and harmony, are, in a measure, darkened by the negative by-products of ignorance. Yet the fountain of non-contradiction and universal consonance, gushes forth irresistibly from the very depths of eternity seeking embodiment in lofty ideals tending toward the complete emancipation of man from the thraldom and terrors of ignorance. The paradoxes of life are due to the component of ignorance in life's activities. The complex fabric of human society is the product of the interaction of the individual selves, of you and the others. Industry and business are direct products of this interaction. The classroom teacher has and will continue to play an important rôle in preparing a conscious attitude benevolent to the healthy growth of universally beneficial business whose only true goal must ever be the common good. The invaluable service already rendered by the classroom teacher to business may be still further augmented by a conscious appreciation of the foundation upon which organized business rests.

The government of self and democratic self-government as the supporting pillars of American business—Business is one of the greatest pulsating arteries in the organism of life. In our democracy the successful functioning of business depends upon the stable maintenance and continuous effective operation of the principle of self-government. Two noteworthy precipitates produced by organized human activity are self-government and its inevitable pre-requisite government of self. Both involve some of life's most difficult paradoxes. There is a marked analogy between your self and society regarded as a composite entity. There are many chambers in the house of self. Numerous tendencies to action emanate, as it were, from the various chambers of the house of self. Experience has taught you, in your desire for a full expression of your self, to restrain and prohibit many of these tendencies. You soon learn to act in such a manner that the maximum of good for you shall be conserved. In the school of experience you find that you must reckon with the others. Experience unfolds and develops the feeling of obligation to others. You may feel a tendency to act in a certain manner. Before you act, you, figuratively speaking, place the tendency in one scale pan of your *action balance* and weigh it against the consequences placed in the other scale pan. You attempt to determine, by this weighing process, if a net amount of good in your favor will result from this contemplated act. The scale pan in which you place your action tendencies may be thought of as the positive one involving good to you, while the other scale pan may be considered as negative involving evil consequences for you. The negative scale pan owes its existence to the society in which you live.

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The weight units employed in this scale pan consist of penalties involving personal losses, physical and mental pain. These penalties are therefore regarded by you, from your limited individualistic standpoint, as being negations of and subtractions from a possible amount of good available for you.

A complete analogy to this discord and opposition within the individual self is found in a self-governed social system in which the others exercise constraint or authority over your intended acts. In such a system there arises a feeling of obligation to society.

The classroom teacher as a molder of good citizens—Honest business, in distinction to profiteering, thrives in a soil of good citizenship. This soil may be ruined by ruthless business operations and methods. Profiteering and robbery cannot be considered as legitimate business. The welfare of society depends upon honest business which is impossible except in a social environment composed of good citizens. In so far, then, as the classroom teacher inculcates the ideals of good citizenship in the minds of the students, just in that same measure is honest business served. The student's *house of self* can be molded for good or evil in the classroom. A student should be made to feel that he is a junior member of society who is preparing himself for full membership. The essential principles upon which our democracy is founded may be simply explained as jointly constituting a mutual aid compact intended to benefit all the members. Every member of this democratic organization must pay a membership fee and subscribe to the constitution. The membership fee consists in the sacrifice of a portion of his individual liberty. The prospective member must also agree to abide by the rules and regulations of the organization. In consideration of the fulfillment of these two requirments he is told that he will receive an extra "liberty dividend" payable out of the accumulated liberty profits resulting from united organization. Our National government has, since its very incipiency, pledged itself to equitably disburse these "liberty dividends."

Liberty contrasted with anarchy—A great service has been and may be rendered in the future by the classroom teacher in pointing out the distinction between liberty and lawless anarchy. The well being and proper development of a living organism involves restraint. Some forms of plant life are injured by too much water. All forms are injured by excessive heat or cold. The positive character of a living organism is best developed and conserved by placing restrictions upon many influences which, although valuable in limited quantities, are harmful in excessively large amounts. The conscious self is a unity composed of the ever present factors, affirmation and negation. These are the positive and negative aspects of conscious life. The elimination of either of these factors involves the destruction of conscious life; in fact, life even in its simplest form becomes impossible. Successful self-affirmation is possible only through suitable self-negation. Wherever total absence of restriction is found, there ignorance reigns supreme. The true self unfolds and blossoms in a soil-restricted experience. All experience involves restraining influences. The experience of every day life adds to your knowledge concerning the real self. The determination of the nature of your real self is a

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process which depends upon action and reaction, affirmation and negation; in fact, on the continuous interaction between positive and negative experience factors. Self-determination involves both self-negation and self-affirmation.

The ideal of our democratic form of government—The ideal of our type of self-government seeks its essence within the unity of the individual self. The teacher can perform a great mission in the classroom by developing this theme in a simple manner. The notion of the individual self may readily be expanded into that of a *common self* in which the individual becomes benevolently related to society, and society, in its turn, beneficially associates itself with the individual. The individual, from this viewpoint, is the little world, the microcosm, while the *common self* is the great world, the macrocosm. In this *common self* your real will and our real will harmonize in the enlightened will of the world self. Our trivial moods are as shadows and not as permanent tones of life's great picture. The word law will represent only that which embodies our true will in its effort toward perfect self-determination.

True liberty is a continuously growing guarantee, an expanding living condition, which insures the possibility of the highest type of self-affiirmation. In your self-determination you are continuously becoming something more than what you were, consequently you are something more than what you have already become, and liberty cannot be an inert fixed quantity which you now own or always have possessed. True government insures the continuous maintenance and safe growth of true liberty. In that form of government the State exists for the individual and not the individual for the State. The true State is merely the ideal soil in which the individual self may, with the greatest ease, achieve its highest type of self-determination without jeopardizing or infringing on the equal rights of all its other constituent members.

The classroom teacher as the silent partner of the business man—Almost all business men are engaged in business for the sake of the profits. Some business men conduct their business not only for the sake of the profits but also to do good by giving employment to men and women. Progressive business men realize that their profits depend upon the efficiency of their employees. At the present time the manufacturer, the business man, and the professional man, whose vision is sufficiently broad, realizes the importance of providing a work environment that is cheerful, sanitary and free from the old oppressive atmosphere connected with the work establishments of former days. Employers, today, are fully aware of the fact that even these provisions are not sufficient to ensure efficiency. There is an important reactive psychic factor which must be appraised at its full value. In addition to this the intellectual reactions of the employees is of paramount importance.

The employer can make suitable provisions in regard to cheerful and healthy surroundings. In the matter of the psychic and intellectual reactions, however, proper attitudes must be formed during the educational period. This work is the particular field of the classroom teacher. The classroom teacher becomes the silent partner of the business man through this contribu-

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tion toward progress in education. Feudalism, in its various forms, is rapidly disappearing in industry and business. No longer will free men and women tolerate servitude and slavery in any form of industry and business. There is an equitable middle ground between the feudal state and the socialistic state.

Capital and labor as an "entente cordiale"—Human nature is so constituted that the reward of individual effort constitutes the paramount factor in human progress. Mere theories can never annihilate this predominating universal human characteristic. In fact, it is the main spring which eternally energizes those influences which are most potent in the development of civilization. A full realization of the significance of this factor must, eventually, bring about an "entente cordiale" between capital and labor.

Dangerous modern hysterias—The World War has compressed the human passions and energies. We are living over a dangerous volcano. Human passions are violent because of intense compression. Mass-suggestion acts like a mental radio-broadcasting device whose message reaches every member of the group. Blind obedience to suggestion is the fuse which lights the conflagration in the masses. Conditions throughout the world are now peculiarly conductive to sudden growth of such mental epidemics as the fear of financial panics, Bolshevik panaceas, outbursts of religious fanaticism, new forms of Millerism, power mania, anti-moral and anti-religious manias, and anti-everything hysteria.

Preservation of civilization—How shall we preserve our civilization from the destructive ravages of these dangerous tendencies? How can we prevent the mob rule of thumb from overthrowing the foundations of organized life? These problems must be solved by the deliberate coöperation of schools, States, nations, and religious organizations. Stampedes and mob movements can only be prevented by the balanced development of the controlling consciousness of the individual. Social and economic safety are possible only in an atmosphere of enlightened individuality which is equivalent to wise sympathy and balanced sanity. Love and reason can overthrow the rule of thumb.

The greatest duty to be performed by our classroom teachers consists in the proper presentation of this social and economic ideal to the youth for the purpose of safely guiding the dynamic human energies along the path of the common good. The faithful performance of this task by the classroom teachers of our country will result in a true, social and economic development and will insure the preservation of our highest ideals of equality of opportunity and equitable liberty for all mankind.

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THE CONTRIBUTION OF THE CLASSROOM TEACHER TOWARD PROGRESS IN EDUCATION FROM THE VIEWPOINT OF THE BUSINESS AND PROFESSIONAL WOMAN —ABSTRACT

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From the point of view of the 35,000 business women in the National Federation of Business and Professional Women's Clubs, the classroom teacher in a very large sense holds the keys to the educational standards, and so to the outlook, efficiency, personal development, and economic prosperity of the oncoming business woman.

The demands of the employer are of course, vitally determining factors in these standards and their results; so also are the instructional opportunities which the public and private business schools of lower grade and the university schools of business administration provide determining whether the technical training shall be of professional rank, of the crudely vocational sort, or only of the pre-vocational, wrongly applied to the business world.

But employers differ in the amount of their own education and in their demands of their employees. In spite of the rising tide of educational demand, it is still possible in business, for those sadly unprepared to enter the lower levels of business. Also, business schools differ greatly in their facilities and in the length of view used in the development of their pupils. Their leaders differ also in their own educational equipment and so in realization of the relation of general education to the best success in business. The girl moving up through the grammar grades hears of the dazzling opportunity to earn money quickly, short sighted parents yield to the pressure of actual or fancied financial need, not realizing the economic and human cost of their yielding. Something clicks down on the educational standards of the girl and shuts in her horizon, too often, forever.

The classroom teacher, more than any one else, holds the key to the situation at this point. Often she cannot solve it alone because of the girl's special responsiveness then to spacious out-in-the-world arguments—especially to the fact that some girl of her own age and education is earning an enviable number of dollars a week. But the real teacher is the one who best understands the girl in the mistake which she is making and if she will supplement her own influence with the girl then by the right outside influences she can over-match the persuasive arguments of a ten or twelve dollar-a-week grammar school stenographer by introducing the highly successful business woman who is earning far more than that and is ready to show how general education makes for larger success.

She can bring to the school the more enlightened type of employer and employment managers as well, to explain how educational standards in business are advancing; how large the proportion of blind-alley jobs and the

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lapse from stenography and typing to clerical and industrial work are for girls who seek to enter business without adequate general education.

The National Federation of Business and Professional Women's Clubs, through its hundreds of groups scattered over the country, offers you its help in the big undertaking and asks your own.

CLASSROOM TEACHERS' ORGANIZATIONS [1]

ALBERT R. LANG, STANFORD UNIVERSITY, CALIFORNIA

The status to which classroom teachers are entitled by their important and strategic position the public-school system has never been adequately recognized. The very nature of classroom work with its unspectacular and remote results, its large transient element, the unconcern and lack of professionalism among many of its constituents, and professional recognition and advancement of its members generally meaning "promotion" from it, have acted as deterrents in the establishment of a just status. During the "town meeting" days of early colonial times, the classroom teacher held all the status that existed in the teaching profession. Even for some time after the forming of "school committees," the classroom teacher continued supreme in the school realm. But with the growth of cities, came the principal teacher, the superintendent, and the supervisors, with the result that the classroom teacher gradually shared and finally lost much of the former standing and became submerged in the mass of organization and system. With this, teachers' voluntary organizations became largely replaced by superimposed institutes. This change was inevitable. However the time has arrived when the classroom teacher should reclaim some of the lost inheritance in order to dignify the position and advance the interests of public education. The influence for proper recognition must come from the classroom teachers themselves, and largely through voluntary organizations for that purpose. All classroom teachers need the help and inspiration that such associations can give.

It is the purpose of this study to analyze the present situation relative to classroom teachers' organizations with the view of such analysis indicating or suggesting the procedure by which they may best function in accomplishing the desired objectives.

The National League of Teachers' Associations sent questionnaires prepared by the writer to 156 classroom teachers' organizations, 48 affiliated with the National League and 108 others. Replies were received from 59 organizations, 36 affiliated with the National League and 23 others. This study is based on these replies, together with printed matter provided by 32 of the organizations.

Fifty-five of the 59 organizations are for classroom teachers exclusively. Of these, 34 are for grade teachers, 3 for high-school teachers, and 18 for both.

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[1] Read by Mrs. Emma L. Dacre, San Francisco, California.

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These organizations represent cities with a population of from 3746 to 576,673; the median city being 60,589. Ten per cent of the cities are under 10,000; 19 per cent, from 10,000 to 30,000; 13 per cent, from 30,000 to 50,000; 25 per cent, from 50,000 to 100,000; 17 per cent, from 100,000 to 300,000; 10 per cent, from 300,000 to 500,000; and 3 per cent over 500,000.

Relative to the area covered by the organizations, 3 per cent are from the New England States[1]; 3 per cent from the Middle Atlantic States; 15 per cent from the East North Central; 24 per cent from the West North Central; 5 per cent from the South Central; none from the East South Central; 7 per cent from the West South Central; 13 per cent from the Mountain States; 25 per cent from the Pacific States; and one from Hawaii. To what extent this is indicative of the sections of the United States which are especially interested in such organizations at the present time cannot be stated with certainty.

The growth of classroom teachers' organizations, as revealed by the dates when formed, has been constant and comparatively rapid during the last decade. Only about 17 per cent of those reporting were organized before 1911. The median date is 1916; that is, fifty per cent of them have been formed during the past six years. This is suggestive of the impetus the organizations have received and is indicative of an encouraging future.

Approximately 80 per cent of the organizations have been initiated by the classroom teachers themselves; and 20 per cent by superintendents or by teachers and superintendents or principals combined. Four western exchange teachers initiated one of the New England organizations; and one of the Pacific associations was initiated by a similar organization in a neighboring city. It is a necessary prerequisite that such organizations be initiated by the classroom teachers themselves.

Eighty-five per cent of the replies indicate the immediate causes for organizing. These may be roughly grouped under four headings with approximately 25 per cent falling under each, as follows: (1) To secure organized action; (2) to improve economic status; (3) to provide professional betterment; and (4) miscellaneous. Such generalizations as "felt need of organization," "advancement of teachers," "protection," and "lack of effective organization" largely comprise the first group. The second group consists of an inadequate salary situation. The third group is as general as the first, except that several were formed specifically for coöperating with the National Education Association. The fourth group includes such statements as "being done elsewhere," "reorganization of schools," "expansion of Teachers' Council," "autocratic leader," and "upon request of superintendent." If the data on this point are suggestive of anything, it is that in many cases there has not been in the past a very definite realization of a particular need in which the organization would be of assistance, but rather that the association was formed with the hope that the results of such would be helpful in general.

[1] States are given according to the Census Bureau Classification.

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The fifty-nine organizations reporting are known by thirty-one different names. Eighty-six per cent include the name of the city as part of the title. Forty-nine per cent are called "associations"; 32 per cent are called "clubs"; and the remaining 19 per cent are distributed among such designations as "council," "league," "federation," "organization," "N. E. A. Branch," "forum," "circle," and "society." Thirty-seven per cent have the

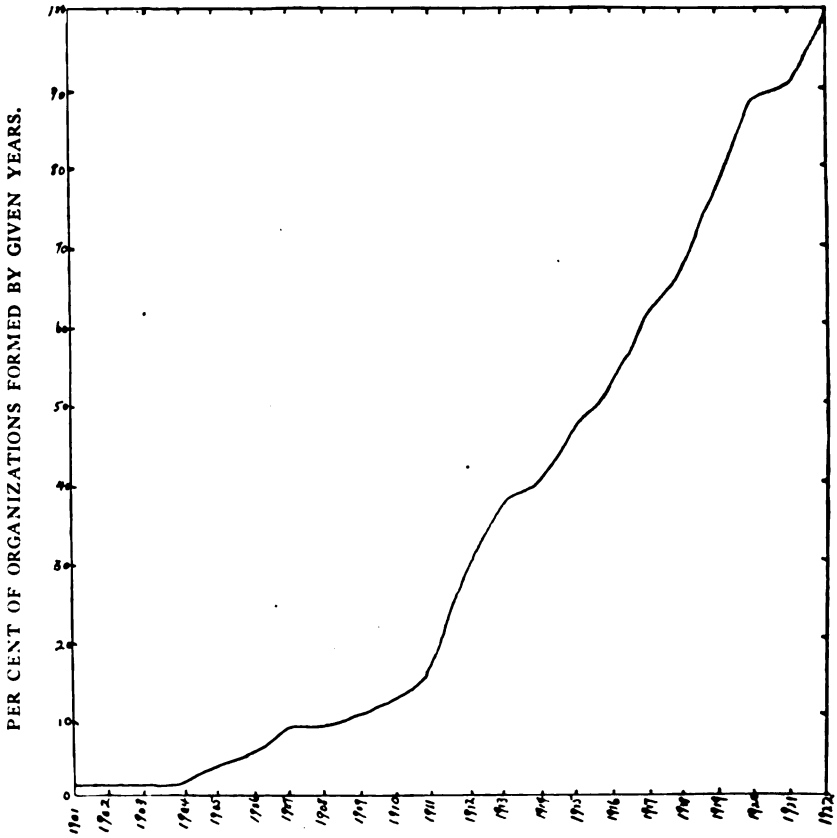


Fig. 1—GROWTH OF CLASSROOM TEACHERS' ORGANIZATION FROM 1901 TO 1922 INCLUSIVE.

(Based on Organizations Reporting.)

name "grade teachers" in the title; 34 per cent have the name "teachers" and the remaining 29 per cent have such terms as "elementary teachers," "city teachers," "high-school teachers," "community teachers," "school women"; "grade section," "education," "city schools," "schools," "high-school women," "educational," "public school teachers," and "classroom teachers." Twenty per cent are called "Grade Teachers' Association"; 14 per cent, "Teachers' Association"; 12 per cent, "Teachers' Club"; and 12

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per cent, "Grade Teachers' Club." While the name of a teachers' organization may not in itself be very important, it should indicate the city in which located, and something of its nature and membership. "Association" suggests a larger inclusiveness in purpose and membership than "society"; whereas "club" suggests a more private membership and a more social purpose. "Grade Teachers' Association" preceded by the name of the city in which located would seem to be an appropriate title for grade teachers' associations generally. However, "Classroom Teachers' Association" has an advantage in that it stresses the classroom and might be suggestive of a proper recognition and status of the classroom teacher as such.

The formulated purposes may be roughly grouped under ten headings. Each organization has from one to seven of these purposes, the median falling at two. The combinations show no uniformity in items involved. In general the stated purposes are not suggestive of the tasks to be done. These, together with the per cent of organizations including them, are: (1) To provide professional betterment, 36 per cent; (2) to promote the welfare of the schools, 32 per cent; (3) to promote the welfare of the teachers, 24 per cent; (4) to foster good-will and helpfulness, 24 per cent; (5) to provide social betterment, 22 per cent; (6) to raise status of teachers, 20 per cent; (7) to coöperate with other agencies, 16 per cent; (8) to improve economic status, 12 per cent; (9) to provide organized action, 8 per cent; and (10) to promote civic betterment, 6 per cent.

The usual officers are president, vice-president, secretary, and treasurer. There is commonly but one vice-president; however, several have two, and a few from three to eight. Approximately a half of the organizations have two secretaries—a recording secretary and a corresponding secretary. A historian and a reporter are mentioned by two organizations. The term of office is generally one year; although in one case it is not more than two years, in another case it is not more than three years, and one has an indefinite term. The selection is usually by majority vote through a secret ballot. While nominations are in most cases made by a committee for that purpose, there are instances of nomination by primary election and of nomination from the floor. Membership in the organization is the only general qualification for holding office. One organization requires two years' service in the school system before qualifying for holding office. Another states that the president must have served one year on the board of managers.

The number of standing committees, not including such general committees as executive and board of managers or directors, ranges from none to twenty. The model number is 5, approximately 20 per cent having this number. The median number is 4.2. Approximately 30 per cent of the organizations are equally divided between three, four and six committees. While there is some diversity in titles given to committees with similar functions, the various committees may be grouped according to eleven functions. These, with the per cent of organizations having them, are: (1) Professional and educational, 64 per cent; (2) social and recreational, 62 per cent; (3) welfare, 60 per cent; (4) publicity, 54 per cent; (5) legislative, 48 per cent; (6) program, 32 per cent; (7) membership, 24 per cent;

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(8) civic, 22 per cent; (9) organizations, 20 per cent; (10) salaries and compensation, 18 per cent; and (11) educational council, 16 per cent. The above does not include such committees as executive, auditing, nominating, bulletin, or temporary committees for special activities or studies.

The committees are most often appointed by the president. Occasionally the president's appointments must be approved by the board of directors. In some cases the board of directors does the appointing. It is not uncommon for the committees, especially the chairman, to be elected by the membership. Sometimes certain committees are elected and others are appointed by the president. The only qualification for serving on a committee is generally active membership in the organization. In one case, members must have served in the system two years.

Twenty per cent of the organizations report paid workers. This includes pay for occasional services when needed and to certain officers. The work for which payment is made is generally of a clerical and financial nature. One organization reports the services of a lawyer for legal advice and looking after the school legislation. The qualifications sometimes require membership in the organization, and often clerical experience and ability to do office work. Bond requirement for those handling finances is mentioned. The paid workers are commonly selected by election; however, the board of directors in some instances appoints them. The plan of paying some one to devote definite time to the interests of the association should bring large dividends. The president, especially, should have some time from classroom work in order to meet with various local clubs and to give talks on educational topics. The need for paid workers to look after legislation and special interests of the organization should be given attention.

All of the organizations report membership dues, varying from 10 cents to $10; the median being 96 cents. The model dues are $1, which represents about 40 per cent of the organizations. Thirty per cent are about equally divided between 50 cents and $2. The funds which accrue go to such various purposes as current local and incidental expenses, affiliation assessment, benevolent and loan funds, social affairs, legislative activity, lectures, expenses of delegates, libraries, publicity, legal services, rent, clubhouse fund, civic enterprises, and reserve funds. The dues are much too low to make it possible to secure effective action. One or two dollars a year does not create a fund large enough to accomplish much, particularly along legislative lines. The matter of increased dues should be considered in the light of an investment which will bring the teacher large returns.

Seventy-five per cent report that they are affiliated with other organizations. The number of affiliations for each of these ranges from one to seven, the median being 2.1. Fifteen per cent have only one affiliation, 22 per cent have two, and 24 per cent have three. The affiliations, with the per cent of organizations affiliated with each, are as follows: (1) National League of Teachers' Associations, 56 per cent; (2) National Education Association, 53 per cent; (3) City Women's Clubs, 29 per cent; (4) State Teachers' Associations, 27 per cent; (5) State Classroom Teachers' Associations, 14 per cent; (6) City Commercial Clubs, 14 per cent; (7) State

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Federations of Women's Clubs, 9 per cent; (8) City Teachers' Associations including one Parents' and Teachers' Association, 9 per cent; and (9) County Organizations of Teachers' or Women's Federations, 5 per cent. One organization reports affiliation with the White Cross, and another with the National Conference of Social Work. One sends a delegate to the Labor Council but is not affiliated with it. Just how close and significant these affiliations may be, is very uncertain. Seven of the organizations report that they are incorporated for the purpose of protection, greater stability and dignity, or property holding.

The membership of the organizations range from 13 to 1902; the median membership being 216. So far as can be determined from the data, the median per cent of eligibles belonging is 86.3.

The estimates of amount of interest shown by the teachers in their respective organizations range from 10 per cent to 100 per cent, the median being 58.5 per cent. About a fourth estimate 50 per cent. The causes for lack of interest and the per cent of organizations giving each are as follows: (1) Indifference, including the "let the other fellow do it attitude" and "interested in salary only," 23 per cent; (2) other demands on the teachers' time, due largely to the teaching load, 19 per cent; (3) new teachers, 11 per cent; (4) lack of professional interest, 11 per cent; (5) outside interests, such as "hope chests" and other clubs, 11 per cent; (6) inexperience, 8 per cent; (7) transients, "birds of passage," 8 per cent; and (8) organization shortcomings, 11 per cent. Organization shortcomings include such as having no vital business now, size of organization, not having enough work to keep all busy and the lack of something to promote.

The success of an organization is, no doubt, best measured in terms of work undertaken and the degree of accomplishment. There have been many and various achievements. These roughly grouped under nine general headings and given according to the per cent of organizations reporting them are as follows: (1) Salary achievements, 58 per cent; (2) professional, 39 per cent; (3) legislative and political, 36 per cent; (4) contractual, other than salary, 31 per cent; (5) welfare, 29 per cent; (6) coöperation, 18 per cent; (7) publicity, 18 per cent; (8) status, 16 per cent; and (9) activity with other organizations, 16 per cent. The salary achievements include increases, prevention of decreases, and improvement of schedules. The professional accomplishments consist of maintenance of lecture courses, university extension and study classes, revision of courses of study, and selection of texts. Among the legislative and political activities were the influencing or State educational legislation, increasing local tax valuation, voting school bond issues, substituting a court of domestic relations in lieu of a juvenile court, aiding in securing a new city charter, and securing better amusements at a State fair. The contractual achievements other than salary cover such questions as sick leave on pay, better teacher rating system, advisory council, abolishment of an objectionable merit system, abolishment of a supervisory system, improvement of retirement system, leave of absence, rest periods, spring vacation, and prevention of teachers breaking their contracts. The welfare work consists of maintenance of loan funds, sick and

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hospital benefits, assistance to teachers in securing desirable boarding and rooming places, establishment of vacation camps, support of war orphans and contributions to war relief funds, maintenance of a day nursery, provision of milk for indigent children, and scholarship funds. Coöperation achievements include providing a means for teachers to get acquainted, entertaining school authorities, establishing unity between grade and high-school teachers, and promoting general goodwill and fellowship. Publicity covers both local press work and special publications by the organizations. Status achievements consist of raising the teacher in the estimation of school authorities and community. Activities with other organizations consist of securing 100 per cent N. E. A. memberships, sending representatives to conventions, and assisting others to organize.

It is clear that much fine work has been done. The accomplishments, however, are not evenly distributed among the organizations. About one fifth did not report any or stated that nothing of importance had been done. One half of the organizations report 84 per cent of the achievements. One third of the organizations are responsible for two thirds of the accomplishments reported.

Work was unsuccessfully undertaken by about a third of the organizations; a third report no failures; and a third do not report on this point. The failures were in matters of salary, teachers' council, sick leave, revision of course of study, more playgrounds, publishing year book, keeping grade teachers intact from affiliation with labor, and State legislation. The causes for failures are given as lack of interest, community not ready, delayed action too long, lack of funds, failure of committee to function, overcrowded legislation, adverse influences, failures to lay foundation in advance, and inability to convince board. Any organization that is doing things must expect some failures. It is interesting to note that the failures reported are only a little over 1 per cent of the accomplishments reported. While absolute statements cannot be accurately made on the basis of a questionnaire study of this kind, nevertheless it is indicative that, in a descriptive manner, the accomplishments far outweigh the failures. The reasons given for the failures are very suggestive as to the way to avoid many of them.

A great variety of activities are reported as being maintained at the present time. These have been grouped under ten general headings; and with the per cent of the organizations reporting each, are: (1) Social activities, 54 per cent; (2) legislation, 39 per cent; (3) lectures, 37 per cent; (4) research, 34 per cent; (5) civic, 22 per cent; (6) professional study 19 per cent; (7) benevolent, 19 per cent; (8) recreational, 19 per cent; (9) university extension courses, 15 per cent; and (10) entertainments, 12 per cent. The social activities include parties, banquets, receptions, luncheons, teas, and affairs of various kinds. The legislative work covers twelve States and is largely in connection with pension bills; however, such measures as have to do with tenure, minimum wage, county unit, school code commission, and part-time schools are mentioned. The lecture activities are both educational and cultural; sometimes being a course arrangement and at other times occasional lectures by noted educators. The research work includes special studies relative to salary schedules, teacher's rating, revision

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of courses of study, teacher's load, code of ethics, pensions, teacher participation in school administration, Americanization survey, economical use of time, extra-mural athletics, local finances, cumulative sick leave, best time for State and National educational conventions, bureau of reference and research, supervision, extra-curricular activities, growth of teachers in service, exceptional children, and assisting a State normal school prepare a course of study for classroom teachers. A review of a research report made by a grade teachers' association on "The Exceptional Child in School" shows how carefully, patiently, and effectively some of these studies are pursued. This particular report covers more than a year's work by a committee on child welfare, terminating in some commendable legislation for the education of crippled children. The civic activities consist of assistance in school bond campaigns, Americanization work, and coöperation with other organizations in various city endeavors. One organization has planted 6000 Iris roots at different schools throughout the city with the aim of making it the "Iris City." The professional study is usually of a general nature and for the teacher's self-improvement. It may consist of clubs sponsored by the organization for the study of some general educational problem or some special subject-matter such as history or a particular penmanship system. The benevolent enterprises consist of maintenance of funds for sick benefit, hospital loans, and other emergency aid to needy members. One organization reports that it maintains a room for teachers at a hospital. Another is screening the teachers' cottage at a tubercular sanitarium. Another is supporting seven French war orphans. Donations are given to various war relief funds. Many assist new teachers in finding desirable rooming and boarding places, and entertain new teachers. Many little courtesies such as visiting and taking flowers to sick teachers are practiced. While the recreational activities overlap somewhat the social activities, they may be said to consist of dancing, bowling, swimming, golf, picnics, hikes, tennis, cards, and other popular games. Some conduct regular classes in such activities as dancing and swimming. Two organizations maintain vacation camps for teachers' use. "Mountain Cabin" and "Bitter Sweet Camp" are important adjuncts to the two organizations concerned. The university extension courses might have been grouped with the professional study except for the fact that these courses, while directed by the organization, are under the extension plan of some university and have a different significance in respect to credit or regular application. The entertainment activities consist of concerts, glee clubs, pageants, festivals, and dramatics. Some of these are in the nature of lyceum courses sponsored by the organization, and others are entirely the work of the members themselves. In addition to the foregoing, such activities as maintaining reference libraries for teachers, providing legal aid for dismissed teachers, maintaining scholarship funds, and membership campaigns for the National Education Association and State educational associations are mentioned.

Fifteen per cent of the organizations do not report any activities. Four fifths of the activities are reported by one half of the organizations. Some of the organizations maintain only one activity, while others maintain many. Some are carrying on several research problems. While most of the accom-

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plishments in the past were along the lines of economic betterment, there seems to be more emphasis upon other phases of the teachers' problem at the present time. Research and legislative activities are receiving much attention of the classroom teachers' organizations, and there is no question but that their influence is being felt. They are undertaking commendable projects which will be of assistance to them and to the public schools generally.

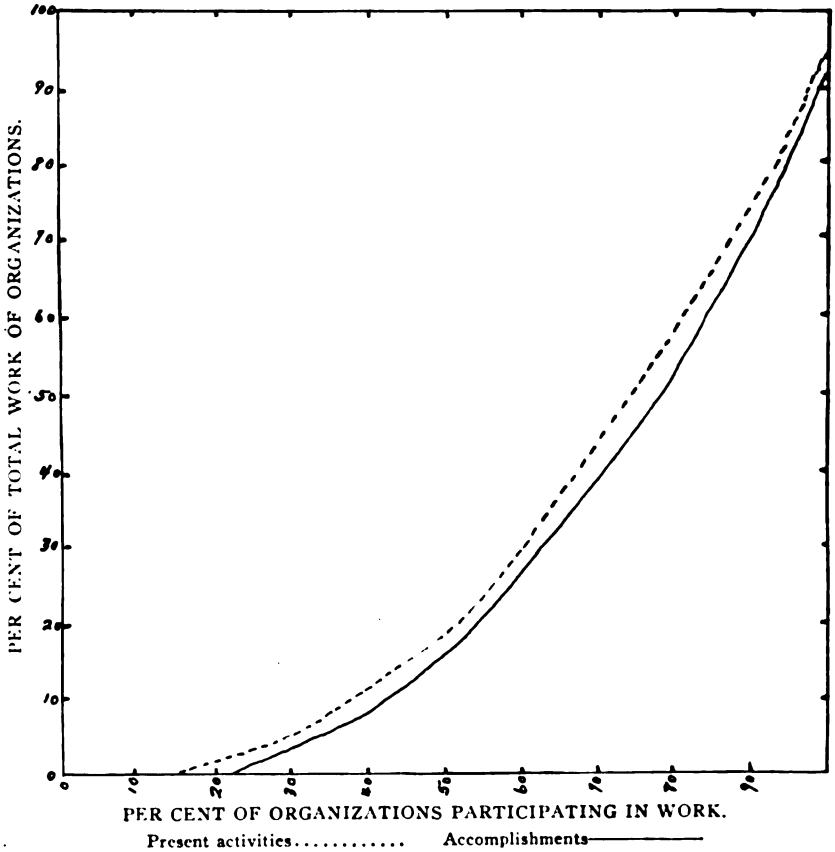


Fig. 2—RATIO BETWEEN WORK OF ORGANIZATIONS AND ORGANIZATIONS PARTICIPATING.

The preceding graph shows that practically the same proportion of organizations are participating in present activities as were responsible for past achievements. There is a need for a more general participation by all in the various undertakings.

About 40 per cent of the organizations issue some publication. It may be a year book, magazine, bulletin, semi-annual, quarterly, monthly, semi-monthly, or special circulars. Some have several publications. The purposes of these are to keep members in touch with educational progress and activities generally, to give information to teachers and friends, to serve as

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exchange medium with other organizations, to develop talent of members, to provide general review and record of the work, to promote unity and coöperation, and to serve in an inspirational way. Many of the publications are very interesting and well edited, and provide information that every teacher should have. The publications cannot be adequately dealt with here. They are of sufficient importance and interest to warrant in themselves an exhaustive and special study.

Nearly 20 per cent of the organizations report that they maintain club rooms. These are used for office and library purposes, committee meetings, and social functions. One organization provides a car for its president's use. Such facilities as these, when possible, serve to add much to the influence and prestige of an organization.

All but three of the organizations report relative to the recognition given them by school authorities. The entire fifty-six report that recognition is given, and only in one case is it stated that it is done unwillingly. In some cases the cordial and friendly attitude is especially emphasized. The recognition is shown in various ways and is largely a matter of mutual understandng and coöperation. It consists of the school authorities treating the organizations in an advisory capacity; encouraging and assisting their activities in various ways as in two cases granting their representatives leave with pay in order to attend conventions and the legislature; and by participating in programs and at social functions. A most satisfactory and helpful relationship exists between school authorities and classroom teachers' organizations. Such a relationship is essential to the teachers' cause and is propitious of success.

The associations should take great care in formulating their program, and be sure that it is sane, broad, and constructive. Every precaution should be taken to insure intelligent and constructive leadership. Great harm to the teachers' best interests and to the cause of education can be done by a mere protective and defensive policy under theoretical and selfish leadership. The problem involves an obligation being assumed by the classroom teachers more than a concession being made to them. Mere discussions of school problems based upon abstract theories and unofficial ideas will not get very far. Definite projects must be undertaken. These must be based upon sound facts obtained through careful investigation and research. The teachers' participation in the formation of school policies implies responsibility and professional preparation and interest commensurate with the responsibility acquired. Dr. H. B. Sears, in a most excellent article on "Teacher Participation in Public-School Administration," presents a sound basis for teacher participation in the formation of school policies. He considers it as coördination through "staff" advice, wherein every "line" officer renders some "staff" service. His conclusions and the bibliography he gives for further study of the subject should receive the careful attention of classroom teachers as well as of school administrators. It is essential to build upon sound principles such as Dr. Sears has proposed.

Many wonderful achievements have been made by the various organizations. Strong and sane leadership among them is obvious. However, the

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writer is convinced that there is, in general, a great need for a more defined objective and a greater unity of action among the associations. This can be accomplished best by a National clearing-house and unifying agency such as the National League of Teachers' Associations. A careful review of the work and publications of this association reveals the great constructive work it is doing along these essential lines. It remains for all local classroom teachers' associations to realize the National scope of their interests; their common needs; and the effectiveness of all working together under the leadership of a National organization of classroom teachers.

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CONTRIBUTION OF THE CLASSROOM TEACHER TOWARD PROGRESS IN EDUCATION IN SECURING EQUAL SALARY FOR EQUAL SERVICE

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The members of the Executive Committee of the Department of Classroom Teachers interested in the movement to secure an equal remuneration for services of teachers doing the same kind of work regardless of sex recognized the necessity of securing information as to whether this discrimination had been practiced in many parts of the country.

To facilitate the collection of data it was deemed advisable to send a questionnaire to the head of the Department of Education in every State in the Union, in order to find to what extent the operation of the principle was State-wide. The first question asked was, "Is the principle of 'equal pay for equal work' operative in the schools of any of the cities or towns under your jurisdiction, if so, in which ones? It was hoped that the replies would enable the committee to prepare a list of the cities and towns where the principle prevailed.

The results were most disappointing, only one reply giving a list of the cities and towns throughout the State in which the principle prevailed.

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Strange as it may seem to the opponents of the principle of equal pay the State superintendent who furnished this detailed statement was a woman.

From the 39 replies received, 11 stated that by legislation the principle was State-wide but 2 of these mentioned the fact that there were evasions by local school boards, 11 could furnish no data, and 17 replied that there was no State law governing the principle. The last group includes the State of Washington whose superintendent furnished the detailed account. Fourteen counties in that State reported that the "equal pay" principle prevailed, 11 counties reported "no." Nine "first class" districts reported "yes." Of the "second class" districts 28 reported "yes"; 9 "no." Texas reported that the State Teachers' Association is recorded as favoring the principle for the whole State but that it prevails in some of the large cities. In Connecticut, the principle has not yet been accepted but the Teachers' Association of New Haven has sponsored legislation for it. While there is no ruling or regulation operative in the State of Idaho, the State superintendent and the assistant superintendent are women and women are also employed as heads of department in the normal and high schools of the State. Practically all of the county superintendents as well as some city superintendents are women. In Vermont, the question has never been considered because their problem is largely one of rural schools, the largest city in the State having a population of only 25,000. In the New York State the legislation applies only to cities of one million or over in population.

Since the information furnished by the State superintendents was so meager it became necessary to send questionnaires to some of the large cities of every State.

From the data received the cities and towns where progress has been shown may be divided into two classes.

I. Those in which different schedules operate in the elementary and the high schools but there is no difference in salaries paid because of sex.

II. Those in which the so-called "single salary" schedule is operative. These schedules provide that teachers with equivalent training, experience, and efficiency are paid the same salary whether teaching in elementary, junior high or senior high schools.

CITIES OF THE FIRST TYPE INCLUDE

Birmingham, Alabama
San Francisco, Los Angeles — California
Streator, Illinois
Indianapolis, Indiana
Detroit, Grand Rapids — Michigan
St. Paul, Minnesota
Kansas City, St. Louis — Missouri
Omaha, Nebraska
Bayonne, Camden, Newark, Paterson — New Jersey
Buffalo, Rochester, Schenectady, New York — New York
Cincinnati, Columbus, Dayton — Ohio
Philadelphia, Pittsburgh — Pennsylvania
Olympia, Seattle, Tacoma — Washington
Washington, D. C.
Dallas, Fort Worth, San Antonio — Texas

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Among cities operating under the single salary schedule are:

Fort Smith, Arkansas
Pueblo, Denver — Colorado
Chicago, Illinois
Sioux City, Iowa
Lawrence, Kansas
Minneapolis, St. Cloud, Virginia — Minnesota
Lincoln, Nebraska
Cleveland, Cleveland Heights — Ohio
Muskogee, Oklahoma
Harrisburg, Pennsylvania
Raleigh, North Carolina
Spokane, Washington
Green Bay, Wisconsin

Roanoke, Virginia, reported the operation of a "single salary" schedule, as it also reports that $30 per month in addition to the schedule is paid to minim all ranks it must be eliminated from the equal pay cities.

To the inquiry, "Has the operation of the principle of equal pay decreased the number of men in the schools?" it was refreshing to receive from many sources replies similar to the following: "The principle has prevailed here so long that we can make no comparison." Only one superintendent felt that the operation of the principle had any effect on the number of men in the service.

A study of the question convinces one that it is not the problem of any particular section of our country. That it is one of the most vital issues in educational progress is evidenced by the fact that for the last fifteen years every progressive teachers' organization has considered the problem in some phase.

We are informed that as early as 1871, Wendell Phillips offered the following resolution at a meeting in Worcester, Massachusetts, "We demand that wherever women are employed at public expense to do the same kind and amount of work as men perform they shall receive the same wages."

The first State of which we have any record, to enact legislation relative to the principle was California, where on March 30, 1874, the following act was approved: "Females employed as teachers in the public schools of this State, shall in all cases receive the same compensation as is allowed male teachers for alike services, when holding the same grade of certificate."

Testimony from all sources bears out the fact that the work of the classroom teacher has been the chief factor in whatever progress has been made in the elimination of sex discrimination in the payment of salaries to teachers in our public schools, but the principle was not established without unceasing labor to overcome the traditional prejudices that existed.

This is clearly demonstrated in the case of the teachers of the city of New York who furnish us with a commendable example of patience and persistence. After meeting with indifference on the part of the Board of Education they went to the State Assembly at Albany with their problem. The injustice of the discrimination in salary was felt for many years, but it was not until 1907, when they effected organization to act as a unit that they accomplished any result. Annually from 1907 to 1912 they worked for the attainment of a partial victory and in 1919 complete success crowned their efforts.

When the Equal Pay Law was passed in New York in 1912, the current opinion at that time was to the effect that it would tend to deplete the schools,

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particularly the elementary schools, of male teachers. The provisions of the law were nullified by a series of legislative enactments subsequent to the Equal Pay Law which excepted from the operation of the law those men who were in the service, those who were on eligible lists, or those who were in training schools for teachers; so that for a period of four or five years the Equal Pay Law did not have its full force. In the high schools equal pay was effected on the basis of the male teachers' salary while in the elementary schools it was effected upon a basis of a higher rate approximately midway between the salaries for women and those for men.

The salary legislation passed in 1919 really put into effect in New York City equal pay in all respects. This law raised the salaries of the women (based on the Equal Pay Law of 1912) to the rate of the men teachers' schedule which had by the legislative enactments before mentioned been kept in operation for the men in the system.

In Boston, Massachusetts, the experience of the New York teachers is being duplicated. The equal-pay principle prevails in many ranks in Boston schools but not in the high schools. For more than fifteen years the women high-school teachers have been striving for salaries equal to those paid to the men teachers because the same preparation is required and the same examinations are given irrespective of sex. Finding that appeals to the School Board met with no success, the women went to the State Legislature in 1917 and lost by one vote in the Senate. Since that time they have annually presented their case for consideration.

On May 29, 1923, the governor signed the Act making the principle operative upon its acceptance by the people at the next annual election.

The contribution of the classroom teachers of New York and Boston toward progress in solving the "equal pay" problem is typical of the work done throughout the country.

Our cause is a splendid one. All such reforms cost sacrifice commensurate with the value of success. Refusal to pay women of equal competence equally with men is a vestige of that primitive social state where man was master and woman subordinate. We are living in an age when public opinion is the ruling force in all departments of life. If we can educate and crystallize this all pervading force, justice will come of itself without revolutionary tactics of any kind.

Throughout the country much has been done toward the solution of our problem but there is still a vast field for work before us. Effective organization working as a unit, utilizing the strength, intelligence and energy of every individual member will be most effective in reaching our goal. Such organization we have at hand in our department of classroom teachers, supported by the National Education Association.

This organization has at its disposal the facilities and the resources for gathering data that may be of help to all classroom teachers in the solution of this problem and any others that may come before them. It is always ready to coöperate with teachers' organizations, both local and State. Let us utilize these resources and unite so that we may work for our mutual advancement in all lines tending toward educational progress.

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THE CONTRIBUTION OF THE CLASSROOM TEACHER TOWARD PROGRESS IN EDUCATION—IN THE INTEREST OF THE TOWNER-STERLING BILL

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In this paper I am going to discuss the Education Bill known as the Towner-Sterling Bill which has been indorsed for the fifth time by the National Education Association and which has been before Congress for the past five years.

With the opening of the Sixty-eighth Congress next December, one of the first problems will center around President Harding's proposals for a reorganization of the Executive Department of the Federal Government. The Education Bill will be reintroduced and its close bearing upon the President's program is a sufficient guarantee that it will come at once into the limelight.

Persons familiar with the processes by which great movements are crystallized into legislation will recognize that the fight for the Education Bill is now entering upon a new phase. The aims of the Bill may be realized in the next Congress or it may take longer. It took ten years to obtain the Department of Commerce and Labor. The Education Bill has been before Congress but half that long and it has already won such an overwhelming National support that every attack by its enemies only adds to its strength by uniting its friends and making new converts to its cause.

It is of the utmost importance to the success of the measure that the classroom teachers everywhere be prepared to speak convincingly on the merits of the Bill. In order to speak convincingly on any subject one must be well posted on the subject and one must be in sympathy with the subject. I beg leave to stop a moment to give you a brief history of the Bill and its principal provisions: "The Commission of the National Education Association prepared a measure which was introduced in the Senate in October, 1918, by Senator Hoke Smith, of Georgia, and which was known as the Smith Bill. This original bill followed quite closely the provisions contained in the Smith-Lever, and the Smith-Hughes Acts. Certain of these provisions were justly criticized as permitting too much Federal interference. The objectionable features were eliminated and the bill carefully revised and reintroduced in the Senate at the opening of the special session of the Sixty-sixth Congress in May, 1918, by Senator Hoke Smith. It was introduced in the House by Representative Horace Mann Towner, of Iowa, and was known throughout the Sixty-sixth Congress as the Smith-Towner Bill. It was favorably reported by both the House and Senate Committees on Education near the close of the Sixty-sixth Congress in February, 1921, but did not come to a vote in either house. The bill was again revised, and at the opening of the special session of the Sixty-seventh Congress in April, 1921, was reintroduced in the House by Congressman Towner, and in the Senate by Senator Thomas Sterling, of South Dakota. The bill is now known as the Towner-Sterling Bill."

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Probably no bill ever introduced in Congress has been so widely distributed, so thoroughly considered, and so generally discussed. The Bill is divided into three parts. It proposes: *First*, to create a Department of Education with a Secretary in the President's Cabinet; *Second*, to create a National Council of one hundred representative educators and laymen, which will meet annually at the call of the Secretary; *Third*, to give Federal aid to encourage the States in the solution of five educational problems, fundamental alike to worthy citizenship in both State and Nation. The Bill prohibits Federal control. The five problems are as follows: (1) The removal of illiteracy, (2) the Americanization of the foreign born, (3) the promotion of physical education, (4) the training of teachers, and (5) the equalization of educational opportunities.

Why support the Towner-Sterling Bill? This is a question every teacher should be able to answer convincingly. The answer should be very concise and definite. The Federal Government now spends millions yearly for strictly educational work. This work is scattered among several Federal departments. A department of education would coördinate this work and eliminate waste. Effective administration of the Federal Government's present educational activities demand the creation of a Department of Education.

Education of the country's future citizenry is not a luxury, but is the Nation's greatest necessity, since the life and prosperity of the Republic depend upon a citizenship which is physically, intellectually, and morally sound. The Nation looks to the States for its citizens; it should aid the States in their training. Leo G. Schussman, superintendent of schools, Kaukauna, Wisconsin in a seven-page pamphlet entitled "Pigeonhole or Cabinet" gives in verse a good argument for the Towner-Sterling Bill. Very strikingly does the author contrast the efficient care that the government gives the livestock with the utter neglect it bestows upon the children. The following are quotations from this article:

The worms and bugs and slimy slugs,
  The beetles, lice and fleas,
The hopping things and pests with wings
  That feed on crops and trees,
Waxed strong and bold. Like plagues of old
  They sucked and chewed and ate
The growing grain on hill and plain
  From early until late.

Note the result—

The hungry cows faced empty mows,
The pigs of feed had none.
The call went out the farm about
For all the stock to meet.

Debate was long about their wrong,
But when the talk was done
Decided all, both great and small,
To go to Washington.

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After an uneventful journey they find the Secretary of Agriculture and lay their case before him.

The Secretaire with studied air
Replied in kindly tone,
"You are my wards, this thing affords
Some problems I must own.
These insect pests and other guests,
These beasts that rob and slay
Will soon find out that we're about,
They've had their little day.
We'll have them flayed and doped and sprayed
With sulphur, lime, and lead;
With kerosene and Paris green
Let them be doped and fed.

After being assured that they are well represented in Washington and that their case shall have further consideration from the President himself, the animals depart for home. Now come the children:

The school bells ring with noisy din
And call them from their play,
To narrow halls and dingy walls,
In schoolrooms dark and gray.
The crowds in some make Kingdom-Come
Draw shudderingly near.
Another bell may toll the knell
O'er bodies black and sear.

The air is bad for lass and lad,
Like that deep from a mine,
In tainted breath the germs of death
Connive at health's decline.

They heard of how the stock Pow-Wow
Had gone to Washington;
That pigs have there a Secretaire
To see their rights are won.
If calves and shoats and billy-goats
Can see the President,
Then surely they should have their say
In their predicament.

They make their pilgrimage and find the Cabinet in session and that—

The soldier lads, the naval dads,
The silver and the gold,
Each labor crew and postman too,
Are all within the fold;
The farmer man, the lawyer clan,
Ambassador and suite,
Each has his chair and Secretaire
In retinue complete.

Liberty approaches them and kindly informs them that—

There's none to make your plea,
Alas, 'tis true, none here knows you,
You're dead officially.

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"The outward things from silk and rings,
From coal to daily food;
Each has a throne for it alone.
Alas, alas, 'tis true,
The cattle get a Cabinet,
A pigeon-hole for YOU.

Now we ask the question what can the classroom teacher do in the final campaign for the Bill? Teachers everywhere will be questioned about "their bill." It is their bill framed by their representatives in strict accord with the convictions that teachers had collectively expressed on innumerable occasions, and since its formulation repeatedly and unanimously indorsed by professional organizations as embodying their judgment of what a National program of education should undertake.

Again I repeat it is of the utmost importance that the 700,000 teachers of our Nation shall be prepared to speak convincingly on the merits of the Bill. If an interested layman should find a teacher unfamiliar with the measure, he would not stop to consider the fact that there are 700,000 teachers in the country and that some of them are new in the profession and may not know what their profession is proposing. Therefore, it behooves the classroom teacher to become acquainted with the Bill; because the average layman will judge the entire profession by the teachers with whom he is personally acquainted. These may be untrained; they may be new to the service; they may not be professionally minded—yet to him they represent the entire group.

It becomes the duty of every classroom teacher who is present to become a missionary in the interests of the Towner-Sterling Bill. Now is the time to prepare for the final campaign, and one of the obvious steps of preparation is to see to it that every teacher who has entered the service in the last few years is well informed as to the above named proposals of the Bill.

The question is asked, "How can this be done?" It can be done through the county institutes and the summer session of June, July, and August, in the local, district, and State associations in the fall: through the local and State educational journals. If the teachers will make the most of every opportunity there will be an abundance of opportunities for getting the information before the new teachers and for inspiring the great body of the profession to the final efforts which will bring success. The classroom teachers should make use of the folders and pamphlets on the Towner-Sterling Bill which are sent out by the U. S. Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C. Every teacher should read "The Fight to the Finish," "Why Support the Towner-Sterling Bill," "Facts about the Education Bill," "The Towner-Sterling Bill," "Legislative Commission Series, No. 3," and "National Leadership in Education." All of these may be had by writing to Miss Agnes Winn, Director of Elementary School Service, 1201 16th Street, Washington, D. C.

In voting on any question, and especially this one, what is the first thing one has in mind? I assume that broadly speaking it is the welfare of the future of our country, but there are some who will not so look at it. The

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future of our country will be determined by how we train those who are children today for taking care of our country in the future, and let us keep it in mind that our children have no say other than one silent appeal to you and to me.

They have no vote in this matter and what is done for them must be done by you and me, and along the line of human duty I desire to ask each of you to give heed to the following editorial in *Collier's,* the National Weekly, for April 14, 1923, headed—"Let's Put Our Stake on the Youngsters."

By action of its leaders, the National Education Association has for the fifth time indorsed the Towner-Sterling Bill for Federal aid and guidance in the schools. Despite the efforts of Washington and his successors, our National Government has never done anything like its fair share of the American work of education. So long as we spend three quarters or more of every tax dollar on war, past, present, or to come, just so long we shall be unable to do as we wish by our schools. For three hundred years statecraft has robbed the future for the sake of present armament. The one big job for our Nation's leaders today is to take the money out of war and put it into our schools. Quit betting on gunpowder and bet on the kids. That is a plain and simple program and can be carried out. It will do more than we can dream to establish a better and happier human life here in our country.

The citizens whom this educational statesmanship must enlist on its side is everybody old enough to know what the teachers are trying to do. Government aid and leadership do not mean more government schools, but better local schools. The real idea of model public instruction and a Federal Department of Education at Washington, D. C., is merely to improve what's being done in the grades of Rumpus Ridge, Arkansas, and Rough Gap, Montana. The States, and even more, the districts themselves must shoulder the work for better schooling. They will not deserve to get the right results unless they do. The immense field to be tilled cannot be covered from Washington, but Washington can and should take the lead. The Towner-Sterling Bill ought to be urged persistently on the next Congress, beginning now, so as to keep the school issue to the front in our battle for a better civilization.

Furthermore, this is not a matter of local concern, the realization that there is a National cause, for the success of which a stern battle must be waged throughout the Nation, has only recently come to that part of the American people engaged in actual work of education and that part of the public in immediate touch with the school. This cause will never be won, education will never attain the position in American society to which its relation to the welfare of the Nation entitles it, without a struggle. Who is to make this struggle and how is it to be made? The National Education Association is leading in this struggle, and each department connected with it must shoulder its full share in the support of the National program and stand four-square against the powerful forces that are attempting to turn the flank of this far-flung forward movement in American education. Who is to carry on the banner of universal equal educational opportunity, against the opposition already developing or perhaps only increasing? Who is to set up standards toward which the rank and file of workers may aspire? Who would have spread this gospel and how would it have been spread, except by united action in some effective way so that our struggle might be met, so that our strength might be joined, our efforts might accumulate and our courage and endurance be reinforced? Those who have prophesied that the professional support of the National program would suffer from the

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organized effort to defeat it can now see how sadly they misjudged the integrity of the American teacher. Is there any better instrument for furtherance of professional effort and insuring creditable results than our local, State and National organization?

In the judgment of the writer the best working unit of all these and that upon which the larger structures may rest as upon a secure foundation is the local unit of coöperation, whatever form it takes, whether a teachers' league, educational association, or school men's and school women's clubs. These are the sources of continued and sustained interest which will enable us to hold fast the things already gained and extend the development of our public schools for the benefit of future generations.

The great task of the classroom teacher in this final campaign is; get every club and organization you know to hold a meeting for the discussion of the Towner-Sterling Bill or at least give a part of a meeting to this discussion. Get your club or organization to pass a resolution endorsing the Towner-Sterling Bill and send copies to Hon. Thomas Sterling, U. S. Senate; to Hon. H. M. Towner, U. S. House of Representatives; to the U. S. Senators from your own State and your Representatives in Congress.

The profession has not been enlisted for a three month's or for a three years' campaign. It has foreseen the battle; it has taken the full measure of its opponents; it will meet every attack with new courage and with fresh accessions of popular support. When the welfare of the Nation and the Nation's children is at stake, does any one imagine for a moment that this great movement will halt one inch short of a complete and overwhelming victory?

It is easy to "pass the buck." Doing so is so common as to make it unattractive. It does not even bear the virtue of being different. It is easy to prophesy. To say, "it's no use it can't be done." But the world is overstocked with "prophets." The only thing that will count for the ultimate good of the Towner-Sterling Bill for the direct good of the future generations of boys and girls is work. Work by you, in your community, with your friends, with your acquaintances, with every one who votes and who is in your sphere of influence.

Every classroom teacher has influence far more than many of them believe they have or are willing to assert. To win support for the Towner-Sterling Bill is so big a work, so far reaching in its results for good that it challenges the best in each teacher. To be an influence in helping to put such a measure over is worth a life. Millions have lived without accomplishing so much. Horace Mann's immortal words, "Be ashamed to die until you have done some service for humanity," might be paraphrased to say, "Be ashamed to live when you have ignored or refused an opportunity to do something for humanity."

Hence, within a year, if every one of the 700,000 American teachers does his or her bit the battle will be won. WE have the right overwhelmingly on our side. We can and must enlist the "Might." Nothing can stand against such a combination.

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THE CONTRIBUTION OF THE CLASSROOM TEACHER TOWARD THE PROGRESS OF EDUCATION AS SEEN BY THE CLASSROOM TEACHER OF HAWAII

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Three years ago, the Territory of Hawaii celebrated the hundredth anniversary of the coming of the first teachers who brought Christianity for the purpose of uplifting a race living in ignorance and superstition. Many of you may have heard the story of Opukahaia but it may well be repeated again for the benefit of those who have not heard.

In 1809, as one of the teachers of Yale College, Rev. Edwin W. Dwight, was leaving the institution, he found Opukahaia sitting on the steps of one of the buildings weeping. On being questioned, the youth replied that he wanted education but did not know where nor how to get it. Thereupon Mr. Dwight undertook the task of teaching the youth himself. Opukahaia's tales of his people aroused a great interest in Hawaii among his new friends, therefore he was educated that he might become a missionary to his people. His early death preventing this, his friends then turned to three other Hawaiian students to fulfill Opukahaia's wish. Ten years after, the first band of Christian teachers accompanied by the three youths set sail from Boston for Hawaii.

On their arrival they found that the Hawaiian people through the inquisitiveness of some women of high rank had renounced their idol worship, broken the tabus and were then living without a religion. The teachers made known their mission, and through the influence of one, John Young, whom King Kamehameha had compelled to remain in the Islands, they were allowed to reside in Hawaii for a year.

As to who should be the first pupils, the chiefs reasoned, if writing were *good* as these teachers said, they would like to be the first to learn it; and if it were bad that they did not intend to have their subjects know the evil of it. Therefore education began with those of high rank.

The first year passed. The king and many of the chiefs were indifferent about learning English but as no evil effects were apparent, the teachers were allowed to remain another year.

During the year the first copy of the primer was printed in the Hawaiian language. With it Mr. Bingham went to Queen Kaahumanu who was then the real force in all government decisions. He found her and her attendants playing cards and induced her to leave the game to enunciate the vowels after him.

She was so pleased with her success that indifference was changed to enthusiasm. She not only became his most diligent pupil but taxed the powers of the teachers to the utmost in order to print books and teach the ever increasing number of eager learners.

As early as 1830 these teachers recognized the importance of training the head, the heart and the hand. Therefore boarding schools were established for the youth of the land. Great stress was also laid upon industrial education. With this ideal ever before them, they prepared the way unconsciously

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for the Hawaiian school system of today. The influence of the Hawaiian boarding schools was far reaching. It was the influence of the Hilo Boarding School that led General Armstrong to found the famous Hampton Institute in Virginia.

Between 1890 and 1900, the introduction of large numbers of foreign laborers changed educational conditions. It became necessary to make the teaching of English a distinctive feature in order to have a common medium of communication.

Consequently the schools taught in the Hawaiian language were gradually eliminated and the English language became the medium of instruction. Industrial training has become a marked feature of our present school system.

Even though there have been many vicissitudes in the history of education the spirit of these early teachers has remained and the classroom teacher of today in her arduous task is amalgamating the children of many races into one whose principles are those of Christian democracy.

It is as true today as in 1820 that education is threefold. The classroom teacher's aim is to fit the rising generation to be good citizens. As our former superintendent said, " Hawaii's most important crop is her boys and girls." Therefore the classroom teacher in Hawaii holds as an ideal the production of self-supporting, self-respecting, intelligent, loyal citizens with high moral standards.

As teachers, we have a serious problem facing us as to how best to accomplish the amalgamation of the orientals whose traditions and training are so different from our own. We believe that through proper education the time will come when these alien races will become politically amalgamated and represent a high type of American citizenship. We teachers of Hawaii have no fear of the future if all classes of our boys and girls are properly educated.

Already there is rapidly increasing an element in our beautiful islands that has been Christianized and Americanized and that element is the product of our Hawaiian public schools.

Unless a teacher comes to the Hawaiian classroom in sympathy with our viewpoint, she cannot be truly successful no matter what her scholastic attainments may be. A teacher who has a strong prejudice against alien races should not come to Hawaii to teach. The teacher who comes with a sympathetic attitude toward our problems will be sure to receive hearty response from our cosmopolitan young people.

Hawaii, realizing the importance of the classroom teacher as a factor in the making of good American citizens, is raising her educational standards and encouraging her would-be teachers to a more careful preparation and to a broader conception of the meaning of education.

Due to the very nature of our population the classroom teacher of Hawaii contributes to the various uplifting influences of the community, through athletics, it may be, or the Scout movement, the Junior Red Cross or *other* channels. She does not depend upon her academic work alone for the fulfillment of her ideals. In short the opportunities of a classroom teacher are endless and her influence far reaching. We predict that the rising generation in Hawaii will play an important part in future world-peace movements.

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THE CONTRIBUTION OF THE CLASSROOM TEACHER TOWARD PROGRESS IN EDUCATION

EFFIE MACGREGOR, MINNEAPOLIS, MINNESOTA

We are assembled this afternoon in the consideration of two vital interests, the National Education Association and the Department of Classroom Teachers.

The name, National Education Association, signifies our primary interest in the inclusive organization. For this organization to realize the purposes it is essential that every one of its members shall fully appreciate the entire meaning of its name.

We must understand that religious freedom exists in our land because our forefathers were God-respecting not God-less men. We must daily live in the thought that the Declaration of Independence and the Constitution of the United States of America have ably set forth our reason for and method of self-government. Every activity in our educational world should be for the purpose of preparing God-respecting citizens who shall live to demonstrate the right of that Declaration of Independence and the truth of the law as set forth in our Constitution. This is the end of education in the United States and this is the meaning of National Education in our organization name. Every person engaged in any educational activity is eligible as a member of our Association. Broadly speaking, our membership may be divided into two groups, the educational administrators and the classroom teachers. Each of these groups must solve their problems, always bearing in mind, that the end of education in the United States is a successful form of popular government. Too frequently members of each of these groups mistake the means for the end.

Our interests are so entirely in common that we are apt to confuse our boundaries and so retard our usefulness to each other.

You will all agree with me that the main interest of the classroom teacher is and should be teaching. This leaves the main interest of the administrator the work of making it possible for the classroom teacher to teach in the best way possible. Right here administrators as well as classroom teachers need to consider that the heart of education is teaching and that teaching is an art. This heart and this art of education must be protected, fostered, and furthered if we are to meet the needs of mankind. No administrator or no classroom teacher should hesitate one moment in working toward the solution of our seemingly baffling problems in education. The solution of these problems is the means to the end of National education. Our vision must be inclusive if we are to prove ourselves worthy of this great National trust.

In this day of wide and valuable civic interest we find in connection with the classroom work the work of dental clinics, nutrition clinics, school nurses, organized thrift, and educational diagnoses. I have mentioned the outside interests which are commonly included in the present-day school curriculum. There are numerous other outside interests which are persistently with us but which are only occasionally active. These are all worthy educational

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adjuncts, but they should not exist as part of our school system at the expense of classroom teaching. Here is one place in which classroom teaching is not being protected. Here is a real problem in administration which must be solved if we are to maintain our high ideal of classroom teaching. If administrators do not respect the heart and art of education enough to protect it they must not be surprised at a lack of interest on the part of the classroom teacher.

Then there are the problems of salary, tenure, and pension. Mr. John K. Norton, head of the Research Division of the National Education Association, has said that "due to the depreciation of the dollar, present salary schedules have little more drawing power than before the war." One of the causes of the National Education Association is "to promote the cause of popular education in the United States." Administrators and classroom teachers, alike, should take advantage of every opportunity to let the truth about teachers' salaries be known. We should educate the public to the understanding that as they foster public education so they protect themselves.

Tenure, too, is a test remote from the viewpoint of the public but it will certainly foster professionalism in the service. Are we in need of greater professionalism in the service? Then let every educator look upon tenure from a professional viewpoint and there will be no trouble in educating the public as to the value and need of tenure.

In my city, we have recently adopted a new city pension. It is an unusual pension because it is such a secure investment and because it is so coöperative with the city. If this can be done in the city of Minneapolis, it can be done in the Nation. We are looking forward to Federal coöperation in the interests of pensions for educators and we believe classroom teachers and administrators, alike, should be thinking along this line.

What have we done and how shall we continue to further the heart and art of education?

First, we have established the National Education Association, then we have established the Department of Classroom Teachers of the National Education Association.

The National Education Association has been reorganized on several occasions and in accordance with progress it will undoubtedly continue its reorganization. The Department of Classroom Teachers is just beginning to work under its first definite organization. We are fortunate in that we have a constitution which covers our immediate needs and which gives us opportunity for unhampered development.

Our greatest need, at present, is the development of organization machinery which can adequately work toward the solution of problems pertinent to the classroom teacher. All regional conferences of the Department of Classroom Teachers should study the constitution of the Department in connection with the charter and by-laws of the National Education Association for the purpose of presenting, at the next annual conference and meeting, suggestions for developing the organization of the Department.

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We must be so organized as to be a representative body of the classroom teachers of the country. We must be so organized as to gain full advantage of coöperation with every other department and division of the National Education Association. We must be so organized that every interest pertinent to the heart and art of education will receive due and satisfactory attention. And we must be so organized that our service to our country will prove to its citizens and to the citizens of the world that as education increases, warfare decreases.

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Department of Deans of Women

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

OFFICERS

President—MARY ROSS POTTER, Dean of Women, Northwestern University...Evanston, Illinois
First Vice-President—GEORGIA L. WHITE, Dean of Women, Cornell University, Ithaca, New York
Second Vice-President—MINA KERR, Dean, Wheaton College.....Norton, Massachusetts
Secretary—FLORENCE KELLOGG ROOT, Dean of Women, The College of Wooster, Wooster, Ohio
Treasurer—FLORENCE LORING RICHARDS, Dean of Women, Winona State Teachers' College .....Winona, Minnesota

CHAIRMEN OF SECTIONS

Deans of Women in Universities—THYRSA W. AMOS, Dean of Women, University of Pittsburgh.....Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania
Deans of Women in Colleges—FLORENCE PURINGTON, Dean, Mt. Holyoke College, South Hadley, Massachusetts
Deans of Women in Normal Schools and Teachers' Colleges—CAROLINE GROTE, Dean of Women, Western Illinois State Teachers' College.....Macomb, Illinois
Deans of Girls in High Schools—MRS. WILLIAM JENNINGS, Dean of Girls, East High School.....Salt Lake City, Utah

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MONDAY, FEBRUARY 26

9 A. M.—PARLOR E

Meeting of the Executive Committee

10:30 A. M.—ROOM 345

General Business Session

12 A. M.—LATTICE ROOM

Luncheon with National Committee of Bureaus of Occupations—CORA HELEN COOLIDGE, Chairman National Committee of Bureaus of Occupations, Presiding; *Speakers:* Esther Smith, Vocational Counsellor, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania; Florence Jackson, Director, Appointment Bureau, Boston, Massachusetts.

2:15 P. M.—BALL ROOM

Joint Session with the National Committee of Bureaus of Occupations—Dr. Coolidge, Presiding

REPORT OF SPECIAL FEATURES OF THE CONFERENCE OF NATIONAL COMMITTEE OF BUREAUS OF OCCUPATIONS—Cora Helen Coolidge.

REPORT OF VOCATIONAL SITUATION IN THE SOUTH—Kate S. Tillitt, Director of Bureau, Nashville, Tennessee.

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A NEW VIEW OF NON-TEACHING OCCUPATIONS—Emma P. Hirth, Director of Bureau of Vocational Information, New York.

THE TEACHER'S JOB AS SEEN FROM THE FIELD—Dr. Eleanor Lord, Educational Consultant to the Appointment Bureau of Smith College.

VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE FROM THE POINT OF VIEW OF A NEW DEAN—Jean Hamilton, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan.

TUESDAY, FEBRUARY 27

9:15 A. M.

Sectional Conferences: Universities, Colleges, Normal Schools and State Teachers' Colleges, Secondary Institutions

12 A. M.—LATTICE ROOM

Luncheon—Dean Mary Ross Potter, Presiding

THE SCHOOL AS A SOURCE OF TRAINING FOR CITIZENSHIP—Colonel Leonard Ayers, Cleveland, Ohio; President Charles Howe, Case School of Applied Science, Cleveland, Ohio.

2:15 P. M.—BALL ROOM

HOW CAN EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS MEET THE PRESENT SOCIAL DEMAND FOR LEADERS WHO SHALL BE MEN AND WOMEN OF MORAL WORTH?—Rev. Laura H. Wild, Professor of Bible, Mt. Holyoke College; Carroll G. Pearse, Editor of The American School; Edwin I. Starbuck, Professor of Philosophy and Psychology, University of Iowa; Edith Hale Swift, M. D., The American Social Hygiene Association.

WEDNESDAY, FEBRUARY 28

9:15 A. M.

Sectional Meetings

2:15 P. M.—LATTICE ROOM

BUSINESS SESSION—Election of Officers.

THE WOMEN'S FOUNDATION FOR HEALTH—Margaret Nordfeldt, M. D., Field Worker for the Women's Foundation for Health.

THE NATIONAL CONVENTION OF THE YOUNG WOMEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION—Irma Voigt, Dean of Women, Ohio State University.

THE FOREIGN STUDENT—Katy Boyd George, Secretary Committee for Friendly Relations with Foreign Students, Young Women's Christian Association.

THE EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM OF THE NATIONAL FEDERATION OF BUSINESS AND PROFESSIONAL WOMEN'S CLUBS—Orie Latham Hatcher, Chairman Educational Committee.

THE BRYN MAWR INDUSTRIAL SCHOOL—Marie Wing, Executive Secretary of Consumers' League of Ohio.

6:30 P. M.—BALL ROOM

Conference Dinner

Toastmistress—Mina Kerr, Wheaton College, Norton, Massachusetts

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS—Honorable Newton D. Baker, Ex-Secretary of War, Washington, D. C.

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9:15 A. M.—RAINBOW ROOM, WINTON HOTEL

Joint Meeting with National Association of Secondary School Principals

THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE WORK OF A REAL DEAN OF GIRLS IN A HIGH SCHOOL

To the Principal—D. E. Porter, Omaha, Nebraska.

To the High School Girl—Margaret Kiely, Bridgeport, Connecticut.

Discussion—Sarah M. Sturtevant, University High School, University of California.

To the Institution of Higher Learning—Mary Ross Potter, Northwestern University, Evanston, Illinois.

Discussion—Thyrsa W. Amos, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania.

12 A. M.

Meeting of the New Executive Committee

SECTIONAL CONFERENCES

DEANS OF WOMEN IN UNIVERSITIES

Chairman—Thyrsa W. Amos, University of Pittsburgh
Secretary—Anne Dudley Blitz, University of Kansas

TUESDAY, FEBRUARY 27, 9:15 O'CLOCK

Studies in Orientation.

A. Freshmen Women.

a. SCHOLARSHIP: SUCCESSFUL MEANS OF SUPERVISION—F. Louise Nardin, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin.
Discussion—Josephine Simrall, University of Cincinnati, Leader.

b. ASSEMBLIES: THEIR NATURE AND VALUE—Mary Louise Brown, Carnegie Institute of Technology, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania.
Discussion—Jean M. Richards, University of Syracuse, Syracuse, New York, Leader.

B. Foreign Students.

a. CLASSROOM INFLUENCES: THEIR EFFECT UPON HIGHER EDUCATION FOR WOMEN IN FOREIGN COUNTRIES—Elizabeth Conrad, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio.
Discussion—Edith Fenton, Washington University, St. Louis, Missouri, Leader.

b. SOCIAL CONDITIONS ARISING FROM INTER-RACIAL CONTACTS ON THE CAMPUS—Anne Dudley Blitz, University of Kansas, Lawrence, Kansas.
Discussion—Mary Carpenter Craig, Drake University, Des Moines, Iowa, Leader.

Business Meeting.

WEDNESDAY, FEBRUARY 28, 9:15 O'CLOCK

Studies in Orientation.

A. The Dean of Women.

a. INTRA-MURAL ACTIVITIES: CONSTRUCTIVE RELATIONSHIPS—Georgia L. White, Cornell University, Ithaca, New York.
Discussion—Mary Frances Jewell, University of Kentucky, Lexington, Kentucky, Leader.

b. EXTRA-MURAL ACTIVITIES: WHAT SHALL THEY BE?—Mary Yost, Leland Stanford University, California.
Discussion—Louise H. Snowden, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, Leader.

Business Meeting.

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DEANS AND DEANS OF WOMEN IN COLLEGES

Chairman—Florence Purington, Dean, Mount Holyoke College
Secretary—Laura W. L. Scales, Warden, Smith College

TUESDAY, FEBRUARY 27, 9:15 O'CLOCK

STUDENT GOVERNMENT *vs.* COMMUNITY GOVERNMENT—Mina Kerr, Wheaton College, Norton, Massachusetts.

THE PART OF STUDENT GOVERNMENT IN SHAPING PUBLIC OPINION—Lillian E. Dimmitt, Morningside College, Sioux City, Iowa.

THE USE OF PENALTIES IN STUDENT GOVERNMENT—Helen Smith, Western Reserve College for Women, Cleveland, Ohio; Discussion.

WEDNESDAY, FEBRUARY 28, 9:15 O'CLOCK

THE BEST METHOD OF FACILITATING THE FRESHMAN'S ADJUSTMENT TO COLLEGE—Dorothy Stimson, Goucher College, Baltimore, Maryland; Mary E. Raymond, Principal, Hathaway-Brown School; Discussion.

THE DIFFICULTIES OF SOPHOMORE YEAR: HOW CAN THE DEAN HELP THE STUDENT TO MEET AND OVERCOME THEM?—Alice V. Waite, Wellesley College, Wellesley, Massachusetts; Discussion.

DEANS OF WOMEN IN NORMAL SCHOOLS AND TEACHERS' COLLEGES

Chairman—Caroline Grote, Western Illinois State Teachers' College
Secretary—Lula E. Wirt, Nebraska State Normal School and Teachers' College

TUESDAY, FEBRUARY 27, 9:15 O'CLOCK

SOCIAL INFLUENCES OF CLASSROOM AND CAMPUS CONTACTS—Mrs. Julia B. Hensel, Northern Illinois State Teachers' College, De Kalb, Illinois; Discussion—Mahala Dorcas Prichard, Fairmount State Normal School, Fairmount, West Virginia, Leader.

SOCIAL CONFERENCES WITH STUDENTS: WHAT THEY SHOULD INCLUDE AND ACCOMPLISH—Elvira D. Cabell, Chicago Normal College, Chicago, Illinois; Discussion—Bertha M. Ronan, Mount Pleasant Normal School, Mount Pleasant, Michigan, Leader.

Business Meeting.

WEDNESDAY, FEBRUARY 28, 9:15 O'CLOCK

HELPING THE FRESHMAN WOMEN TO MAKE AN EARLY AND SUCCESSFUL ADJUSTMENT TO THEIR NEW ENVIRONMENT—Anna E. Pierce, New York State College for Teachers, Albany, New York; General Discussion.

THE TEACHING LOAD OF THE DEAN OF WOMEN: WHAT SHALL IT BE?—Florence L. Richards, Winona State Teachers' College, Winona, Minnesota; Discussion—Gertrude E. Bradt, State Normal School, Mansfield, Pennsylvania, Leader.

Business Meeting.

DEANS OF GIRLS IN HIGH SCHOOLS

Chairman—Martha B. Jennings, East High School, Salt Lake City, Utah
Secretary—Mary M. Sawyer, Brookline High School, Brookline, Massachusetts

TUESDAY, FEBRUARY 27, 9:15 O'CLOCK

THE DEAN OF GIRLS AND THE EXTRA-CURRICULAR ACTIVITIES IN HIGH SCHOOLS—Professor Elbert K. Fretwell, Teachers College, Columbia University.

HOW WE MEET THE SOCIAL PROBLEM OF THE FRESHMEN—Josephine T. Allen, Dean of Girls, Englewood High School, Chicago, Illinois.

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WEDNESDAY, FEBRUARY 28, 9:15 O'CLOCK

WHAT IS THE GREATEST LACK IN THE TRAINING OF THE HIGH SCHOOL GIRL?—F. Louise Nardin, Dean of Women, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin; Discussion—Edith M. Tuttle, Washington Irving High School, New York City, Leader.

FALSE REPORTS ABOUT HIGH SCHOOLS: WHAT SHOULD BE OUR ATTITUDE?—Elsie Davies, Assistant Principal, Glenville High School, Cleveland, Ohio.

THE MOST ESSENTIAL QUALITIES IN A DEAN OF GIRLS—Elsie Smithies, University High School, Chicago, Illinois.

Business Meeting.

THURSDAY, MARCH 1, 9:15 O'CLOCK

Joint Session with the National Association of Secondary School Principals

THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE WORK OF A REAL DEAN OF GIRLS IN A HIGH SCHOOL.

To the Principal—D. E. Porter, Omaha, Nebraska.

To the High School Girl—Margaret Kiely, Bridgeport, Connecticut.

Discussion—Sarah Sturtevant, University High School, University of California.

To the Institution of Higher Learning—Mary Ross Potter, Northwestern University, Evanston, Illinois.

Discussion—Thyrsa Amos, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania.

The tenth annual meeting of the National Association of Deans of Women opened at 10:45 A. M., Monday, February 26, 1923, at the Hotel Statler, Cleveland, Ohio, with a general business session. The reading of the minutes of the previous meeting was dispensed with since those minutes had been printed and sent to all members.

The report of the Executive Committee meetings of September 6, 1922, and February 26, 1923, were read. Dean Helen Smith, of the Woman's College, Western Reserve University, welcomed the Association to Cleveland and extended the hospitality of the college to its members. Greetings were read from Mrs. Sisson Phillips, formerly president of the Association and now an honorary member.

Dean Mary Ross Potter explained briefly the affiliation with the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association. General announcements were then made. The reading of the secretary's report was postponed until Wednesday. The reports of the treasurer and Auditing Committee were read, accepted, and placed on file. The president then called for the reports of the standing committees. The report of the Committee on Health, Dean Agnes E. Wells, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana, chairman, was given. This report was supplemented by a statement from Dr. Tracy regarding the proposed change in pre-medical requirements. The report of the Membership Committee, Dean Elizabeth Conrad, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio, chairman, was read. These reports have been filed in their proper places and the substance of them will be found elsewhere in the published proceedings. The meeting was then adjourned.

After the business session, the remainder of the day was devoted to a joint meeting with the National Committee of Bureaus of Occupations. Dr. Cora Helen Coolidge, chairman of the National Committee presided.

The speakers at the luncheon were Miss Esther Smith, vocational counsellor of the Latimer Junior High School, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, and Miss Florence Jackson, director of the Appointment Bureau, Boston, Massachusetts.

TUESDAY, FEBRUARY 27

The morning was devoted to sectional meetings and the first general session took the form of a luncheon at 12 o'clock. The speakers at the luncheon were Colonel Leonard Ayers, of Cleveland, and President Charles Howe, of Case School of Applied Science, Cleveland, Ohio.

The general subject for the afternoon session was: "How can Educational Institutions Meet the Present Social Demand for Leaders Who Shall be Men and Women of Moral Worth?" All the speakers were present.

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WEDNESDAY, FEBRUARY 28

The business meeting was called to order at two-thirty by the president, Dean Mary Ross Potter. The report of the secretary was read, accepted, and placed on file. This report showed a paid-up membership of 345, with 69 who were still on the list since they had paid their dues for 1921-22. This marked a decided increase in membership over the preceding year.

The report of the Committee of Relations, Dean Anna M. Klingenhagen, Oberlin College, Oberlin, Ohio. The Towner-Sterling Bill was presented by Miss Catherine Adams, assistant dean, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio, with the following resolution:

1. WHEREAS, The government of the United States of America has given substantial aid to projects such as group industry, railroads, waterways, and agriculture through the tariff, land grants, and bonus, benefitting the many by assistance to the few,
2. WHEREAS, Education must be subservient to the ideals of the people and must avoid prejudice, narrowmindedness and autocracy in a democratic republic,
3. WHEREAS, We believe that education is essential to the development of trained leaders and that leadership is essential in a democracy,
4. WHEREAS, We believe that a Department of Education responsible to the people would be in a position to direct liberal and progressive policies in the training of the young of the country,
5. WHEREAS, Federal aid to states would be service of the whole in service of the several parts,
6. *Be it resolved*, By the Association of Deans of Women in convention assembled that we heartily endorse the Towner-Sterling Bill now before the Congress of the United States on the conviction that it will be a step in achieving democracy and thoroughness in education.

After some discussion, it was moved by Miss Nardin, seconded and carried, that this be referred to the Committee on Resolutions. Because of lack of time, the Resolutions Committee was unable to report and so it was moved by Miss Nardin, seconded and carried, that it be referred to the Executive Committee. Their action was as follows: Miss Anna V. Day moved that the Department of Deans of Women go on record as endorsing the resolution presented by Miss Catherine Adams, assistant to Miss Elizabeth Conrad, Dean of Women, Ohio State University. This motion was carried unanimously.

During the last year the Association has met with severe loss in the death of four of its members: Mrs. Pearl Randall Wasson, Dr. Romiett Stevens, Miss Caddie Griffith, and Sister Pauline. Our sense of loss and appreciation of their services rendered and our sympathy for their families were expressed in the memorial resolutions presented by the chairman of the various committees on resolutions, Dean Louise F. Nardin, Dean Edith M. Tuttle, Dean Elvira D. Cabell. The tribute to Dr. Romiett Stevens which was so fittingly presented by Miss Sturtevant for the high-school section was repeated at this time.

The committee of which Miss Cabell was chairman presented resolutions of thanks to those organizations and individuals who had contributed so greatly toward the success of the convention.

It was moved and seconded and unanimously carried that telegrams of greeting be sent to Dean Georgia White, of Cornell University, and Dean Mary Watson Green, who were detained by illness.

Dean Mary Ross Potter tendered her resignation as president of the Association, inasmuch as she is to have a year's leave of absence from her duties at Northwestern University. It was moved and seconded that this be accepted with sincere regrets and appreciation of the work done under her leadership.

The report of the Nominating Committee given by the chairman, Miss Josephine P. Simrall: *President*, Agnes E. Wells, Indiana University; *First Vice-President*, Anna V. Day, Milwaukee State Normal School; and *Treasurer*, Mary Hooker Johnson, Washington Irving High School, New York City.

It was moved by Miss Nardin that the report be accepted. Miss Lovejoy moved that a unanimous ballot be cast by the secretary. The business meeting was adjourned. Before the regular program for the afternoon began, brief reports were given by the following members: Miss Stoddard, for the W. C. T. U.; Miss Mina A. Kerr, on the program for the annual convention for the A. A. U. W. to be held in Portland, Oregon, in July; and Mrs. Bernard for the A. A. U. W.

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At six-thirty, at the dinner in the ball room of the Hotel Statler, Dean Mina Kerr, vice-president, was toastmistress. Miss Lucille Atcherson who was to speak on International Relations was unable to be present. Greetings from the Canadian deans were brought by Mrs. Ursilla Macdonald, dean of women, University of Manitoba, Winnipeg, Canada. The address of the Honorable Newton D. Baker, brought the Association more closely in touch with National and international problems and gave that broader outlook and loftier wisdom so necessary for those engaged in a more or less highly specialized type of work. We were glad to welcome at the dinner. Mr. Sherwood D. Shankland, whose brief address gave us a realization of the greatness of the purpose behind this meeting of the Department of Superintendence and the size of the task that is ours.

Perhaps the most noteworthy of all the meetings was that held in connection with the National Association of Secondary School Principals, Thursday morning. A closer coöperation between deans of women and high-school principals will prove to be of inestimable value to all of us. Several of the papers presented at this meeting will be published in full.

The tenth annual meeting of the National Association of Deans of Women adjourned with the meeting of the new executive committee at twelve o'clock, report of which has been placed on file.

THE WOMEN'S FOUNDATION FOR HEALTH

MARGARET D. NORDFELDT, M. D., FIELD WORKER FOR THE WOMEN'S FOUNDATION FOR HEALTH

Although its very name may be new to some of you, The Women's Foundation for Health is not a new organization, but a coöperative body of leading women's organizations formed in the autumn of 1919 as the direct outcome of the International Conference of Women Physicians held in New York City at that time. Its aim is to correlate the health activities of coöperating organizations and to focus attention on a health-building program which shall emphasize the positive aspect of health.

Among the fourteen women's organizations of National scope which agreed to coöperate, is your own National Association of Deans of Women. Another, of which many of you are members, is the American Association of University Women. So in speaking to you today I am not calling your attention to an outside activity however interesting or significant, but am reporting to you on work which you yourselves have authorized.

The organization scheme is briefly this. From each of our fourteen organizations five delegates, its National president and four other members, together with five delegates at large make up our house of delegates. This body elects a board of trustees of nine members who are responsible for planning and executing the work of the Foundation. The trustees appoint both staff and technical committees and under their direction the staff reaches out through the coöperating organizations in an endeavor to bring to the women and girls of the country this newer conception of health.

It is never the intention of the Women's Foundation for Health to organize new local machinery but always to function through existing agencies.

Its organization effected, the first task to which the Foundation set itself was the preparation of literature, a series of official pamphlets sufficiently

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detailed in statement to make the aims of the Foundation clear, alike to physicians and to the public, and to outline a technique by which a positive conception of health may be brought home to the individual woman.

This work, which consumed more than two years, resulted in a Handbook of Positive Health, a text in which the various aspects of health are presented by writers and teachers of National reputation in their several specialties. And the little volume as well as the whole program of the Women's Foundation for Health received its seal of scientific approval in the formal endorsement of the Council on Health and Public Instruction of the American Medical Association.

In addition to the preparation of this handbook, the Foundation has accomplished another concrete piece of work, which while incidental and in a sense almost accidental to the development of its project, is none the less a valuable contribution. As you probably know, the National Board of the Young Women's Christian Association had carried on a vigorous and effective campaign among young women and girls for the wearing of better shoes, but because of the difficulties involved in the approval of shoes over whose manufacture and distribution they could exercise no control, they finally gave up the work and withdrew all endorsements. At this point the trustees of the Foundation authorized a technical committee on shoes and feet, which took up the problem and has solved it by setting up the necessary machinery, which it indirectly but effectively controls, for the manufacture and distribution of a shoe which it can unqualifiedly recommend. This shoe, sold under the trade name of the " Trail Blazer " is made in four models to suit different feet and in many materials to suit various occasions. The label, " endorsed by the Women's Foundation for Health," which you will find inside each pair carries with it the guarantee of the Foundation not only that the shoe is scientifically right as a health shoe, but that material and workmanship are of the highest quality and that the shoe is manufactured under labor conditions satisfactory to the Foundation, and with only a reasonable profit to the manufacturers.

With these two pieces of technical work accomplished the Women's Foundation for Health on January first last added to its staff as field workers two women physicians who are visiting various communities and colleges in order to acquaint local branches of its constituent National organizations with the aims of the Foundation. And today I am happy to have the opportunity to speak not to a local body but to one of our maior organizations and to ask the help of the National Association of Deans of Women in carrying on.

Health is something positive, progressive, dynamic. This is the first article in our creed. Most people, we believe, have been prone to accept in lieu of health a mere negative state of being, in which one rests content so long as he is not acutely uncomfortable nor driven to seek a physician for remedial measures. Second, health is mental as well as physical. It involves clear recognition of the unity of the human machine, of the brain as a body-organ and of the necessity of adjustment of work, living conditions, and recreation to the needs of the individual as a whole. Third, such health is

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normal and usually within the reach of any individual woman but is to be obtained only through her own personal effort. She may and should seek the best scientific advice and direction, but her own feet must tread the way.

This is not " state medicine," as is sometimes said to me. On the contrary the great public health movement of today, for which all of us are collectively responsible, needs to be supplemented by the type of individual health-education to which the Women's Foundation for Health is pledged. Neither is it " preventive medicine," valuable as that is. The very word preventive shows a negative conception, an avoidance of disease rather than the positive ideal of joy, vigor, achievement at which we aim.

Our health education program then is two-fold; to get the individual woman to conceive of health as wholeness of life, body, intellect, emotions, and to persuade her to assume the responsibility for her own health as a matter of personal and social obligation. Such a program does not minimize the patent fact of difference in individual capacity. Some of us are by nature four-cylinder machines, some six, some twelve. But far too many of us are prone to limp along on three cylinders with frequent stops for repairs instead of utilizing to the full all that we have. Granted limitations, granted even organic defects, each of us has possibilities which represent for her a standard of one hundred per cent not in efficiency merely but in vitality and happiness. Is it not worth while for each individual to discover just what her possibilities are? Having discovered them, is she not under obligation to realize them?

The basis of our program of health education is the health examination given by a fully qualified physician. But by this is not meant merely the periodic examination now so much advocated for the sake of the early detection of disease. The health examination may and often does discover disease, either latent, incipient, or active, in which case the individual will be referred at once to her own physician, to clinic or hospital for treatment. But the purpose of the health examination is to discover whether this individual is living at her fullest capacity, the reasons for any failure to reach this standard and to point out to her the methods which, if followed, will enable her to attain her best. Re-examination at intervals of perhaps six months is recommended that she may find out how much she has gained and get advice as to what she needs to do next.

Not all physicians have the point of view which is requisite to give such an examination. The doctor whose chief concern is an " interesting case " who thinks chiefly in terms of pathology, may be the most expert diagnostician and invaluable in that sphere, and yet lack the patience to undertake the constructive health education of the individual. For the health examination is not a mere inventory and is not content with giving the individual a knowledge of her organic defects or of her weak places. The health examination must be dynamic. It has failed as a *health examination* unless it has sent that individual out with an impelling desire to achieve abundant health and shown her how to work for it.

Ideally the examination by the physician would be supplemented by that given by a physical director on posture, feet, etc., but from the same positive

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angle stressing especially good points and possibilities and not merely the defects discovered. Then physician and physical director discuss with the individual their findings and together prescribe for her a régimé suited to her needs.

But, since health is a matter not of knowing but of doing and since the office of the average physician can seldom offer an individual facilities for carrying out the prescription made for her, we advocate the establishment of health foundation centers. Such a center I need hardly now say is not a clinic nor a hospital; it gives no treatment, dispenses no medicine. It is primarily educational. Neither is it free, unless some philanthropic organization chooses to maintain one as a part of its contribution to social values. The gospel of positive health is needed by all women, by the woman of wealth and education, no less than by the most ignorant immigrant who has just reached our shores. The health foundation center is a place where one may be sure of obtaining a complete health examination of the kind outlined above, but which offers to the individual in addition, the opportunity for carrying out the recommendations made to her.

Since most women need not merely more exercise in general but exercise especially adapted to their needs, our health foundation center must include a small gymnasium or room of modest size where, under supervision, each one may carry out her individual prescription. And here we beg that you will no longer call such exercise "corrective" since that word in itself emphasizes the defect instead of centering attention upon the attainment of individual health. The few colleges which have recently adopted this new nomenclature can testify already to the changed psychological attitude on the part of the students concerned.

Finally, since recreation in its true sense, the re-creation of the individual, has received far too scanty consideration from most of us, the ideally equipped health foundation center will add to its staff of physician and physical director a recreation director.

One of your number said to me not long since, when I was visiting her college: "It seems to me that a college with its medical examiner, its physical director, its gymnasium, its organized sports and varied activities, has ready to its hand all the paraphernalia necessary for a fully equipped health foundation center, and there is needed only the point of view of positive health and possibly an enlarged staff to give the individual attention which this viewpoint entails."

Does not this admirably state the case for the colleges and point out the very significant contribution which they may make in training leaders for our health education movement?

You all know how often the young women under your charge deliberately sacrifice physical health to an ideal of scholastic gain, not realizing that in sacrificing the body they are impairing mental well-being also. As Montaigne said: "We have not to train up a soul nor yet a body but a *man* and you cannot divide him." And as students women especially need to recognize that if they wish to build mind and character they must take care of muscles and of the body; that timidity, indecision, inability to think clearly, even lack

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of will are all often due to lack of physical vigor. On the other hand every dean of women sees many of her students suffering from emotional disturbances rather than from physical disabilities. Will not physical education and enough of it, particularly of the recreational variety, solve many emotional problems?

The college, the high school, may need indeed to ask itself some searching questions. When we advise students to get more sleep and more out-of-doors, are we at the same time driving them so hard that they have in truth no time to follow that advice? Are we providing opportunity for adequate sleep—dormitories, quiet at night—and for a sufficient number of hours? Are we making available to our students sports and recreation varied enough to meet individual needs? And finally, can the curriculum, through courses in writing, in music, in dramatics, be made to offer to students a chance for free emotional and artistic expression through their academic work, instead of obliging them to turn for such expression to outside activities?

These are only suggestions. My main purpose today is, as I said at first, to report to you on the work thus far accomplished by the Women's Foundation for Health, to make clear to you its program of health education, and if you approve it, to ask your aid in putting that program locally into effect.

THE EXTRA-MURAL ACTIVITIES OF A DEAN OF WOMEN WHAT SHALL THEY BE?—ABSTRACT

MARY YOST, LELAND STANFORD UNIVERSITY, CALIFORNIA

The position of dean of women is the most unstandardized in the academic world. The emphasis of each particular dean's work is different, but the position as a whole implies leadership. The question arises as to whether this work of the dean should include extra-mural activities, and, if so, what these activities should be.

We are told that our education fails to prepare the student to understand and participate in modern life—economic, political, cultural, and social—because our educators do not know this world of today. How can we, as deans, stimulate the development of successful leadership if we do not know the conditions out of college which call for leadership?

To gain an insight into civic, economic, and social affairs of today, we must take an active part therein, but we must choose from all the activities those on which to spend our energy, the choice depending on our local opportunities and on our individual tastes and interests.

One kind of activity seems more significant for us than others—that is, organization of women for all kinds of purposes. The individual woman may be bewildered by this new freedom of hers, and ineffectual and wasteful in her use of it, but women's organizations are becoming tremendous factors in promoting the interests of women as a whole as well as the movement for civic and social betterment. As participants we may use our influence in

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making them even more constructive, and our experience will teach us much that we can pass on to the younger women.

There are two types of organization that seem especially useful for us to know well. The first is illustrated by the American Association of University Women. This offers us a relatively homogeneous group of women, sharing a common point of view, working to solve concrete problems. Here we learn to work with a group particularly characteristic of the world today, and we meet leaders in women's work throughout the world.

To know a more heterogeneous group, we need the second type, some civic, political, or religious organization, in which men and women are subordinating themselves to a common cause.

One extra-mural interest which must be controlled is that interest in the many philanthropic organizations that appeal to the college students for money. It is unfair to the student of limited means to make repeated appeals, and it tends to make a callousness in those amply able to respond.

To meet this situation we would suggest a joint faculty and student board to study the various appeals, decide on the most worthy, and present them in a way to appeal to the student's reason and interest, as well as emotion, thus having also an educational value for him.

Besides these chosen extra-mural activities, let us, as deans, leven our grave and intensive work by cultivating our own personal interests, whether it be clay-modeling or singing, and thus avoid being merely official persons. By thus budgeting our time and energy, we may get a larger view of our work and a refreshment of mind and body and spirit.

SOCIAL CONDITIONS ARISING FROM THE INTER-RACIAL CONTACTS ON THE CAMPUS—ABSTRACT

ANNE DUDLEY BLITZ, UNIVERSITY OF KANSAS, LAWRENCE, KANSAS

The problem of the University of Kansas, with regard to the negro student is the problem of many a university. At the University of Kansas we have inherited a definite tradition of equal opportunity. This "Free-Soil State" early opened its State university unqualifiedly to the negro. From the first, negro students mingled with white in the classroom, on the field, and at all school social functions. Today it is different. On our Conference Field in athletics, Missouri and Oklahoma bar negro players. So we have no negroes on our athletic field, a sore point to our colored graduates.

Frank talks with students and adults of both races and printed discussions of both races seem to find this difference founded in the fear of miscegenation, euphonically called "social equality." Burkhart DuBois, a spokesman of the colored race, openly advocates inter-marriage, denying that the negro strain is inately inferior to the white. "Let each achieve what his capacities permit, intellectually, professionally, socially," is his doctrine.

How do these problems come home to the campus? Some students object sitting next to a negro in class, or in the library, or eating with them at the

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university commons. Even the religious mettings of the Y. M. C. A. and Y. W. C. A. are not open to colored students. The negroes resent the menace of segregation in its every aspect. In activities for which the university is solely responsible, there is no segregation; where students have partial or full control, segregation shows its head insistently.

No report of abuse or discourtesy on the part of a colored student has ever come to the administrative office. The negroes have their own social organizations, their own churches in town, their own fellow-citizens whose homes are open to them. But their presence and the fact of their equal opportunity bring a conflict founded on prejudices and emotion, not on abuse of privileges.

We, at Kansas, are trying to overcome this conflict by appeal to thought, through two groups. One group, appointed by the chancellor, is composed of university officials, adult negro townspeople, and four students, representing the men and women of both races. The other is a group of leading women students of both races, organized under the chairman of the World Fellowship Committee of the Y. W. C. A. They study the records and after-successes of their own negro graduates, to determine the use they have made of their training. They are reading Brawley's "Social History of the American Negro," and Seligmann's "The Negro Faces America," to study the contributions of the negro to America.

We cannot place too much reliance on our students' youthful analysis of the causes of their own prejudices. They go back of consciousness itself sometimes. We can hope for control of these prejudices only when they can be brought into the daylight, examined, reasoned about, made conscious, a slow process but the only safe one. The back-fire of sentimentalism to overcome the prairie fire of prejudice has proved no real protection.

The negro problem differs from the problem of students from other lands for several reasons. The foreign student has a glamour of the East, in his looks, customs, speech, costume. He tells of remote lands and differing civilization. He brings the beauty of strange costumes, weird music, and old tradition. He is a lonely romantic figure, and he calls forth sympathy; he is with us for a while only. The background of the negro, on the other hand, is too often the back alleys of our larger cities. His African ancestry is forgotten. His very speech and song seem a perversion of American speech and song.

Yet the same problem of miscegenation is present even more so than with the negro. Race differences are almost always too great for adjustment in marriage. And what of the children, who belong to neither one race or another?

The individualist says "Let each person decide for himself; let him go as far in profession or business as his capacities permit, not as present social inhibitions allow." We can sanction this provided we ask in return that the decision be reached in the light of all the facts and all their effects, not on the present and individual only, but on society and on tomorrow as well. Unfortunately we cannot expect a heedless student body to be bound by our decisions. We think that students from other lands should be entertained more freely in American homes, but that it should be done in groups; that

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the foreign men should not be escorts to women, or partners at dances. We think, in short, that the American students should give them the best in American womanhood and manhood, without treading the quicksands of temptation.

TALKS TO FRESHMEN—THEIR CONTENT AND VALUE—ABSTRACT

MARY LOUISE BROWN, CARNEGIE INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY
PITTSBURGH, PENNSYLVANIA

There seem to be three groups of freshmen girls, judging them by their thinking. One group has definite convictions as a result of thought and a solution of disturbing questions. Then there is a group sufficiently disturbed to try to blind themselves to realities by excessive activity in one or many of the less satisfying diversions of modern life; and a third group are satisfied with a dogmatic explanation to the effect that the world was set in motion, and has been kept in more or less regular movement by an all-wise Providence. A girl in any one of these three classes is glad of an opportunity to strengthen or form conviction. She is glad to get a bird's-eye view of life, and see life's diversions in their proper proportions.

I believe that there is a way of giving freshmen a view of the world as made of interrelated parts, each having particular significance, and that once they have that picture, all the trifles concerned with disobedience to regulations, questions of dress and conduct, the responsibility towards other students, towards the college, and later to the world at large, will be straightened out with but little attention being paid to them as separate and distinct problems.

An understanding of self can best be got by studying other human beings. The logical way to study them is to begin with the development of human institutions. There should be ample opportunity in the discussion of custom, convention, and tradition, which should be constantly touched on, to emphasize the necessity for self-reverence and self-control.

A suggestion for an outline for a semester course of eighteen weeks, one hour per week, which would help to give freshmen the understanding of self through the understanding of others is as follows: Five or six talks with a discussion of the subject matter found in a book such as Van Loon's "Story of Mankind," supplemented by collateral readings, such as Chapin's "Evolution." Second, a consideration of manners and customs. Authoritative works are Summer's "Folkways," and Wester Marcks' "The History of Human Marriage." Frazier's "The Golden Bough" is attractive and less technical. Walter Lippmann's "Public Opinion" is one of the more recent books. And finally there should be requirements in the reading of current publications dealing with human movements, especially *The Atlantic Monthly, World's Work, New Republic, The Nation, Woman Citizen, Living Age*, and similar periodicals. There should be discussions as well as lectures, and at least two examinations during the course.

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Outline of series of talks which would contribute to these needs. A. Survey of human institutions: (1) Beginnings—marriage, children; (2) development of customs; relate custom of all earlier ages to present practice, and (3) modern developments, as colleges for women substitutes for what in earlier days, and change in kind, not amount of occupation. B. Place of each student in the society: (1) What customs are fundamental; (2) what may be changed.

THE TEACHING LOAD OF A DEAN OF WOMEN IN A STATE TEACHERS' COLLEGE. WHAT SHALL IT BE?

FLORENCE LORING RICHARDS, WINONA STATE TEACHERS' COLLEGE
WINONA, MINNESOTA

The wording of this question frankly implies that scholarship is one of a dean of women's most necessary qualifications. To make sure of finding this qualification, many presidents habitually choose their deans of women from the faculties of education institutions, teachers, women not only of executive and social, but also of classroom ability. And it seems particularly essential in a teachers' college that the dean be recognized by her constant intellectual growth. As young students form their first opinion of her by her degrees published in the catalog, these prospective teachers naturally respect her for her classroom achievements. But because teaching is her natural vocation, and one long loved for its being a big stimulus for intellectual alertness, a dean in a State teachers' college is apt to allow herself to be persuaded to take a teaching load beyond her physical strength. In amount what should her teaching load be? The answer to this question depends so primarily upon the college involved, that it is difficult to answer it dogmatically.

It depends upon the size of the college. If the enrolment is small, it stands to reason that a dean can give more time to teaching (if there are no other complications), than if she has a large enrolment. The larger the enrolment, the greater the executive load, the larger the number of adjustments, social conferences, social problems. The larger the college, the greater the dean's struggle to reach the students through natural personal relationships.

The amount of a dean's teaching load depends, too, upon the environment of the college. If it is located within a few miles of a great university, the load of social problems is vastly increased over the load borne by a dean in a college situated in some peacefully slumbering small town. The social problems arising from the location of a college in a mining town or in a big manufacturing city, demand so much of a dean's energy that the bulk of her time should be given to them instead of to "the gentle art of teaching." Is the college in the midst of the downtown whirl with all of its illuminated detractions from study, or is it sequestered, with even its own college shops, so that the atmosphere about it is collegiate?

The amount of a dean's teaching load depends upon the age and the nature of her students. If the college consists mainly of young women eighteen and nineteen years of age with no or few third and fourth-year

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college classes, a dean of women bears the weight of training these college fledglings, anticipating their needs, preventing homesickness, advising them, averting disasters, a work in other colleges usually shared at least with seniors and postgraduates. If the college enrolls older, more matured students, then much of a dean's time is saved for teaching. If, on the other hand, the students have had little social training, the dean in a teachers' college has the long difficult task of teaching them the amenities to prepare them for their work of training boys and girls. The time needed for social conferences should not be used in marking note books.

The amount of a dean's teaching load depends upon the housing problem. Has the college most of its students housed in dormitories under the care of efficient, refined house mothers? Does the community open its houses to students so that the dean may list a sufficient number of rooms in approved houses; or is she compelled to list rooms where the landlady seems to have little interest other than the money she receives, and to feel that if she reports delinquent students, she will lose her room rent, and her house will become unpopular? If the housing load is light, teaching may be given more time.

The amount of a dean's teaching load depends upon how much assistance she has. Has she a college physician, or a trained nurse, and adequate hospital provisions for sick students away from home? Or must she assume the *entire* responsibility of looking after the health side of the institution? Has she office assistance for stenographic work, or must she manage as best she can with a diligent use of her own typewriter? Has she assistance in caring for the employment of students who must make part of their expenses through service in their free hours? Has she help socially, or is she alone responsible for the social life of the institution? If she has no assistance, or little to speak of, it is apparent to one knowing a dean's duties that preparation for one class is all to which she can do justice at the opening of any college year. During the remainder of the year, she may, under pressure of circumstances, teach two classes; but, as it resolves itself to a matter of values, in teachers' colleges where the development of personality is such a great part of a student's preparation for teaching, a dean with little or no assistance, can give better service—more efficient and more original—in solving problems in her field, if her classroom duties are limited to one hour a day.

In conclusion: The teaching load of a dean of women in a State teachers' college shows what that college considers the greatest asset in its dean of women: the academic, or the administrative and social side, unless the college is asking its dean to carry a burden that no one person can carry efficiently. A dean should be prepared to teach, but the amount of her teaching should be reduced to the minimum if the executive and the social loads demand her time.

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Department of Educational Publications

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

OFFICERS

President—GEORGE L. TOWNE, President of the University Publishing Company, Lincoln, Nebraska

Secretary—C. W. TABER, Western Manager of Lippincott & Co.....Chicago, Illinois

The Department of Educational Publications met with the Educational Press Association at a dinner conference, Tuesday, July 3, at six o'clock, in the Fairmont Hotel, San Francisco. The program follows:

Sensing the Curriculum Needs of the Public Schools Through Educational Literature

THE EDUCATIONAL JOURNAL—J. W. Searson, Editor, *American Educational Digest,* Lincoln, Nebraska.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON STANDARDS FOR EDUCATIONAL JOURNALS—Joy Elmer Morgan, chairman, Managing Editor of the *Journal of the National Education Association,* Washington, D. C.

The Public's Interest in School Books

PER PUPIL COST OF SCHOOL BOOKS—J. K. Norton, Director of Research, National Education Association, Washington, D. C.

SAFEGUARDING TEXTBOOKS FROM THE STANDPOINT OF PUBLIC INTEREST—C. W. Banta, vice-president, Wells Fargo National Bank, San Francisco, California.

The secretary of this year was re-elected. Mr. Selden C. Smith, of San Francisco, California, was elected president.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON STANDARDS FOR EDUCATIONAL JOURNALS

JOY ELMER MORGAN, MANAGING EDITOR OF THE JOURNAL OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, CHAIRMAN

The Committee on Standards for Educational Journals was appointed by the Educational Press Association of America, at its Cleveland meeting, February 28, 1923. It consists of the following members: E. M. Carter, secretary of the Missouri State Teachers' Association and business manager of *School and Community;* Arthur H. Chamberlain, secretary of the California State Teachers' Association and editor of the *Sierra Educational News;* Frank A. Weld, editor of the *American Educational Digest;* and Joy Elmer Morgan, director of the division of publications and managing editor of *The Journal of the National Education Association,* as chairman.

The committee began work immediately, and—after an examination of over a hundred educational journals, comparisons with journals in other

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fields that have already standardized, extensive correspondence, and careful studies of the conclusions reached by the United States Bureau of Standards; which is working on the problem of a standard size for books and magazine papers—formulated standards for journals in two sizes. These standards were embodied in leaflets, showing typical rate cards, and submitted to the journals concerned. They were received most favorably and immediately adopted by journals representing more than fifty per cent of the circulation in the educational field in the United States.

The standard leaflets issued contained on page one, a statement about the work of the committee; on page two, a standard rate card; on page three, an explanation of the standards; and on page four, a list of the journals which have agreed to follow them, beginning in September, 1923. Material from pages two and three of the leaflet dealing with the standard magazine size is given under the two following heads:

THE STANDARD RATE CARD

The American Association of Advertising Agencies has adopted a standard rate card, which is here illustrated. This card is 3½ inches by 6 inches, trimmed, with the reverse printed so that it may be read by tipping the card forward. The mechanical specifications for journals of the standard magazine size are set forth under item five. The other statements on this typical card are given merely to show the form in which the card is printed. Your rate card is your introduction to the advertiser.

THE STANDARDS EXPLAINED

Educational journals on their mechanical side have commonly reflected the standards or lack of standards of local printers. The natural tendency to follow the best patterns has led to considerable uniformity, but the data which could underlie a definite movement for standardization have been collected only recently. In 1920, the chairman of this committee, while planning standards for the Journal of the National Education Association, began a careful study of the entire field of educational journalism. A large correspondence and an analysis of practically all existing educational journals have yielded much valuable data. During 1922, Mr. Arthur H. Chamberlain submitted sixty-two questions dealing with problems of professional organization, including association organs and other journals, to the secretaries of State education associations. Replies to these questions were summarized in a pamphlet issued in December, 1922, *Study of State Teacher Associations*. When the present committee began its work scarcely two of the magazines represented in the fifty members of the Educational Press Association of America had the same requirements for their advertising plates. Even papers which were trimmed to the same size had variations in the specifications for plates.

A survey of the field indicated that with changes of only a fraction on an inch, most of the members of the association could bring their magazines to one of two standard sizes—(1) the standard magazine size, 6⅞ inches by 9¾ inches, trimmed, using advertising plates 5½ inches wide by 8 inches deep and (2) the large magazine size, 9 inches by 12 inches, trimmed, using

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Washington. D. C.

THE JOURNAL OF THE EDUCATIONAL PRESS ASSOCIATION

Monthly except July and August

Rate Card No. 1
Issued March, 1923
In effect September, 1923

1—GENERAL ADVERTISING

a. Per column inch.....$3.50
Eighth page 6.00
Fourth page 11.00
Half page 21.00
Full page 40.00

c. PREFERRED POSITIONS

2d & 3d covers, black....	$60.00
2d & 3d covers, colors....	70.00
4th cover, black.....	70.00
4th cover, 2 colors.....	80.00

d. Minimum size of advertisements—one column inch.

e. Orders specifying positions other than those known as "preferred positions" are not accepted. No cancellation accepted after the first of the month preceding date of issue.

f. These rates are operative only for the school year 1923-4.

2—CLASSIFICATIONS None

3—READING NOTICES Not accepted

4—COMMISSION AND CASH DISCOUNT

a. Agency commission 15 per cent.

b. Cash discount 2 per cent.

c. Cash discount date: Tenth of the month of issue.

d. Five consecutive insertions on contract, 5 per cent discount; ten consecutive insertions on contract, 10 per cent discount.

5—MECHANICAL REQUIREMENTS

Reverse

a. Size of plates: 1 col. 2⅝ in., 2 col. 5½ in.

b. Depth of column 8 in.—112 agate lines.

c. Two columns to page.

d. Page, type space, 8 in. deep x 5½ in. wide.

Half page, 3⅞ in. deep x 5½ in. wide, or 8 in. deep x 2⅝ in. wide.

Fourth page, 3⅞ in. deep x 2⅝ in. wide.

Eighth page, 1⅞ in. deep x 2⅝ in. wide.

e. Closing date—5th of month, preceding date of issue; for example: For February number on January 5. Copy due first of month; for example: Copy for May issue is due April 1.

f. Half-tones, 120 screen (Deep).

6—CIRCULATION

a. Character of circulation; editors and business managers of educational journals and advertisers and their representatives.

b. Locality of circulation: National.

c. Date in circulation—first of month.

d. This rate card is based on 10,000 circulation.

7—MISCELLANEOUS

a. Management reserves right to reject any and all advertisements.

b. Educational Press Association of America organized in 1917. This is not a regular journal merely a leaflet illustrating specifications.

c. Subscription price to members: None.

d. The Association has no other publications in which advertising is accepted.

Published by the Educational Press Association of America.
Arthur H. Chamberlain, President.
George L. Towne, Secretary.
Joy Elmer Morgan, Chairman of Committee on Standards.

Prepared in Conformity with Standard Rate Card of American Association of Advertising Agencies and with the Standard Specifications of the Educational Press Association of America

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advertising plates 7⅜ inches wide by 10 inches deep. Several journals that will have to make considerable change in size have decided to adopt one or the other of these two standards.

It is the opinion of the committee that the interests of all would be best served by standardizing as many journals as possible in these two sizes. The committee realizes that journals of large circulation may not wish to make the change at present. Among the advantages of the standard magazine size are: (1) It is convenient to read, (2) when bound it is convenient to shelve in libraries, (3) for a content of 50,000 words or less it makes a more substantial booklet than a larger size, (4) advertisers who would not buy a full page in the larger size will do so at the lower rate possible in the smaller. Specifications for the advertising pages of this size are set forth under mechanical requirements on the opposite page.

Among the advantages of the large magazine size are: (1) There is less space used in margins, (2) a larger bulk of material may be handled without making the booklet too thick, (3) greater variety of typography is available, and (4) certain advertisers who wish to use large illustrations prefer the larger page. Specifications for the advertising pages of this size may be had by writing to the Secretary of the Association, George L. Towne, 1126 Q Street, Lincoln, Nebraska, or to the Chairman of the Committee on Standards, Joy Elmer Morgan, 1201 Sixteenth Street Northwest, Washington, D. C.

The reasons for standard specifications may be summarized briefly as follows: (1) It costs no more to print a standard size than an irregular size. (2) When the same plate can be used with many different journals, more advertisers make plates, thus saving publishers the cost of composition. (3) One plate can be duplicated for several journals at much less than the cost of making a separate plate for each.

From the standpoint of the advertiser three items should be standardized —(*a*) The size of the type page or plate, (*b*) the size of the magazine trimmed, and (*c*) the quality and weight of paper which determines the size of the screen to be used in the engraving. The mechanical specifications for advertisements given on the opposite page have been adopted by the journals listed below. The specifications may be followed even though the journal is not in a position to standardize the weight and quality of paper used, or does not trim to exactly 6¾ inches by 9¾ inches. This leaflet is printed on sixty-pound super paper, which is most readily obtainable in all sections of the country. Some journals prefer a fifty-pound paper, while others use a seventy-pound paper.

Text pages need not be standardized in order to standardize advertising pages, although where text and advertising are mixed there is some advantage in doing so. For the convenience of journals which wish to standardize their text pages, this page is printed in a standard which is an "average" for educational journals of this class. It is composed of two columns of fifty-seven lines, sixteen picas long, set in ten-point Caslon, and contains approximately eight hundred words. Journals which adopt this size of type and length of line still have abundant room for individuality in headings and styles of type.

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JOURNALS ADOPTING THE STANDARDS

The magazines which have agreed to follow the standard magazine size in their advertising plates, are as follows:

American Education
Charles W. Blessing, Editor
467 Broadway
Albany, New York

Arizona Teacher and Home Journal
C. Louise Boehringer, Editor
Phoenix, Arizona

Colorado School Journal
H. B. Smith, Editor
534 Commonwealth Building
Denver, Colorado

Education
Frank H. Palmer, Editor
120 Boylston Street
Boston, Massachusetts

Educational Administration and Supervision
Warwick & York, Incorporated
Baltimore, Maryland

Educational Review
Frank P. Graves, Editor
Garden City, New York

Educator-Journal
M. P. Helm, Managing Editor
609 Lemcke Building
Indianapolis, Indiana

English Journal
W. W. Hatfield, Editor
5750 Ellis Avenue
Chicago, Illinois

Journal of Educational Psychology
Warwick & York, Incorporated
Baltimore, Maryland

Michigan Education Journal
Ernest T. Cameron, Editor
Prudden Building
Lansing, Michigan

Minnesota Teacher
C. G. Schulz, Editor
808 Pioneer Building
St. Paul, Minnesota

Missouri School Journal
Albert S. Lehr, Editor
Jefferson City, Missouri

Nebraska Educational Journal
Everett M. Hosman, Editor
326 Funke Building
Lincoln, Nebraska

Pennsylvania School Journal
James H. Kelley, Editor
10 South Market Square
Harrisburg, Pennsylvania

School and Community
Thomas J. Walker, Editor
E. M. Carter, Business Manager
Columbia, Missouri

Sierra Educational News
Arthur H. Chamberlain, Managing Editor
Phelan Building
San Francisco, California

Utah Educational Review
Hazel B. Stevens, Editor
The University of Utah
Salt Lake City, Utah

Wisconsin Journal of Education
E. G. Doudna, Editor
611 Beaver Building
Madison, Wisconsin

The magazines which have agreed to follow the large magazine size for their advertising plates, are as follows:

Alabama School Journal
H. G. Dowling, Editor
State Department of Education
Montgomery, Alabama

American Educational Digest
Frank A. Weld, Editor
1126 Q Street
Lincoln, Nebraska

American School
Carroll G. Pearse, Editor
455 Kenwood Boulevard
Milwaukee, Wisconsin

Florida School Journal
P. W. Corr, Editor
Cocoa, Florida

Journal of the National Education Association
Harold A. Allan, Business Manager
1201 Sixteenth Street Northwest
Washington, D. C.

Kansas Teacher
F. L. Pinet, Managing Editor
921 Kansas Avenue
Topeka, Kansas

Midland Schools
Charles F. Pye, Editor
407 Youngerman Building
Des Moines, Iowa

Mississippi Educational Advance
John Rundle, Editor
W. N. Taylor, Manager
State Department of Education
Jackson, Mississippi

Oklahoma Teacher
M. R. Floyd, Editor
Room 401, State Capitol
Oklahoma City, Oklahoma

School Century
George W. Jones, Editor
Oak Park, Illinois

South Carolina Education
Patterson Wardlaw, Editor
Columbia, South Carolina

Southern School Journal
O. S. Deming, Editor
Postoffice Box 382
Lexington, Kentucky

Texas School Journal
H. T. Musselman, Editor
Dallas, Texas

Washington Education Journal
Arthur L. Marsh, Editor
707 Lowman Building
Seattle, Washington

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Department of Elementary Education

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

OFFICERS

President—MYRA L. SNOW, Head Teacher, Portage School.....Seattle, Washington
Secretary—MARGARET H. SMITH, Principal, 61st Street School.....Los Angeles, California

At the yearly meeting of the Department of Elementary Education, held in the Civic Auditorium, in Oakland, California, on Tuesday, July 3, 1923, Mrs. Herren, of Seattle, acting president, presided. The minutes of the previous meeting were dispensed with.

It was moved and carried to adjourn the meeting until 1:45 P. M., on Friday, July 6, 1923, before the program of the joint meeting of the Departments of the Elementary Education and the Elementary Principals.

The adjourned meeting of the Department of Elementary Education was called to order Friday, July 6, 1923, by the acting president, Mrs. Herren, of Seattle.

It was moved and carried to vote by acclamation.

Miss Harriet Gaymann, of Colorado Springs, Colorado, was nominated for the presidency for the coming year. As there were no other nominations, it was moved and carried that the nominations be closed. The president declared Miss Gaymann elected as president for the year 1923-1924.

Miss Bessie Evans, of Little Rock, Arkansas, was nominated for the secretaryship for the coming year. As there were no other nominations, it was moved and carried that the nominations be closed. The president declared Miss Evans elected as secretary for the year 1923-1924.

The secretary was instructed to notify the newly elected officers of their election. It was moved and carried that the incoming officers be instructed that it was the pleasure of the department to invite Miss Florence M. Hale to appear on the program at the next meeting.

It was moved and carried to adjourn.

MARGARET H. SMITH,
Secretary

THE NEW RURAL SCHOOL AND ITS INTERDEPENDENCE WITH THE CITY SCHOOL SYSTEM—ABSTRACT

GRACE G. STANLEY, STATE COMMISSIONER OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION
SACRAMENTO, CALIFORNIA

For the past fifty years the movement from the country to the city has been almost unchecked. Schools have felt the impulse quite as much as any other department of our civilized life. The advantages of city schools have been held before us so constantly that we have come to think of them as having no points of inferiority over rural schools. Superior organization, equip-

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ment, division of labor, higher pay, more secure tenure, the pleasure of more extended social contacts, opportunities for study and growth in the profession, to say nothing of greater ease and comfort, have all been dwelt upon at great length by educational writers.

On the other hand the picture of the rural school, unless it might be converted into a consolidated school, has been dismal enough and the only possible reasons that could be offered for undertaking such a task were necessity or the missionary spirit. Since school teaching has no special romance attached to it the second motive has led its devotees into the more high sounding avenues of social service.

Today I wish to present to you the opportunities in rural teaching for your own development, and through you the improvement in the whole educational procedure. The curse of education today is its dependence on formal tasks through the medium of strict organization. In the large cities, where organization has its most deadly grip by virtue of the large masses involved, you and your personality are in danger of being lost. In the rural and village communities is the hope of salvation for you and for education. If you have initiation and originality, come to the free, open field where you can work out your own salvation and give the children a chance. A few years of this kind of work will bring the whole world to your doors to learn of you. To look upon the rural school as the opportunity for the development of new educational practices is to raise the rural school to the position of leadership which it should occupy, not only for its own sake, but for the good of educational progress throughout the Nation.

THE NEW ELEMENTARY SCHOOL CURRICULUM

H. B. WILSON, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS
BERKELEY, CALIFORNIA

The new elementary school curriculum which has already developed in a few places and which is rapidly establishing itself in progressive school systems throughout the United States possesses many distinctive characteristics distinguishing it from the earlier type of curriculum which it is succeeding. I shall take time to call your attention to three of these characteristics only.

In the first place, it will be definitely headed evidencing by its internal structure what its aims and objectives are. This will be a distinct advance over the curricula at the present time as they are to be found in 95 per cent of the school systems. An examination of these curricula shows that an overwhelming percentage of them are merely skeletal in their content, merely specifying textbooks in use and indicating the pages to be covered from grade to grade.

The new curriculum will state clearly and concretely in the early pages of the course of study in each subject what it is believed may be accomplished in the education and socialization of children through the teaching of the

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subject in question. It will show the relationship in an illustrative way between the contents specified and the objectives set up for realization.

The importance of making clear just what the results and ends are which should be achieved in children through the teaching of each subject can hardly be over estimated. We appreciate the importance of determining definitely and clearly just what our purposes are in the ordinary things of life which we do, but courses of study show that their makers have been unmindful of determining the course of study in the light of the purpose which it is to achieve.

In the second place, the new course of study will, in so far as possible, determine its content scientifically. The need for this proceeding in the interest of eliminating the useless and functionless and bringing in new materials not to be found there now is fundamental.

The course of study as we find it is a traditional instrument which assumed its present content largely as the result of accident. As each of the various earlier aims of education dominated the situation, various types of subject matter were added. Along with each addition was retained the previous accumulations with the result that a great amount of obsolete material is to be found along with that which is actually useful in life situations.

Within the last few years, there has been accumulated the results of a number of excellent scientific investigations to determine just what ought to be taught in light of what is needed and used by people in social situations. These studies have not only given us certain definite usable results but they have set the pattern and the methods which should be used in other studies.

There is still serious need to determine what ought to be taught in each subject in which as yet there is no specific satisfactory answer as to what should be taught.

The findings at this time are pretty definite in spelling, arithmetic, language, and grammar, and some headway has been made in the field of social studies. The work in all of these fields needs to be extended and similar work needs to be done in all other subjects. No one should presume to reconstruct any course of study without the guidance of all the investigations of a scientific sort which have been made thus far. They are valuable not only in eliminating what should be omitted because it is useless but also in showing new materials and undertakings which should be drawn in because of their socializing value.

In the third place, the new curriculum will always be in the making. Continual gathering, rearranging, and improvement will characterize it. Further, the task of keeping the course of study up to date will be carried forward democratically and coöperatively.

It is absolutely essential if the curriculum is to be what it should be that it should be continually developing coöperatively. If the work is undertaken coöperatively, it is certain to produce a better instrument because all the teachers and other officers of the school having ability are called upon to make their contribution for its development.

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Further, if all are at work upon the course of study, they are growing and developing. They are therefore becoming more capable. The result is a broader, more thoroughly trained, and more capable body of teachers.

The great benefit of all this is that the course of study as it is at any time is more certain to operate successfully in the schools if it is an instrument which the teaching staff as a whole has participated in developing. Since they developed it, they believe in it; and they are inspired to try to execute it with the largest measure of results.

THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL LIBRARY DEFINED IN DOLLARS AND CENTS

C. C. CERTAIN, CHAIRMAN OF THE JOINT COMMITTEE ON ELEMENTARY SCHOOL LIBRARY STANDARDS, REPRESENTING THE N. E. A. AND THE A. L. A.

To define the elementary school library in terms of dollars and cents is not an impossible task. Many so-called elementary school libraries are set up without a penny going into the school budget to meet either initial costs or costs of maintenance. It should be said just here that the school that has no provision in the annual budget for the library has no library. This statement is made without qualification. Schools in this class resort to all kinds of make-shift arrangements for securing funds. The proceeds from parties, school plays, or waste paper are depended upon. Or perhaps the school receives gifts of books—in general, worthless old books rescued from the dusty darkness of bat-infested attics. If not books from this source, the principal garners sample copies from the textbook departments of publishing houses.

There are schools in another class which have budget provision for books, but none whatever for equipment or salary. The school in this class often spends as much as $150 over a period of four or five years for so-called library books. The result is not at all satisfactory, of course, and cannot be called even the nucleus of a library.

In a somewhat higher class than either of the foregoing are the schools which make provisions in the budget over a period of two or three years of about $200 a year for books and equipment, although no provision is made for salary. This class of schools usually requires teachers to serve during rest periods, or asks the coöperation of upper-class pupils in caring for the books.

There is a fourth class which not only makes a moderate beginning, but annually thereafter makes budget appropriations of $100 or more until a library is established requiring a trained librarian in charge full time.

Schools in the highest class definitely plan to develop a library and seek expert assistance in determining initial costs and costs of maintenance. Schools in this class are building and maintaining adequate libraries on budget appropriations approximately as follows:

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		Initial cost: Shelving	Initial cost: Furniture, equipment	Initial cost: Books, magazines, supplies	Total initial cost	Annual maintenance: Books, magazines, rebinding, replacements, supplies	Salary	Total annually	Average cost per pupil annually based upon maximum enrolment
Rural schools, 75 to 100 enrolment.		$25	$150	$100	$275	$80	....	$80	$ .80
Rural consolidated schools, 250 to 500 enrolment.	A	50	250	215	515	100	....	100	.20
	B	100	400	425	925	175	$900	1,025	2.05
Schools, enrolment below 500.	A	60	350	300	710	125	900	1,025	2.05
	B	100	450	425	975	175	1,500	1,675	3.35
Schools, 500 to 1,000		150	450	500	1,100	175	1,800	1,775	1.77
Schools, 1,000 to 2,000....		200	600	600	1,400	350	2,100	2,450	1.22

For the satisfaction of persons who are endeavoring at the present time to develop libraries in their schools, I have arranged the following graded outline of elementary school library facilities varying from the zero level to the well-organized, well-equipped library with a trained librarian in charge full time. The outline is presented in three parts: the first, descriptive of the rural school; the second, of the school with enrolment of 500 or below; and the third, of the school with enrolment between 1000 and 2000.

It may be of interest to the reader to check on the outline the level of development of the library facilities afforded the children and teachers in his school. The outline gives approximate costs where the facilities afforded entail definite expenditures of money. The average costs per pupil is also given.

SERIES I. RURAL SCHOOLS

School A is a rural school with no provision whatever for a library. The children have a few textbooks with practically no supplementary books for reading.

School B is a rural school in a county with a system of extension school library service. Package libraries are received at regular intervals. These libraries consist of books selected not merely on the basis of requests from the teacher concerned, but also on the basis of reports upon actual experience in the use of the books loaned in the school. The arrangement is maintained largely through the enthusiasm of those in charge of the county library extension system, although the teachers are not averse to receiving book loans.

School C is a rural school employing a teacher who is greatly interested in reading materials. She has had shelving built in one of the rooms to accommodate two or three hundred books. Through various ways she has raised money for buying many attractive, well-selected books. She secures loans, package libraries from the nearest public library, or from the county library. Manufacturing houses, insurance companies, State departments of education, and city health departments are sending her much pamphlet material and other printed matter prepared for free distribution. The teacher spends her own money in carrying out her plans.

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School D is a rural consolidated school of 500 enrolment. In this school there is a room set aside for reading purposes. The room is open on given hours during the day when pupils from the upper classes are in charge. In some instances a teacher is in charge during rest periods or after school or older pupils are paid a small amount of money for their services.

The room is furnished with two tables, 34" by 60", 26" high; three tables 34" by 60", 30" high; 12 chairs 15" high; 18 chairs 18" high; one catalog case; one charging tray with guides.

Shelving was built in at a cost of $75. The cost of the initial set of books was $225. The furniture cost $250. Supplies were bought at $25. The total initial cost of the library was $575. About $100 a year is spent on salaries. The average cost per pupil annually is 2 cents.

School E is a rural consolidated school with a special room set aside for the housing of a library. The enrolment is 700. A teacher librarian is in charge giving at least half of her time to the library and the other half to teaching in the schoolroom.

The library reading room is large enough to accommodate two tables 34" by 60", 26" high; four tables 34" by 60", 30" high; twelve 15" chairs; twenty-four 18" chairs; one teacher's desk; one teacher's chair; one catalog case; and charging tray and guides; one magazine rack.

There is built-in shelving of standard, high-grade workmanship costing $100. The initial cost of the furniture was $360. The initial set of books cost $400, and supplies $70. The total initial cost of the library was $930. Each year the amount of $175 is spent on new books, magazines, book replacements, and rebinding. One half of the librarian's salary, or $900 is charged to the library annually. The average cost per pupil annually is $1.55.

SERIES II. SCHOOLS WITH ENROLMENT NOT EXCEEDING FIVE HUNDRED

School A has no provision for library reading materials.

School B has two or three teachers in English, who in teaching English, geography, and history endeavor to secure supplementary materials. Some of this material they buy themselves using their personal funds and some of it is secured in the form of supplementary readers.

School C has several teachers who borrow materials from the nearest public library. They raise through school entertainments each year funds amounting to about $75.00 for books to be distributed in classrooms.

School D has a principal whose persistent garnering of books from book agents resulted in an office library. The books are stored in locked book cases with glass doors. Occasionally a teacher borrows one of the books. As a rule, the books are not molested from the beginning of the year to the close of the school term.

School E has a library room with four tables, one card catalogue, twenty-four substantial chairs, a teacher's desk, and built-in shelves to accommodate a thousand books.

A teacher librarian is in charge giving about seventy-five per cent of her time to the library.

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The total expense of this library is approximately as follows:

Initial costs	
Shelving	$60.00
Furniture	350.00
Supplies	50.00
Magazines	30.00
Books	250.00
Total	$740.00
Cost of maintenance	
New Books	75.00
Magazines	30.00
Supplies	25.00
Rebindings	25.00
Replacements	25.00
Total maintenance	$180.00
Salary	1,500.00
Total maintenance and salary	$1,680.00

The average cost per pupil annually is $3.36.

SERIES III. ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS WITH ENROLMENTS OF 1000 TO 2000

School A has no library reading-room. No teacher in the school makes any attempt to use books other than the regular textbook.

School B in addition to the use of the textbooks there is a generous allotment of supplementary books of various kinds. These are apportioned to teachers once or twice during each term.

School C has several teachers who make use of classroom libraries largely consisting of books from their own personal libraries and borrowed on their own cards from the public library.

School D has a library in the principal's office. This library consists of a supply of textbooks left by visiting book agents or secured by the principal on requests from publishing houses. There is also a number of subscription books in the library, which shrewd book agents have been keen enough to sell the principal. There are three sets of sectional book cases filled with books of this character. The books are the pride of the principal but afford little interest or service to any one else in the school.

School E has a library reading-room open to teachers and pupils part of each day with a teacher in charge who volunteers to do the work during vacant periods. In this same type of school, pupils are sometimes put in charge as a special assignment or work for a small remuneration. Only about $50 a year is spent on student services.

School F has a small library reading-room with accommodations for about twenty readers. Three discarded tables have been brought in from corridors and classrooms to serve the needs of readers. There are about a dozen and a half chairs in various stages of repair and of three or four different styles of manufacture. These chairs have been borrowed from other parts of the building, some from classrooms, and some from the gymnasium and the auditorium. The shelving is home-made. Boys more interested in reading

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than in manual arts volunteered to do the work. The shelving is not of standard length nor of standard width. In consequence it bends down and is badly twisted. Nevertheless it bears the load of about six hundred books. These books have been bought on the proceeds from the annual senior-class plays. The books were selected by committees of pupils. Many of the books are unsuited to school work. Members of the student council of the school take turns in serving as librarians at least four periods every day. The principal recognizes the fact that the library is not an ideal one but is proud to say it is very largely a student project and has cost the tax payers nothing.

School G is a school with a commodious room, well-lighted, centrally located and well-equipped. The enrolment of the school is 1800. There are accommodations for about fifty readers at one time. There are in the room six tables, 3 by 5 feet by 26 inches high, four tables 3 by 5 feet by 30 inches high, 45 chairs, a teacher's desk, one teacher's chair, catalogue case, a charging tray and guides, and a magazine rack. A trained librarian is in charge, giving all her time to the library. A regular course of instruction is given in the use of books and libraries.

The total expenses of this library is approximately as follows:

Initial costs	
Shelving	$200.00
Furniture	600.00
Supplies	100.00
Magazines	40.00
Books	450.00
Total	$1,390.00
Cost of maintenance annually	
New Books	150.00
Magazines	50.00
Supplies	50.00
Rebindings	75.00
Replacements	25.00
Total annual maintenance	$350.00
Salary, annually	2,100.00
Total maintenance and salary	$2,450.00

The average cost per pupil annually is $1.36.

The task of securing approval from school boards, money to be expended upon the elementary school library is one involving many local problems. The foregoing estimates concerning costs are based upon figures received in actual bids from dealers in school furniture. These estimates should be of value to principals and superintendents who desire to develop and maintain standard elementary school libraries in their schools.

THE NEW COMMITTEE ON ELEMENTARY SCHOOL LIBRARY STANDARDS

To define the purpose of the elementary school library and to establish standards for the organization and maintenance of this type of school library, the following committee has been appointed jointly by the Department

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of Elementary School Principals of the National Education Association and the School Librarians' Section of the American Library Association:

1. *Representing the National Education Association*—Worth McClure, principal of the Gatewood School, Seattle, Washington; Sara E. Slawson, principal, Eagle School, Cleveland, Ohio; Cora S. Rushing, principal, Cheremoya School, Hollywood, California; Rebecca J. Coffin, principal, Elementary Department, Lincoln School, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City; G. Bates, principal, Dwyer School, Detroit, Michigan; T. C. Young, principal of South Highland School, Birmingham, Alabama.

2. *Representing the American Library Association*—Jasmine Britton, supervisor of Elementary School Library, Los Angeles Public School, Los Angeles, California; Annie Cutter, Schools Department, Public Library, Cleveland, Ohio; Mabel Williams, Schools Division, Public Library, New York City; Adelaide Zachert, director of school libraries, State of Pennsylvania, Department of Public Instruction, Harrisburg, Pennsylvania; C. C. Certain, general chairman, Detroit Public Schools, Detroit, Michigan.

The report of this committee will outline standards for the following types of elementary school libraries: (1) Rural elementary schools, (2) rural consolidated elementary schools, (3) elementary schools of 500 enrolment or under, (4) elementary schools of from 500 to 1000 enrolment, and (5) elementary schools of from 1000 to 2000 enrolment.

The following considerations will be dealt with in the report:

I. The remodeling of old classrooms for use as standard libraries in elementary schools.

II. The architectural design of the library room in the new elementary school building.

III. The elementary school library defined as to aims, scope, and use.

IV. Standards as to A. Definition: (1) aims, (2) scope, (3) use; B. Essentials as to (1) book collections, including scope, selection, ordering, and cataloging, (2) visual and other materials, (3) equipment, furniture, etc., (4) supplies, (5) records, (6) qualifications, requirements, duties of elementary school supervisor, (7) school librarians, including status, professional requirements, salary and duties of elementary school librarian; C. Housing—library reading-room, with details as to (a) location, (b) seating capacity and area, (c) wall space, (d) shelving, (e) furniture, (f) magazine racks, (g) bulletin board, (h) lighting, (i) finishes, (j) woodwork, and (k) floor, and in addition, closets and workroom; D. Administrative requirements, such as (1) administrative work, (2) technical work, (3) provision for clerical work; E. Library instruction, including aims, methods, objectives, and minimum essentials.

V. Books, and other printed materials, equipment, supplies, salaries.

It is expected that this report will be completed and presented to the Department of Elementary-school Principals for action at the next annual meeting in July, 1924. Prior to that time the report in tentative form will be submitted to the division of school librarians of the American Library Association. It will also be submitted for criticisms and suggestions to elementary school authorities throughout the United States.

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Department of Elementary School Principals

OFFICERS

President—WORTH MCCLURE, Principal of Gatewood School.....Seattle, Washington
Recording Secretary—MRS. JESSIE M. FINK, Palmer School.....Grand Rapids, Michigan
Corresponding Secretary—W. T. LONGSHORE, Greenwood School.....Kansas City, Missouri

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

CLEVELAND MEETING

The four afternoon programs and our part in the joint program of Tuesday evening, prepared and carried out by President Worth McClure, were of the highest order. Every speaker on the program was present and gave a good account of himself.

Our two representatives on the general program, Miss Olive M. Jones, principal of Public School Number 120, New York City, and Mr. Ide G. Sargeant, principal of Public School Number 10, Paterson, New Jersey, reflected great honor on the Department of Elementary School Principals by the able manner in which they handled their respective subjects.

Great credit is due President McClure for the manner in which he prepared the program and conducted the meetings of the department.

The Department of Elementary School Principals met in their first annual dinner in the Cleveland Hotel, seven o'clock, Thursday evening, March 1. Four hundred were present and a list of the speakers will be proof positive that the occasion was one long to be remembered by the flow of wit, humor, and wisdom. *Toastmaster:* W. P. Burris, dean of Education of University of Cincinnati, and father of the department. *Speakers:* William B. Owen, president of the National Education Association; John H. Beveridge, president of the Department of Superintendence; A. E. Winship, editor, *Journal of Education,* Boston; Miss Charl Ormond Williams, field secretary of the National Education Association, Miss Belle M. Ryan, assistant superintendent, Omaha, Nebraska; Miss Olive M. Jones, of New York; Leonard Power, first president of the Department, and President McClure.

The arrangements for the dinner were made by our efficient recording secretary, Mrs. Jessie M. Fink, through the splendid coöperation of the Elementary School Principals' Club of Cleveland, directed by their able president, Miss Burroughs.

The officers of the department met at a breakfast at Hotel Winton, Tuesday morning, February 27th, at eight o'clock.

Present at this breakfast were all the officers and past officers who were in Cleveland. The past, present, and future of the department were discussed; practically all the time being devoted to future plans. The wonderful development of two years since its first temporary organization at Atlantic City, and the great success of the meeting then going on in Cleveland, gave everything a roseate hue. Many were the words of praise spoken concerning our first Yearbook. From the information at hand the prospects seemed bright that the second Yearbook, under the chairmanship of John L. Bracken, principal of U. S. Grant School, Duluth, Minnesota, would mark a further advance. Then from a suggestion made by Mr. Bracken and President McClure, we took up a discussion of the third Yearbook that is to come out in June, 1924. After discussion is was decided that one year was not long enough to get out a Yearbook as mature and thorough as we wanted to produce in

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the future; so the official family and others present recommended that President McClure appoint at once a chairman for the third Yearbook. After consideration he suggested the name of Leonard Power, which met with the unanimous approval of all present, and Mr. Power accepted the appointment. So the 1924 Yearbook is assured at this time. This breakfast meeting will have much to do with the growth and usefulness of the Department of Elementary School Principals of the National Education Association.

The addresses given at the first two sessions were printed in the Bulletin of the Department of Elementary School Principals, Vol. II, No. 3, April, 1923. The addresses given at the Wednesday and Thursday sessions are published in the Bulletin of the Department of Elementary School Principals, Vol. III, No. 1, October, 1923.

POSSIBILITIES OF THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALSHIP FROM THE SUPERINTENDENT'S POINT OF VIEW

HERBERT S. WEET, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, ROCHESTER, NEW YORK

The subject assigned for this paper presents at the same time an advantage and a danger. The advantage lies in the fact that a possibility points to the future and so avoids the necessity of dwelling upon shortcomings. At the same time, in discussing possibilities, there is always the danger of getting too much into the world of the unattainable. What we shall try to discuss, therefore, will have to do with what the future holds for an elementary school principalship, that may reasonably be regarded as attainable by those of us who are engaged in this line of work at the present time.

There are, in the last analysis, two factors of interest in any attempt to reach a judgment as to the possibilities of a given position:

1. One has to do with the rewards in the form of financial returns and opportunities for promotion, or the money exchange value of our services.

2. The other, with the rewards in the form of professional satisfaction, or the real value of the position.

First, then, does the elementary school principalship promise in the future to give better salary returns than it has in the past, and to give salary returns that will lie in the upper range of salaries for public school positions?

There are very substantial evidences that an affirmative answer must be given to this question. In my own city there are greater possibilities in the way of salary returns in this type of position than in any other type of position in the system, when the number of opportunities is taken into consideration. That is to say, of the forty-four elementary school principalships, eighteen have salary schedules in excess of $3600, the maximum salary of departmental heads in the high schools. Of this number eleven have salaries in excess of $4100. Outside of the superintendents this number is larger than the combined number of all other positions in the system that command a salary in excess of $4100.

Furthermore, this improved outlook in the matter of returns is relatively greater in the case of the elementary school principalship than in any other type of position within the system. That is to say, that among all the

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increased salary schedules of the system during the past ten years, the per cent increase in the case of the elementary school principalship has been clearly the largest. This fact is of significance. If you ask whether this exceptional increase was necessary to secure persons to fill these positions, the answer must be in the negative. But it is not too large to command the type of person who will more and more be required to meet the responsibilities of this important position in the city school system.

But what of the opportunities of promotion from this position? Here, again, the answer seems to be equally convincing. From the ranks of these elementary school principals there have been selected, in our own system, five principals of junior high schools, a position that commands a salary of $5000 a year. One of these, in turn, has been drawn to the State of Pennsylvania because of the larger financial and professional returns offered. One has been selected as director of junior high-school grades in the system and one has been selected as director of one of the important departments at the central office. These facts would seem to constitute ample evidence that the future holds in the way of promotions, advantages of unusual merit to those who are able and willing to qualify themselves for realizing these advantages.

To what extent the system chosen for illustration is typical, we do not presume to know. So far as our own observation goes, however, there is a distinct tendency in the direction of recognizing the increased responsibility that the principal of the elementary school must carry, and consequently an equally distinct tendency to appreciate the fact that men and women of the training and experience required for these larger demands, must be compensated more adequately than they have in the past, both with reference to salary paid and opportunities for promotion offered.

But is there in the future of the elementary school principalship a demand and an opportunity, for creative and constructive work—work of the kind that brings professional satisfaction? This question suggests three interesting fields for review:

1. The place and contributions of the elementary school in the scheme of public education.
2. Problems that challenge serious study in order that improved conditions in the elementary school unit may result.
3. Professional leadership.

In view of the great extent to which the junior high-school movement has gone, we shall think of the elementary school unit as consisting of the kindergarten and the first six grades. What then is the place and what are the contributions of this elementary school unit from which a sense of service much deserved and well rendered may be secured? In a general way the answer to this question is comparatively clear to us all. We know, for example, that the elementary school unit is the basal unit of all school organization and the unit that is generally recognized as contributing more in the way of requisites for the educational welfare of the country than does any other unit. Because of its long and relatively successful history in these accomplishments it, accordingly, holds in the confidence of the community a

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position of very great strength. And yet so little has been done in the way of a specific consideration of these contributions that comparatively few people realize their significance.

Give to the elementary school the care of childhood during this six-year period and it will not only protect the Nation against illiteracy in the case of every normal-minded child entrusted to its care, but it will carry the individual well along the way of securing the larger cultural returns that the power of literacy makes possible. In just the proportion that we reduce the percentage of those people living in this country, who are unable to read, write and speak the English language, in just that proportion shall we reduce one of the most potent causes of those misunderstandings that breed class distinctions; increase the productive capacity of the community and secure for the individual himself that kind of equality of opportunity to which as a Nation we are committed.

Again, if we were to go back over the past half dozen years in the history of this country to ascertain a second factor responsible for a weakened citizenship, it is readily found in unnecessary ill health. This may properly be referred to as unnecessary because it could have been averted in large part if the elementary schools of this Nation had been given anything like the moral and financial support required to carry on even the health education program that is now found in many of our city school systems. It was not so much the degree of ill health that was discovered during the war days, as it was the weakening effect of this physical inefficiency upon the man-power of the Nation. The result was a great stimulus to education for health throughout the schools of the country, and even now the beneficial results are apparent. Any agency that makes such a contribution to the health of the Nation is rendering an important type of patriotic service and to guide and direct that service means professional opportunity.

But there is a third contribution of no less consequence. With all the abuse to which the word "Americanism" has been subjected, nevertheless, it does connote a fairly definite sort of thing. Its very essence lies in a sympathy with the great policy of the square deal for which this country long ago declared itself. No person would claim that during the six years of the elementary school there can be gained any extensive formal knowledge of these social studies that make their primary contribution to the development of such a sympathy. But no person can be at all familiar with the public school of today that has received sufficient support to command the service of an adequately equipped teacher and yet fail to recognize that every influence of such a classroom is setting the faces of our boys and girls hopefully and confidently towards the ideals of this republic.

Again, the extent to which unit courses for vocational training were found necessary during the war experience, simply reflected the unfortunate extent to which we had gone in our retention of traditional curriculums, wholly worthy at the time they were established but inadequate to present-day demands. The restriction of the high-school curriculum to preparation for college and to those studies that are thought of as essential in the learned professions, was a perfectly worthy and satisfactory condition for the gener-

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ation in which it was established. But the great majority of the boys and girls in the public high schools of this country today have no thought whatever of going on into the learned professions that were practically the only vocations considered by the selected group of the high school of a generation ago. These changed conditions alone have necessitated attention to the practical arts in the public schools, and it is consequently but natural that here as elsewhere the elementary school must lay the foundation. These fine and practical arts of the elementary school are taught during the early school life of the child with no primary reference to any bearing that they may have upon later life careers. But out of the groups of pupils who pursue these arts in this elementary school, will come musicians and other artists, draftsmen and other artisans, as well as those who are to meet the business and professional demands of community life. And here again, therefore, through this work in the fine and the practical arts the elementary school is making a contribution of general value to all and of particular importance to those who will later find their vocations in this general field.

It would seem, therefore, that leadership in a unit of school organization that holds such a place and that makes such contributions to the National welfare as those sketched, would appeal as an opportunity for rendering the highest kind of service, and that it would consequently bring rewards in the form of professional satisfaction.

But in the light of this established place and these recognized contributions, is it not possible that the problems have been worked through, and that consequently there is nothing left in this elementary school unit to challenge study and research? To the superintendent of schools there probably has never been a time when the need of intelligent study and research in the field of elementary education was greater than today. And what is of at least equal consequence is the fact that there has never been a time when conditions for such study were quite as favorable as they are today. The briefest possible sketch of two or three fields will suggest the reasons for these statements.

No one today will deny that most favorable and important leads have been developed in the special field of child study. Never before have we been in a position to diagnose so intelligently the physical, mental and moral workings of the child as we are today. But it must be admitted that, for the most part, these contributions have not yet reached through to the one upon whom their most intelligent and effective use must depend—the regular teacher in the elementary school classroom.

It may fairly be questioned as to whether we have yet made more than a beginning in this procedure of knowing how to use for the benefit of the child himself this scientific knowledge that is rapidly coming to be available concerning the abilities of children. Our assumption that the best use of the information now given through the child study laboratories and other agencies was to be found through the organization of special classes with their small groups of fifteen or twenty children, is today receiving severe challenge because of the greatly increased expense involved. Here alone is

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suggested a field of study that may well challenge the attention of the most eager and intelligent.

But the curriculum of the elementary school offers another field of great importance. No thoughtful person supposes for a moment today that the so-called three R's constitute anything more than one important branch of the work in the elementary school. Discontinue the work of the elementary school, meager as it sometimes is, in the fields of health and the fine and practical arts, and few communities would tolerate the change. We may safely depend upon it that increased attention to health will be demanded as time goes on. Furthermore, something akin to direct moral instruction will unquestionably be demanded in the very near future. It is one thing to assume that the inherent sense which the child has, of justice, loyalty, and sympathy, will be automatically developed and safeguarded through the regular procedure of the classroom, and it is quite another thing so to regulate the activities and methods of procedure in the classroom as to guarantee the exercise of these powers and thereby guarantee their development. In other words, there is good ground for believing that before long we shall work just as directly and systematically in this field of the ethical as we are today attempting to work for the strengthening of those powers of body and intellect. But if increased time and attention are to be used for such purposes then from what is this time to be taken? Certain it is that the curriculum of the elementary school has reached the saturation point and that from now on whatever changes come must come in the direction of substituting for, rather than adding to, the activities that now prevail. All this suggests an interesting challenge for a critical study of practically everything that goes to make up the elementary school curriculum today, with a view of re-evaluating the elements involved.

Again, there is a fertile field for study in the organization standards that now prevail, so far as there are such standards in this elementary school unit. In general, such standards as now exist have been dictated by financial rather than by educational considerations. There is probably not a person in this room today who does not sympathize with the criticisms of the public school that can be traced directly to the limitations imposed by mass instruction. These criticisms are bound to increase if the community continues to increase its most commendable insistence that the test of the school shall be found primarily in its ability to develop attitudes, habits of thought and conduct, and not primarily in its ability to put pupils through a final examination. There is probably not a person in this room today, who, from the standpoint of educational considerations, would think of expecting a teacher to take a class of forty or more children and avoid the dangers attendent upon mass instruction. And yet, so far as we are aware, there is nothing on record to show that a teacher cannot do quite as much for the educational welfare of these young citizens of the Republic with a class of forty or more, as with a class of half that number. But some day some elementary school principal may show that neither the best educational welfare nor the greatest financial economy is effected through the large class unit. The mere fact that a teacher has a small class will not, in and of

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itself, guarantee a knowledge of the individual needs in that classroom and an increased desire and ability to meet those needs; but a smaller class unit does provide conditions under which such a wholesome procedure can be obtained. In short, this whole problem of knowing what constitutes true economy in the organization of the elementary school is one of pressing importance at the present time, and one that is bound to be of increasing importance in the future, as, more and more, education competes with the numerous other demands for public support.

Thus the acknowledged service rendered by the public elementary school at the present time and the opportunities for increased service by the improvements made possible through the fields of study just suggested, and many others, afford a professional challenge that, to say the least, is not excelled by any other unit of public school organization.

And, finally, there is the field of professional and community leadership as it is related to the principalship of the elementary school. It would not be difficult to prepare a rather strong brief on the proposition that it is almost an unexplored field.

Regardless of what past conditions may be responsible, it must be admitted that all too frequently today the attitude of the elementary school principal toward the work of his school is not the attitude of the leader. Only too frequently it is rather the attitude of one seeking to carry out to the best of his ability such plans and methods of procedure as courses of study and directions from the central office impose. Not often is there found that keen but sympathetic challenge that the creative mind of leadership always brings.

But the possibility and even the necessity of changing whatever in the past has seemingly favored this attitude on the part of the elementary school principal, is more and more recognized each year. Important and indispensable as the right kind of central supervision is, nevertheless, it can never supply the leadership required for the most effective work of the elementary or any other unit of school organization. Such supervision has changed its rather dominating quality of a decade ago to one of coöperation today. We shall venture the prediction that in less than another decade we shall find the elementary school principal the determining, because the only strategically located, leader in his particular school. Our central supervision will continue, and it will require even more in the way of training, experience, and personality in leadership than it requires today. But it will lead more by suggestion and less by authority. The reasons for this, naturally, cannot be dwelt upon here, but they are of a very practical and compelling nature as any superintendent of schools well knows. You may put a dozen leaders in the field and have fewer questions asked and protests raised than will follow from placing one at the central office. More and more, if the leadership of the elementary school proves equal to it, we shall find central supervision the skillful, intelligent consulting engineer to be used at the discretion of the principal of the elementary school in a constructive solution of the problems of which he himself is conscious and in the solution of which he is leading.

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It may fairly be assumed that by this time the great majority of the elementary school principals here today have made the mental protest that has always been made and that will always continue in every field of accomplishment that life presents. It is, substantially, the protest of recognizing that this is a field of great and worthy service and of rare opportunity for improvement but that the elementary school principal is so tied by administrative demands and routine details that there is no opportunity for admission to these larger fields of professional service. Those of us who have actually served as elementary school principals know only too well the unfortunate degree of truth in this protest.

But, on the other hand, it may be well for us to remember that no person in any executive or administrative position ever finds time hanging on his hands for the study and research that he knows to be desirable and important. Whatever progress any executive makes in this field is made in spite of the very real handicaps that nothing but superior organizing ability can eventually overcome. It may be well for us, furthermore, to remember that the elementary school principal who shows himself so supremely and so intelligently interested in living in the educational as opposed to the routine and administrative atmosphere of his school, will as a rule be able to secure the kind of assistance required to enable him to live in this atmosphere. There will, of course, be communities concerning which this is not true, but the principle still holds. We, in the elementary school principalships of this country, are no more unalterably the victims of a condition than are executives in any other field of endeavor. Never before has there been such a general spirit of desire to bring about changed and improved conditions in every walk of life, as exists in this country today. Never have we been tied less by tradition. All of which is simply to say that the possibilities of the elementary school principalship in the days that are ahead are not only greater than anything that the past has known, but they are excelled by few of the positions in the whole scheme of formal education in this country.

THE PROJECT METHOD FROM THE PRINCIPALS' POINT OF VIEW

THOMAS AGNEW, PRINCIPAL OF HORACE MANN SCHOOL
BAYONNE, NEW JERSEY

It may not be appropriate, apparently, to touch upon the subject of social or rather economic tendencies in a brief paper devoted to an educational method, but as there does exist a definite connection between the two in this instance, it may be permissible to at least justify a practice of the school without which needed reforms and improvements could hardly be possible.

Within the last twelve months there seems to have come into existence a general movement, having for its objective the curtailment of school expenses but bearing with it the concomitant result of retarding the development of necessary and progressive educational policies. Fathered by the Chamber

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of Commerce of the United States and furthered by State and local chambers of commerce, realty boards, bankers and insurance organizations, it is not to be underestimated as to its power and effectiveness. With the declared intention of reducing financial wastage, certain State legislatures have appointed committees for the elimination of the so-called "fads and frills" in the schools, among which is classified the trying-out of new methods of instruction.

While it is conceded that there has been much experimentation which has produced results of little real value, the great good accomplished by these attempts to improve educational practices far outweighs the economic loss in time and money due to those which have proved themselves futile.

On account of the fact that school expenditure is usually the largest item in the State and municipal budgets, attention is concentrated upon it as a place where retrenchment may take place. Unfortunately, the campaign now under way is fully understood neither by educators nor laymen. One of its most alarming aspects is a threatened reduction of the financial returns for teacher-service.

In addition to the lowering of the compulsory attendance age for school children, it is subtly reaching out for the elimination of permanent tenure and old-age pensions laws. All this tends to cheapen the cost of labor outside as well as inside the school, and reduces the so-called "burden of taxation" for those who are undeniably best able to bear it. It will have, if not halted, for its ultimate result, the return of the teaching profession to the status it held a few years ago, and from which it has emerged only through the self-sacrifice of its members and their devotion to high professional ideals. Teaching will then be entered in the category of unskilled labor and teachers will be reduced to a state of economic vassalage from which it will be nearly impossible for them to emancipate themselves.

If such a retrogressive policy is adopted by governmental bodies, the most vicious results will appear in the curtailment of the educational privileges of childhood, and education will then become a barren, unproductive thing to the pupils in our schools. The energetic desires of the young for a rich and full realization will be unappeased.

Youth must find itself; and if not through a healthy, sane, development by means of our educational institutions, then it will look to other agencies beyond the control of our best social forces for its satisfaction.

Where other institutions have been ineffective in the development of loyal, efficient citizens, the public school has been uniformly successful. It has been the agency which has given to the American youth that splendid conception of social justice, which alone has been a bulwark against the encroachments of special privilege, whether of capital or of labor, upon the rights of all the people. It has been the incubator for the production of an intelligent citizenry, the absence of which has been a conspicuous factor in the decay of many other National entities.

But no matter how splendid has been our achievement as teachers in the accomplishment of this piece of work, we are partially responsible for the perilous position in which the school and the teaching profession find them-

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selves. We have failed to maintain a consistent and convincing position in presenting to the public the demands which modern civilization makes upon the educational system. We have been extremely individualistic and divergent in our professional opinions. We have oftimes claimed too much for some proposed reforms and too little for others. We have not been frank in admitting that a certain amount of wastage is necessary if valuable experimentation is to be carried on. Our leaders in educational thought have often thrown an aura of mysticism around new educational theories.

This has been particularly true in respect to the introduction of the project method and the project problem among our implements for education. There has been great confusion of definition which perplexed those who have been trying to apply the method in the every-day work of the school. Recently, however, ideas have become clarified and some uniformity of definition has been arrived at.

The project method in itself has been quite fully developed. It carries with it the implication that two of the main objectives of the school are to inspire the pupils with a thirst for knowledge and to give them the ability to satisfy this desire. These are to be equally important with the accumulation of useful knowledge. But the form of organization of the educational material, by means of which the project method will operate, has not been quite fully determined. Shall the use of this method require a radical remodelling of the curricula now in use in the schools? Is it possible to utilize the present organization of the content of the various studies in such a manner as not to break up their inherent continuity and at the same time vitalize these subjects by relating them closely to needs which the pupil can understand and appreciate? These questions are open for serious consideration.

The construction of a course of study made up exclusively of a number of scientifically selected projects may be highly desirable, but at present it does not seem to be quite practical. A safer approach to the whole matter would seem to be to apply as far as possible the project method through the organization of certain large projects high in social proteids, which relate themselves readily to the present courses of study. This does not mean the introduction of a new subject into an extremely overcrowded curriculum. It is simply the application of a greater emphasis wherever the subject matter of the project is found within the established studies. There is no infringement upon the time usually devoted to the so-called regular subjects, nor is there a breaking down of highly organized subject matter within each study.

The knowledge to be secured by the pupils must be that recognized as possessing a comparatively fixed value for all time. This may be found through a study of the fundamental needs of mankind. The preservation of animal life, the communication of ideas, and the regulation of conduct, appear to have universality and permanency. Projects relating to the preservation of animal life mainly apply to the securing of food, clothing, and shelter. Those having to do with the communication of ideas find other fields, principally in music, literature, and art, and those classified

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under the regulation of conduct find their content not only in man's spiritual life, but in all his relations to his fellows. These groupings are not mutually exclusive but overlap in many cases.

The subject of food, clothing and shelter appear to connect up most closely with the established studies. Our school has completed two of these as term projects. The study of clothing the past semester developed naturally from the project of shelter studied previously, as clothing appeared to be a type of shelter.

Pupil initiative and originality played a large part in the election and development of the project. But due to the limitation of vision and the inability to organize their experience on the part of elementary school children, it was necessary that the teachers should skillfully guide the pupils' activities in channels which would lead toward the school's objective. However, many subordinate projects growing out of the major one originated entirely with the pupils.

As this was to be a school project, the desirability of the study was first presented to the school by one of the pupils. The purpose of the study was simply stated as an attempt to know more about an article necessary to our comfort and health and to give to the community ideas in respect to the best ways to dress.

As the study progressed, pupil representatives from each grade gave the school an idea of what every class hoped to contribute to the solution of the general problem. Thus we had a highly socialized project participated in by the whole school community but with smaller coherent groups devoting themselves to certain definite pieces of work essential to the realization of the broader purpose.

From time to time it was apparent that the project was vitalizing the regular studies. Points of contact were continually developing. History was particularly prolific. A review of the invention of the tools necessary to produce clothing related itself closely to the study of the development of civilization. The testing of textiles to determine their protective values found a place in the work in science. The building of hand looms and the operation of weaving were activities of the manual-training department. The designing and selection of clothes were studied by the classes in sewing. While problems relating to the cost of materials and the place the item of clothing should have in the family budget were considered in the arithmetic periods. Geography contributed a wealth of knowledge in respect to sources of material, transportation, industries and the dress of various peoples, suitable to climatic conditions; while classes in vocational civics made a more complete study of the occupations created for the satisfaction of this human need. Many valuable lessons in hygiene were taught through a consideration of the relation of dress to health.

As the work on this project progressed many outside agencies coöperated, such as the public library, the chamber of commerce and the various manufacturing plants producing articles of clothing. Visits to department stores and factories by individual pupils and classes seeking information had a

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reflex in the realization by those connected with these institutions that the school was intelligently participating in the community life.

To still further bring about a closer relationship between the school and the community, one of the broad objectives of the project was realized partly through an exhibition of the work of the pupils to which the adult population of the district was invited. At this exhibit, pupils representing the various classes explained the work of the school, and other pupils acted as models for the display of suitable clothing for boys and girls. Some of the clothing was made in the school, but a larger part of it was loaned and arranged by experts from New York studios. This exhibit impressed upon parents the fact that children could be dressed attractively, and, at the same time, sanely, and that the desire to imitate the standards of taste as directive forces to action, may be relied upon only when they are in harmony with intelligence.

A large community audience was reached also by means of the school paper which entered practically every home in the district. The publication of this paper motivated the English work. It stimulated keen competition in the drawing department in connection with the advertising posters and the cover designs. The twelve-year old pupil whose design for the cover was finally accepted, cut out the linoleum block for the printing classes whose job it was to print the paper. Upon its publication, the business manager and his salesmen secured sufficient financial returns to pay the cost of the paper's production, and to reduce the cost of maintaining the printing department as well. Thus the publishing of the *Press* itself was quite a definite project, creating appreciations, attitudes, and habits, functioning in a worth-while piece of work.

It is not claimed, however, that this school project utilized all the subjects of the curriculum or that it sustained an intense interest on the part of all of the pupils all of the time. What is maintained is that it interested some of the pupils most of the time, and that it inspired with a desire for knowledge the great majority of pupils all of the time. Neither is it intimated that all the activities of the school can be organized into projects, for there is much valuable activity and learning in life and in school that does not consist of planning and executing projects.

But it has been demonstrated that a school project creates a fresh and invigorating atmosphere in which to produce an interrelated and balanced course of study out of the typical assemblage of disassociated and almost independent subjects. School administrators have long been looking for some such process. The project method of teaching standing for a new concept in education, or rather for the synthesis of many concepts, offers the solution of the problem. The application of this theory to practice is the only operation now necessary to establish it among our educational forces, and the public elementary school possessing the natural facilities for trying it out is a legitimate place for such experimentation.

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SECRETARY'S MINUTES

OAKLAND MEETING

The business meeting of the Department of Elementary School Principals was held Thursday afternoon, July 5. It was called to order by President Worth McClure, who asked the secretary to read the following proposed amendments to the Constitution of the Department: *Article III, Section A*—"The officers of the Department shall be the President, three Vice-Presidents, the Secretary, the Treasurer, and the Executive Committee." *Article IV, Section C*—Strike out the word "majority" making the section read: "Two thirds of the members present in a regular session will be necessary to make the proposed amendment a part of the constitution." Moved by Miss Katherine D. Blake that the amendments to the Constitution of the Department be adopted as read. Carried.

The treasurer's report, showing a balance on hand of $2003.04, was read by the president in the absence of the treasurer. A motion was made by Miss Blake that report of the treasurer be adopted. Motion carried.

Mr. Anthony, chairman of the Nominating Committee, presented the following report and moved its adoption:—*President,* W. T. Longshore, Kansas City, Missouri; *First Vice-President,* Ide G. Sargeant, Paterson, New Jersey; *Second Vice-President,* Elizabeth Bates, Los Angeles, California; *Third Vice-President,* George A. Beers, Chicago, Illinois; *Secretary,* Mrs. Jessie M. Fink, Grand Rapids, Michigan; *Treasurer,* Courtland V. Davis, Norfolk, Virginia; *Executive Committee—1927,* Luise Krauss, San Francisco, California; *Executive Committee—1926,* Anna Laura Force, Denver, Colorado.

Mr. Pullman, of Birmingham, Alabama, moved to substitute the name of J. D. Williams, of Birmingham, Alabama, for that of Ide G. Sargeant, as first vice-president. Miss Blake nominated Mrs. Piexoto, of New York, for member of the executive committee, term expiring in 1926. Motion was made by Mr. Marsh, of California, that the secretary cast the ballot for the nominees for all offices as read excepting those for which nominations had been made from the floor. Carried. Balloting now took place, and J. D. Williams was elected first vice-president, and Anna Laura Force, member of the executive committee.

The officers for 1923-24 are as follows: *President,* W. T. Longshore, Kansas City, Missouri; *First Vice-President,* J. D. Williams, Birmingham, Alabama; *Second Vice-President,* Elizabeth Bates, Los Angeles, California; *Third Vice-President,* George A. Beers, Chicago, Illinois; *Secretary,* Mrs. Jessie M. Fink, Grand Rapids, Michigan; *Treasurer,* Courtland V. Davis, Norfolk, Virginia; *Executive Committee—1927,* Luise Krauss, San Francisco, California; *Executive Committee—1926,* Anna Laura Force, Denver, Colorado.

Miss Blake, of New York, moved to appoint a committee for the revision of the constitution of the department. Carried. Moved that the constitution as it now stands be printed in the first edition of the Bulletin. Carried.

A motion was made that a vote of thanks be given our retiring president for his able and efficient service. Carried. A similar motion was made thanking Mr. Bracken, editor of the Yearbook, for his great services to the cause. Carried. Mr. Anthony, of Pittsburgh, moved that Leonard Power, Worth McClure, and John L. Bracken, who are entering other lines of school work, be made honorary members of this department. Carried. Retiring President McClure thanked the officers and the editor of the Yearbook for their inspiring coöperation. He called attention to the fact that the department was devoted primarily to the problems peculiar to the elementary school principal and prophesied a continuance of its rapid growth so long as it remained true to this ideal. The newly elected President Longshore was

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then called to the chair and spoke of his sense of responsibility and devotion to the department. He bespoke the active help of every principal in increasing the membership rolls and in coöperative professional service.

Meeting adjourned.

JESSIE M. FINK,
Secretary

NOTE.—The addresses given at the first two sessions were based on articles in the Second Year Book, Bulletin of the Department of Elementary School Principals, Vol. II, No. 4, July, 1923. For addresses given at the joint session of the Department and the Department of Elementary Education, Friday afternoon, July 6, see the Department of Elementary Education, pages 643 to 651.

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Department of Higher Education

OFFICERS

President—CHARLES E. WEHLER, Vice-President, Hood College.....Frederick, Maryland
Secretary—WALTER R. SMITH, Professor of Educational Sociology, University of Kansas .....Lawrence, Kansas

TUESDAY AFTERNOON, JULY 3

CHARACTER AND SPIRITUAL IDEALS AS FUNDAMENTALS IN AMERICAN EDUCATION—Tully C. Knoles, President, College of the Pacific, San Jose, California.

WHAT CAN THE COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES DO TO ELEVATE THE MORAL TONE OF THE STUDENTS?—David Starr Jordan, President Emeritus, Stanford University, California.

WHAT CAN THE COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES DO TO ELEVATE THE MORAL TONE OF THE STUDENTS?

DAVID STARR JORDAN, PRESIDENT EMERITUS
STANFORD UNIVERSITY, CALIFORNIA

The bane of higher education is the desire to substitute system and drill for inspiration, to develop methods and standards in place of the contagion of intellect. " Colleges," says Emerson, " can only serve us when their purpose is not to drill, but to create, to bring every ray of varied genius to their hospitable halls—by their consumed influence to set the heart of youth in flame." In human life, there is no substitute for intelligence. There is no high type of morals not built or braced by intelligence, and it is for the promotion and shaping of intelligence that the university exists. It is a condition where every facility and every inducement should be given for the mind to shape itself.

The university as such does not give opinions, but means to form them. In its lower reaches an opinion is but a prejudice, and to those who receive opinion ready made it can never rise above that grade. A university aids the student to form solid opinions for himself, to train his mind to deal with nature, with books, and with humanity.

Though the trend of university education, on the whole, is toward sane and moral life, and though it can have no higher final end, it cannot pursue its result through any systematized machinery. " The rod behind the mirror," the reliance of certain households, has no place in the university. No system of rewards and punishments ever made men good or wise, and none is more futile than that of honors balanced against demerit marks. Enforced attendance at prayers or chapel or, for that matter, at anything else, fails to rouse

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the spiritual nature, and didactic teaching or paternal scolding is alike ineffective.

As love casts out fear, so enthusiasm casts out vulgarity, which is vice's initial step. The university man should rise above the cheap temptations which beset youth on every side, now tenfold more numerous than before war raised the lid under which society tried to confine vulgarity and folly. The foes the university man of today must meet are more subtle than those which center in jazz and bootlegging, as varied as his own relations to society. To meet these, the university should be a strong aid. It has about four roads to this end: the contagion of personality, the inspiration of intellect, the arousing of enthusiasm for intensive work, the devotion to helpfulness towards others. As for the first, to turn our youth towards righteousness we must show them how righteousness looks when it is lived; as to the second, a great teacher always leaves a great mark on every student with whom he comes in contact; as to the third, great investigators breed investigators—there is an intellectual heredity among scholars as well as a physical one, as every serious worker recognizes.

In an address ten years ago on "The making of a Darwin," I asserted that three things were necessary to this end: first, the right kind of germ-plasm, the hereditary stuff which determines high possibilities; second, contact with nature at first hand; and third, the presence of a sympathetic guide. In Darwin's case the material was of the best the centuries offer; in due time, also, the young naturalist wandered among the hills and fens of Cambridgeshire, collecting beetles and observing everything; and finally, as he said, he "walked with Henslow," the spirit of the great botanist kindling his own.

Almost every naturalist-teacher of the last generation, in such fashion, "walked" with Agassiz, and their students in turn "walked" with them. And these students did not choose such company to gain honor points, nor to better the record of their deportment.

As to the last, in Emerson's words: "Free should the scholar be—free and brave." Give him a message to speak to other men, and when he leaves your care you need fear for him neither the world nor the flesh nor the devil. It is said that the first movement towards foreign missions came from a group of boys at Williams College who met in a Berkshire County hayfield to discuss its possibility. When they knelt under the haystack in Williamstown they were not driven by fear of the college faculty.

The university can exert a tremendous influence for moral life, but only through the unflinching devotion of its members. And this influence must be exerted spontaneously, even unconsciously, by men alien to all forms of vulgarity and vice, and in thorough sympathy with the best in mind or morals in the idealism of youth.

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Department of Immigrant Education

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

Cleveland Meeting

OFFICERS

President—William C. Smith, Supervisor of Immigrant Education, State Education Department ..... Albany, New York
Vice-President—Ethel Richardson, Assistant State Superintendent in charge of Immigrant Education ..... Sacramento, California
Secretary—Marguerite H. Burnett, State Director of Immigrant Education, Wilmington, Delaware
Treasurer—Lillian P. Clark, State Education Department ..... Columbus, Ohio

A meeting of the Department of Immigrant Education of the National Education Association was held in conjunction with the meeting of the Department of Superintendence in Cleveland, Ohio, on February 26, 27, and 28, 1923. The program of this meeting was as follows:

FIRST SESSION—Monday, February 26, 1923

Superintendent William A. Davidson, Pittsburgh, Presiding

Interesting Immigrant Groups in Recruiting and Promoting Attendance—Marguerite H. Burnett, Delaware.
Organizing Immigrant Classes, Wherever and Whenever Possible—Charles M. Herlihy, Massachusetts.
What Three Cities are Doing:
Omaha—Ella Thorngate.
Rochester—Charles E. Finch.
Akron—Chester A. Graham.
The Limits of the Intermediate Course—Lillian P. Clark, Ohio.
The Limits of the Advanced Course—Morris E. Siegel, New York City.

SECOND SESSION—Tuesday, February 27, 1923

Superintendent Randall J. Condon, Cincinnati, Presiding

The Growth and Present Extent of Alienism and Adult Illiteracy in the United States—John L. Riley, Albany, N. Y.
What Coöperation is Desirable and Possible Between the Federal Government and the States in Immigrant Education?—Thomas E. Finegan, Commissioner of Education, Pennsylvania.
The Federal Naturalization Program—Raymond F. Crist, Commissioner of Naturalization, Washington, D. C.
Recommendations of Special Committee—John J. Mahoney, Massachusetts.
Discussion.
Citizenship Dinner—Hotel Cleveland, 6.00 P. M.—Raymond Moley, Cleveland, Presiding.
Citizenship Ideals—Speakers: E. C. Vermillion, Ohio; Dr. John H. Finley, *New York Times;* Rabbi A. H. Silver, Cleveland; John J. Mahoney, Massachusetts.

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THIRD SESSION—WEDNESDAY, FEBRUARY 28, 1923

H. Ross Ake, Chairman of Ohio State Advisory Committee, Presiding

A PERMANENT IMMIGRATION POLICY—W. W. Husband, Commissioner General of Immigration, Washington, D. C.

SOME ASPECTS OF THE UNIFORM NATURALIZATION LAWS—George A. Green, Director of the Citizens' Bureau, Cleveland.

The business session was held in the Council Chamber of the City Hall on Wednesday, February 28, at the close of the last session, William C. Smith, president of the Department of Immigrant Education of the National Education Association, presiding.

The first matter brought before the meeting was the qualifications for membership in the Department of Immigrant Education. After discussion, it was moved by Mr. Davis, of Pennsylvania, and seconded by Mr. Graham, of Ohio, that a committee of four be appointed by the chairman to draft a constitution including the qualifications for membership and rules and regulations necessary for conducting the Department, and submit this constitution for adoption at the Oakland meeting. The following committee was appointed: *Chairman*, John L. Riley, New York: Lillian P. Clark, Ohio; Ethel Richardson, California; and H. Ralph Davis, Pennsylvania.

Since no constitution had been adopted and no provision made for revenue to meet the expenses of the Department during the present year, it was moved by Mr. Deming, of Connecticut, and seconded by Mr. Davis, of Pennsylvania, that a membership fee of $1.00 be charged for the year 1922-1923, and to all those paying this fee the Secretary should send as soon as they could be compiled, copies of the proceedings of this meeting. This motion was carried.

The following resolutions were then presented to those present for consideration by the chairman, William C. Smith, of New York:

We are opposed to the registration of aliens because it is un-American and violates the responsibilities of the community and the State to care for its own welfare.

We reiterate the former declarations of this body as issued in Boston, and set up by the Inter-State Council on Immigrant Education in Atlantic City in February, 1920.

We, who are engaged in this field of labor, believe profoundly that citizenship training is an educational function, and should be in a Federal Department of Education.

We welcome the invitation of the Federal Bureau of Naturalization to cooperate with this Bureau in providing and promoting facilities in schools, factories, and homes in the preparation of candidates for naturalization.

We pledge this cooperation without in the slightest degree abdicating the fundamental and logical principle that it should be completely under the administration and supervision of public school authorities.

It was moved by Mr. Deming, of Connecticut, and seconded by Mr. Davis, of Pennsylvania, that the resolution opposing registration of aliens be eliminated and that before any action was taken by the Department of Immigrant Education on this matter, a committee be appointed to study the proposed plan of registration of aliens now before the country and to report upon it at the Oakland meeting. This motion was carried and the following committee appointed: *Chairman*, Robert C. Deming, Connecticut; Sarah Christy, Pennsylvania; Howard Bradstreet, Connecticut; Chester A. Graham, Ohio; and Marguerite H. Burnett, Delaware.

It was then moved by Mr. Bradstreet, of Connecticut, and seconded by Mr. Dugdale, of Ohio, that the resolution submitted reiterating the policies adopted in Atlantic City and Boston be adopted as read, with the elimination of that one affecting the registration of the alien. This motion was carried.

It was moved by Miss Clark, of Ohio, and seconded by Mr. Deming, of Connecticut, that a committee be appointed to nominate officers for the year 1923-1924. This motion was carried, but no committee was appointed by the chairman.

It was moved by Mr. Riley, of New York, and seconded by Mr. Davis, of Pennsylvania, that since the program of the Department of Immigrant Education was

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not included in the official program of the meeting of the Department of Superintendence, the president of this Department be instructed to confer with the president of the Department of Superintendence and make such arrangements as should be necessary to have it included in the program of the next meeting.

Upon a motion made by Mr. Deming and seconded by Mr. Graham, the meeting adjourned to meet in Oakland, California, on July 3, 4, and 5, 1923.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

SAN FRANCISCO MEETING

The second annual meeting of the Department of Immigrant Education of the National Education Association was held in San Francisco, California, on July 3, 4, and 5, 1923. The program of this meeting was as follows:

FIRST SESSION—TUESDAY AFTERNOON, JULY 3, 1923

HOW CAN CITIZENSHIP TRAINING BE MADE DYNAMIC?

Presiding: Will C. Wood, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, California

Orchestra or singing by some foreign group. Under direction of Mrs. Harriet Wilson, International Institute, Y. W. C. A., San Francisco.

WHAT IS A CITIZEN?—Arthur D. Dean, Teachers College, New York City.

PRACTICAL SUGGESTIONS FOR ORGANIZATION OF CITIZENSHIP CLASSES TO BRING ABOUT CITIZENS' PARTICIPATION—Frederick Woellner, University of California, Berkeley, California.

THE CITIZENSHIP OF THE FOREIGN-BORN WOMAN—Mrs. Helen Horvath, Principal, West Commerce School, Cleveland, Ohio.

GRAPHIC PRESENTATION OF CITIZENSHIP. One-act play by pupils of Oakland and Berkeley classes for foreign adults.

SECOND SESSION—WEDNESDAY NOON, JULY 4, 1923

ORGANIZED SUPERVISION

Presiding: Harry Shafer, Superintendent of Schools, Los Angeles

WHY STATE LEADERSHIP IS NEEDED FOR IMMIGRANT EDUCATION—E. C. Vermillion, Supervisor of Immigrant Education, State of Ohio.

TYPES OF STATE ORGANIZATION—Lillian Clark, Supervisor of Teacher Training Division of Americanization, State Department, Columbus, Ohio.

RELATION BETWEEN SCHOOLS AND OTHER SOCIAL AGENCIES—H. Ralph Davis, Regional Director, State Education Department, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania.

THE WORK OF CITY SUPERVISION—(a) Flora D. Smith, Director of Immigrant Education, Los Angeles City Schools; (b) D. L. Hennessey, Director of Immigrant Education, Berkeley, California; (c) Nina J. Beglinger, Supervisor of English to Foreigners, Detroit.

RURAL SUPERVISION—County supervision for promoting and directing Immigrant Education in the country schools—Mrs. Harriet Merrill, Supervisor, Fresno County, California.

THE RURAL SCHOOLS AS IMMIGRANT EDUCATION CENTERS—Marguerite H. Burnett, Director of Immigrant Education, Delaware.

CITIZENSHIP CEREMONIES—Mrs. Anne M. Godfrey, Educational Representative, Naturalization Service, U. S. Department of Labor.

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THIRD SESSION—THURSDAY AFTERNOON, JULY 5, 1923

THE AMERICAN PUBLIC SCHOOL AND OLD WORLD CULTURE

Presiding: H. B. Wilson, Superintendent of Schools, Berkeley, California.

Chorus of Mexican girls singing Mexican folksongs. Under the auspices of the Santa Barbara Music and Arts Association.

OLD WORLD VALUES IN AMERICA—WHAT TRAITS TEND TO RETARD AMERICANIZATION—Julius Drachsler, Professor Sociology, College of the City of New York.

WHAT THE FOREIGN-BORN BRINGS TO AMERICA—(a) For the Slavic groups: Mrs. A. Zelenke (Russian), Lecturer for University of California, Extension Division. (b) For the Mexican groups: Senor L. Garza Leal, Consul for Mexico, Los Angeles, California. (c) For the Japanese groups: S. Yoda, Consul General of Japan.

IMMIGRATION—H. P. Fairchild, New York University.

BUSINESS SESSION.

The business meeting was held on Thursday afternoon, July 5, at the close of the last session, with Miss Ethel Richardson, vice-president of the Department, presiding.

The minutes of the last meeting were read and adopted on a motion made by Miss Swain, of California, and seconded by Miss Clark, of Ohio.

The report of the Committee on By-Laws was called for. It was presented by Miss Clark, of Ohio, and was as follows:

The committee appointed by the President of the Department of Immigrant Education of the National Education Association in February, 1923, to draft a constitution for this Department, submits for your consideration the following:

BY-LAWS OF THE DEPARTMENT OF IMMIGRANT EDUCATION OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

ARTICLE I

OBJECTS

The objects of the Department of Immigrant Education shall be:

1. To promote the establishment of classes and schools wherein immigrants and other persons above the compulsory day-school age may learn to speak, read, and write the English language and prepare to become intelligent, loyal, and law-abiding citizens of the United States.
2. To promote such attitudes and activities through the medium of the public school and other agencies as will most expeditiously and most thoroughly Americanize the immigrant—and bring about unity of feeling and ideals among all the people of the United States, both native and foreign-born.
3. To work for the adequate training of teachers, supervisors, and directors to carry on this work.
4. To urge the appointment of State directors of immigrant education in all States.
5. To arrange a plan of coöperation between the various States and the Federal government whereby the State departments of education and the departments, bureaus, and councils of the Federal government which deal particularly with the education and naturalization of the immigrant may understand their respective functions and work in harmony and to one purpose.
6. To encourage adequate financial support and effective direction, supervision, and instruction in this field in all States in which the need exists.

ARTICLE II

MEMBERS

SECTION 1. Active members of the National Education Association who are engaged for full time or part time in the work of teaching, supervising, or administering adult education of students above the compulsory day school age in the use of the English language, in American history and government, or in preparation for naturalization, and all persons who are engaged in preparing persons to do this work, are entitled to become active members of the Department of Immigrant Education upon the payment of the annual fee of one dollar. Everyone who is interested in the education and assimilation of the immigrant will be welcomed to all meetings of the Department, but only active members may participate in the business of the Department.

SEC. 2. Members of the Department of Immigrant Education shall be entitled to receive a free copy of the proceedings when issued and will be entitled to such other consideration as may be decided upon by the Department.

ARTICLE III

OFFICERS

SECTION 1. The officers of the Department of Immigrant Education shall consist of a President, a Vice-President, a Secretary, and a Treasurer. They shall be elected annually at the last formal session of the Department to serve for one year, or until their successors are duly

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elected. No one shall be eligible to any office in the Department who is not an active member of the National Education Association, and no person shall hold the same office in the Department for more than two years in succession. These four officers shall constitute the Executive Committee.

SEC. 2. In case of the resignation or death of the President of the Department, the office shall be filled by the Vice-President. Any other vacancy in the Department shall be filled by appointment by the President of the Department.

SEC. 3. The Treasurer shall, on the first of each month, send to the Secretary of the National Education Association the amount received for dues during the preceding month. This is to be credited to the Department of Immigrant Education and added to the amount allowed the Department by the National Education Association for expenses. This money can be expended only for the Department of Immigrant Education and under its direction.

SEC. 4. The Executive Committee shall hold a meeting immediately following the last session of the annual meeting of the Department.

ARTICLE IV

ELECTION OF OFFICERS

SECTION 1. A committee on nominations shall be appointed by the President of the Department and notified in writing of their appointment to such committee at least three months prior to the date of the meeting at which their report is to be submitted.

SEC. 2. The Committee on Nominations shall consist of seven members of the Department, at least three of whom shall reside east and three west of the Mississippi River and no two of whom shall reside in the same State.

SEC. 3. The Committee on Nominations shall report at the annual meeting in which they shall present to the convention the name of at least one person for election to each of the four following offices: President, Vice-President, Secretary, and Treasurer. Additional nominations may be made from the floor.

SEC. 4. The election shall be by individual written ballot or by one ballot cast by the Secretary, as the members present shall decide.

ARTICLE V

MEETINGS AND SESSIONS

SECTION 1. The annual meeting of the Department shall be held at the same time and place as the annual meeting of the National Education Association. However, if not otherwise instructed at the annual meeting, the President may also arrange a meeting in connection with the Department of Superintendence if he thinks it advisable.

SEC. 2. Two regular sessions with formal programs shall be held at the annual meeting.

SEC. 3. In addition, an informal conference of State directors of immigrant education shall be held at the time of the annual convention, and the President of the Department is expected to make every effort to have a representative from every State in attendance at this conference. If a State does not have a State director of immigrant education, the President of the Department may invite some other public school official to attend from that State.

SEC. 4. At the annual convention, and at the mid-winter meeting if held, dinner discussions and exhibits may be arranged for, if the President of the Department thinks it advisable.

SEC. 5. No paper, lecture, nor address shall be read before the Department in the absence of the author, without the unanimous approval of the members present.

ARTICLE VI

PROGRAM

The program of the Department shall be prepared by the President after consultation with the President of the National Education Association, and it shall be arranged to conform with his ideas. The President of the Department shall also confer with the other officers of the Department.

ARTICLE VII

COMMITTEES

SECTION 1. A committee on nominations shall be appointed as provided for in Article IV of these by-laws.

SEC. 2. An auditing committee, to consist of three members of the Department, shall be appointed by the Department at the first session of the annual meeting, all nominations being made from the floor. No members of the Executive Committee shall be eligible for membership on the auditing committee. The auditing committee shall audit the books of the Treasurer and shall make a report to the Department.

SEC. 3. A committee on resolutions to consist of three members of the Department shall be appointed by the President at the first session of the annual meeting, and except by unanimous consent, all resolutions shall be referred to said committee without discussion. This committee shall receive and consider all resolutions proposed by active members, or referred to it by the President. Immediately at the close this first session, the committee on resolutions shall hold a meeting at a place to be announced by the President, for the purpose of receiving proposed resolutions and hearing those who may wish to advocate them. All resolutions shall be presented in written form.

SEC. 4. The President of the Department shall appoint all committees except when otherwise provided for by the by-laws or otherwise ordered by the Department.

SEC. 5. No committee shall be continued beyond the time of the meeting at which it was to report unless so ordered by the Department.

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ARTICLE VIII

AMENDMENTS

These by-laws may be amended at any annual meeting by a two thirds vote of those present and voting, provided a written notice of the proposed amendment or amendments has been presented to the members of the Department two weeks before such action is taken.

JOHN L. RILEY, New York
LILLIAN P. CLARK, Ohio
ETHEL RICHARDSON, California
H. RALPH DAVIS, Pennsylvania

On a motion made by Mrs Godfrey, of California, and seconded by Miss Merrill, of California, this report was accepted and the by-laws adopted as read.

The report of the Committee to Study the Plan for the Registration of Aliens was called for, and presented by Miss Burnett, of Delaware. It was as follows:

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON THE REGISTRATION OF ALIENS

The committee appointed by the Department of Immigrant Education of the National Education believes that one cannot compel good American citizenship. If anything must be compulsory it should be the furnishing of proper educational facilities.

Any plan for the compulsory registration of aliens involving a registration fee making it cheaper to be a citizen than to remain an alien—requiring of necessity an elaborate enforcement with Federal compelling agents and a complete follow-up system in order to be efficient—overwhelming our unprepared school systems with tens of thousands of aliens, and thrusting a priceless heritage upon those very possibly hostile to our government—would be unthinkable. All of these features are embodied in the Johnson Bill, a diagnosis of which, in detail, is attached.

This committee was not requested to report except upon the registration plan as now before the country. It believes that registration upon the basis of citizenship is impossible. As a last unavoidable alternative, it believes that registration might be possible, without sacrificing American ideals, if founded upon law and order, the initiative of the alien in the matter, and a time limit for American education. With this hint of constructive as well as destructive criticism we conclude our report.

ROBERT C. DEMING, Connecticut, *Chairman*
MARGUERITE H. BURNETT, Delaware
SARAH R. CHRISTY, Pennsylvania
HOWARD BRADSTREET, Connecticut
CHESTER A. GRAHAM, Ohio

THE REGISTRATION OF ALIENS

Shall this country have an autocratic or a democratic form of government? The plan to register aliens under compulsion would undermine our present ideals in this direction.

This country desires the highest type of citizen. Any plan is detrimental that compels citizenship or induces it by imposing a penalty upon remaining an alien. The registration plan now being proposed makes it cheaper to be a citizen, and in addition requires of necessity an elaborate enforcement and a complete system of espionage that is un-American. It must be that to amount to anything.

Citizenship is a natural growth, to be cultivated and not forced. It is comparable in many ways to religion. Education and assimilation alone can aid, friendship, not force.

The alien's choice of either education or deportation, or citizenship or deportation, is a most unfortunate one. The former is the lesser of the two evils.

Practically all people agree that the alien ought to be registered and educated in the fundamentals, but that he should be arbitrarily compelled to become a citizen for his own protection would degrade and destroy citizenship.

The following is a digest of present proposed Federal legislation:

The registration of aliens must be either a voluntary or a compulsory proposition. If *voluntary*, it will be absolutely useless; if *compulsory*, it will require a penalty for its violation and also an effective enforcement system. Being necessarily a Federal law, it would require compelling agents similar to those now used in enforcement of the Eighteenth Amendment.

If we concede that this problem requires a logical sequence of events, let us examine these as typified by the Johnson Bill (H. R. 10860) and by obviously an exponent of the registration idea. The purpose is to gain information as to how compulsory registration should function.

The Johnson Bill gives authority for the registration of aliens, and certain educational authority to the Bureau of Naturalization, U. S. Department of Labor. A director, to be appointed by the President, with the advice and consent of the Senate, and an assistant director to be appointed by the Secretary of Labor, shall both be under the supervision of the last named.

Who shall register?—Every individual over 18 years of age who is not a citizen of the United States or its possessions (unless a petition for naturalization is pending). Alien minors under 18 years of age are to be registered by their custodians. There are a few exceptions as in the case of World War veterans, American Indians, etc.

When—Each year during the 90-day period ending the first Tuesday after the first Monday in November.

How?—In person, to registrars appointed under bond (if desired) by the Secretary of Labor and whose compensation is to be fixed by him. Registrants must give all personal information and history and an identifying photograph. School teachers may serve without pay outside of the registration period.

Where?—Anywhere without rental being charged. In any federal building if requested by the Secretary of Labor, if not causing unreasonable interference.

Fees—$5.00 for any registrant over 21 years of age. Alien wives are exempt if registered by their husbands.

$3.00 for any registrant more than 18 and less than 21.

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Penalty—$25 per year per person to be forfeited in a civil suit brought by the U. S. Government.

Distribution of funds—After expenses have been deducted the money collected from registration shall be allocated by the government to any one district in proportion that the sum collected bears to the entire registration sum.

Conditional upon—A local equivalent appropriation for the ensuing year.

Using such money for the pay of teachers of citizenship classes.

A satisfactory maintenance of classes outside of public school buildings.

Educational authority granted—The Bureau of Naturalization shall promote the welfare of the foreign-born and administer a uniform rule of naturalization . . . . promote instruction in English and civics of all foreign-born attending citizenship classes . . . . disseminate information in all forms . . . . procure the coöperation of all organizations . . . . coöperate with public school authorities . . . . send names of candidates for citizenship to public school authorities . . . . publish manuals and text books.

On a motion made by Miss Flora Smith, of California, and seconded by Mr. Shafer, of California, this report was accepted.

The report of the Special Committee on Nominations was called for. It was presented by Miss Burnett, of Delaware, and was as follows:

The Special Committee on Nominations presents the names of the following persons for election to office in the Department of Immigrant Education for the year 1923-1924:

President: Charles M. Herlihy, Supervisor of Adult Alien Education for the State of Massachusetts, Boston, Massachusetts.

Vice-President: Flora D. Smith, Director of Immigrant Education, Los Angeles, California.

Secretary: Robert C. Deming, Director of Americanization for the State of Connecticut, Hartford, Connecticut.

Treasurer: Ella Thorngate, Supervisor of Americanization, Omaha, Nebraska.

MARGUERITE H. BURNETT, Delaware, *Chairman*
HARRY SHAFER, California
LILLIAN P. CLARK, Ohio

It was moved by Laura Wood, of California, and seconded by Miss Stearns, of California, that the report of the committee be accepted and the secretary be instructed to cast a ballot for the candidates as named by the committee and to declare them elected. This motion was passed unanimously.

The following resolution was then presented by Flora D. Smith, of California:

WHEREAS, The Department of Immigrant Education of the National Education Association has received from its Committee on the Study of Plans for the Registration of Aliens a complete analysis of the Plan for the Registration of Aliens as contained in the Johnson Bill, H. R. 10860, and is convinced that this plan of compulsory registration is opposed to the best interests of the American Nation; *be it resolved*, That this Department recommend that any method of compulsory registration adopted in the United States of America apply equally to native and foreign-born residents and that no penalty be imposed upon one group that is not imposed upon the other.

On a motion made by Miss Smith, of California, and seconded by Mr. F. H. Hennessy, of California, this resolution was adopted.

It was then moved by Miss Caldwell, of California, and seconded by Mrs. Godfrey, of California, that:

The Department of Labor be asked to grant a Proficiency Certificate to Declarants who have passed an examination in the presence of the Government inspector, but who are not eligible for the Federal Diplomas, such certificates to be good-looking and to be exchangeable for a Federal Diploma at such time as the Declarant becomes a Petitioner.

This motion was carried.

It was moved by Miss Burnett, of Delaware, and seconded by Mrs. Monroe, of California, that:

"a committee of supervisors, teachers, and directors be appointed by the President to work on such problems as their experience in the field of immigrant education has led them to believe will increase the efficiency of the teaching of adult immigrants, and to report the results of their studies at the next annual meeting."

This motion was carried.

It was moved by Miss Burnett, and seconded by Miss Stearns, of California, that:

"a committee be appointed by the President to prepare a report on Adult Immigrant Education which shall supplement and bring up-to-date the report on Elementary Education of non-English-Speaking Adults, 1919-1921, prepared by Miss Elizabeth Woodward, as Chairman of the Committee on the Education of the Immigrant, of the Commission on the Revision of Elementary Education, and distributed to delegates at this meeting of the Association, and that provision be made to print the revised report and distribute it at the next annual meeting of the Association."

This motion was carried.

With the passing of this motion, the business of the session was concluded, and the Vice-president declared the meeting adjourned.

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WHAT IS A CITIZEN?—ABSTRACT

ARTHUR D. DEAN, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY, NEW YORK CITY

The Constitution of the United States defines a citizen. A standard dictionary also does it. But it would not be much of a country if its citizens met only the terms laid down in the Constitution or only the words of a definition. A person who can mumble a few paragraphs of a document or write his name or read a sentence or take an oath has only a limited stock of tools and a mighty large promissory note on which to meet payment. One can only grow into citizenship. Quite contrary to established custom he cannot even be born into it. The man to whom it is sworn may not have it. The owner of the uplifted hand may never get it. I doubt if anyone can really point to anyone who has it in its fullest measure. Even Christ would have hesitated with becoming humility in stating that He was a perfect citizen. Most assuredly one would have to travel far in this country or any country to discover a perfectly good citizen. There are many near citizens.

One American president was in the habit of calling all those who did not agree with him "bad citizens." Almost all democrats are bad citizens to about all republicans.

What is a citizen? Take one topic—an economic citizen. He should be a self-supporting economic unit and a contributor to social welfare. He should understand modern economic conditions involving large scale production, division of labor, evolution of industry, social problems, wealth and poverty. He should be thrifty, should save and invest and be a contributor, not a debtor.

How about other topics? A social citizen, a fair-minded, religious citizen, a family citizen, a healthy citizen, a cultured citizen, and so on without end.

The public schools are trying hard to make good citizens. They find it a real job. The demands upon modern citizenship have gone beyond the Constitution and the dictionary. If the schools and colleges take sixteen years to graduate near citizens, how is it that many a person who never went to school has become an economic, a family, a social, and a religious citizen? The answer is that work, sobriety, savings, newspapers, unions, home, church, and many other factors contribute to citizenship training.

PRACTICAL SUGGESTIONS FOR THE ORGANIZATION OF CITIZENSHIP CLASSES TO BRING ABOUT CITIZEN'S PARTICIPATION—ABSTRACT

FREDERICK P. WOELLNER, LECTURER IN CIVIC EDUCATION
UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA, SOUTHERN BRANCH

A society as dynamic as ours requires every one of its members to keep in constant communication with the sources of light and of inspiration. The business man who fails to maintain an active interest in the social, political, and economic fields, soon finds himself out of touch with the times and out

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of favor with Bradstreet. The operator who perseveres in his indifference toward the perpetual changes taking place in his factory and his world soon finds himself in the great industrial scrap-heap of the human maladjusted. The farmer who shuts his eyes to modern invention and the stock exchange, never knows the thrill of a bumper-crop or a completely paid mortgage. The housewife who makes her home her world loses in the great struggle to keep up with the Joneses. In every walk of life, the general principle of keeping in communication with the great reservoirs of knowledge is being acted upon. The constant increase in the number, variety, and significance of changes in modern life is compelling every one to be something of a student or become a misfit. There never was a time when the Socratic theory was more potent—there is no virtue but knowledge; there is no vice but ignorance.

In spite of all this ancient philosophy, however, there are still two and a half million native adults in our country who are unable to read or to write any language. There are still twice that number of adult foreign born illiterates living here. These millions lack the most effective means for keeping in communication with the facts and logic of modern society. They are compelled to follow the most primitive methods in acquainting themselves with the world in which they live. They tend to become a real menace to the stability and progress of the State and to their own individual welfare. Only pusillanimous arguments are opposed to the demand that they be given every opportunity to come into their rightful inheritances through a mastery of the elementary tools of knowledge.

An adequate technique for teaching English to adults has been devised. A sufficient corps of teachers has been trained to eliminate this most elementary type of illiteracy. Thousands of classes for adults have been organized and initiated into the mysteries of the reading and writing arts. But the efforts in this direction have been too scattered and meagre. Too much has been left to the benevolency of small groups dominated by purposes extrinsic to the real demands of the situation.

The most practical suggestion one can offer in the field, is in the direction of an organization on a sufficiently inclusive plane to insure the absolute elimination of adult illiteracy. The isolated and purely benevolent efforts of small groups will always prove inadequate for complete success. The need can only be met by a State department, especially organized for this task and sufficiently equipped "to do a real job."

Every progressive tendency in social organization, not to mention any of the definite economic and political forces, recognized as wholesome potencies for individual and collective advancement, point to larger and larger units of integration. Centralization becomes increasingly inevitable. The recent plan of the governor of California, which would eliminate the State department of Americanization force is hopelessly reactionary, inadequate, and wasteful. There may be some reason for such action when a National department of education is established with a secretary in the President's cabinet. But today there can be no defense of any program which forces the State to abdicate in favor of smaller and less responsible agencies.

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The problem is not one of spending or saving but of spending in the direction of wholesome advancement or spending in the direction of corrective measures. It is always good economy to invest in sound preventatives. It is the moral aspects of the problem with which we are chiefly concerned. There can be no doubt as to the State's responsibility toward all of its citizens. The State becomes party to the dereliction of the illiterates when it refuses to provide them with ample opportunity for meeting their most elemental needs when it transfers its obligation to any other unsupervised agency.

Evidence is not lacking to make one believe that a Nation-wide reaction has set in against the more liberal forces in educational theory and practice. This reaction is not of popular origin nor has it won much popular support. The present challenge to progressive thought and action comes from those who have fought progress at every step. The most practical thing any Americanization worker can do is to mobilize the generous citizens to fight the forces of reaction and ignorance.

Wise and progressive citizenship requires a constant upgrading in popular reading. The citizen who confines his reading to the daily press, the six best sellers, or even a popular magazine or two is an illiterate who should challenge our pity, our interest, and our effort. Americanization workers are invited to this field of activity. What can they do to put every citizen on a forward-looking program of reading and thinking? Every community has effective organizations needing and frequently desiring direction. The often petty and always isolated efforts of the press, the church, the club, the correspondence schools, and like agencies prove inadequate to meet the situation. Tremendous State effort is required.

The most practical suggestion one can make to energize adult citizenship, concerns itself with the extension department of the State university. The State university is the official depository of an abundant supply of knowledge and inspiration. It should become the great disseminator of that knowledge through high-powered extension departments.

The University of California has an Extension Division, of which it is justly proud. In 1919 the Extension Division entered into its present period of development. Its primary function, as now conceived, is to assist adults in California, who, though unable to take up residence at the university, desire to carry on some kind of study that might appropriately be pursued by regular university students. Its work pertains properly to higher education, to the pursuit of knowledge. The aim is to make its teaching of university grade and character, otherwise it would duplicate the work of other educational agencies, such as the evening high schools. Instruction given to a large extent by members of the university faculties and supervised by the departments concerned is offered by correspondence and through extramural classes. Courses are so grouped and articulated that students may advance from one stage to another. The plan and purpose of the work is to enable students to lay hold on fundamentals, to gain broad and guiding principles, and to develop their mental powers. Extension lectures, whether delivered singly or in series, are regarded as means of suggestion and stimulation, opening up possibilities of intensive study. Visual illustrative materials, edu-

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cational motion pictures and stereopticon slides are circulated throughout the State to facilitate individual study.

State extension education for keeping all adults in communication with the sources of light and inspiration, required a considerable amount of social organization. Special leaders must be appointed to mobilize the energizing forces in each community to facilitate individual and collective advancement. Unnecessary duplication of effort must be avoided. The university lecturer must stand ready to do as little or as much as the situation demands. In any case, the fundamental educational policy must be pursued whereby the instructing agency gradually eliminates itself.

Three types of educational leaders are needed to make communities realize the value of providing effective means for adult education. The first type reminds one of the shock troops which go over the top and win the new territory for the cause. These men go into the community to make the press, the leading civic bodies, the teachers and the like, safe for the contemplated work. They give lectures, write editorials, prepare news items, and conduct conferences. They do everything in their power to win popular support and to arouse individual interest. They may even offer courses of the especially popular type. They are the men who sell the idea to the people.

The second type reminds one of the second line of defense. These men organize the territory that has been won and extend it wherever possible. These are real administrators. They "dig in" to strengthen their position. They lay the foundations for further effort. They provide more opportunities for study.

The third type of worker in this field is the technician, the highly developed specialist, who has a service to render but who is frequently a failure when not preceded by the other two. Our universities are not lacking in able men. Many of the able men in them have never thought of the civic value of "their line of goods." They have concerned themselves more with filling their shelves than in getting customers. They become democratic agencies, however, when a proper demand is developed for their stock. Many of them may be led to see their place in extension education when the average adult is led to appreciate their value.

No attempt need be made to make the conventional type of scholar of all our citizens. The conventional college course need not be offered, but one objective need be kept in mind—what can be done to put every citizen in communication with the facts and logic of modern life? How can every citizen be energized into the conscious guidance and control of his life? The method and content of every course must be determined by this objective.

The coöperatives, the home teachers, the foreign press, the trade union, local improvement leagues, little mothers' clubs, better housing associations are the most potent factors in the organization of a community for social and civic enterprises. These major associations of good citizens supply the purposes that should actuate citizens to seek higher and higher levels of good citizenship. Live purposes stimulate individual and collective activity. Live purposes create high sense of values. Citizenship classes are never wanting in number and in quality where live purposes abound.

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Americanization workers must cease to play with their job. They must seek deeper bases for their efforts. They must critically examine their efforts in the light of the most liberal interpretation of modern political and social life.

THE PLEA OF AN IMMIGRANT—ABSTRACT

MRS. HELEN HORVATH, WEST COMMERCE SCHOOL, CLEVELAND, OHIO

Dear friends, I am an immigrant, a stranger in a strange land. Forlorn, bewildered, lonely, wherever I look unknown scenes greet me. The people I do not understand; their tongue is strange to me. I come to this land of plenty in quest of happiness. I am your new neighbor, the immigrant. I need your sympathy and help.

I admire you, happy, buoyant, vivacious people of America. I envy you the chances you had in your childhood, I watch you, your manners, and your mode of life, as I want to know how Americans live, what Americans really are. You may think that on my arrival I am amazed at your sky-scrapers and wonderful machineries. True enough they are great, but what really interests me is the people.

Please notice me, take hold of me, lead me. I come open-hearted, willing to do what is right; show me the way and I'll follow. Don't let me drift away, swallowed up by the adverse currents of life. Try to protect me from my own inexperiences. Take me in as a member of your great and glorious family. *I want to belong.*

I bring to you my strong arms, my well-developed body, my desire for work, my love for big families, my devotion to God, and my thriftiness. Take hold of me at once while impressions are new. As one of your proverbs says, "As the twig is bent, the tree is inclined." I am the new material you need in the everlasting upbuilding of your Nation. I build your bridges and dig your ditches and help you with manual labor as well as with my mind. Hearken to me, dear people of America, and take me in as a member of your community. For I am the immigrant who comes to this country in quest of happiness.

With your kind permission, I shall relate to you my early experiences in this country while my Americanization was in full process. It will disclose to you the feelings of an immigrant on reaching the shore of America. We, almost all, more or less, feel the same sensation, have the same impressions.

I arrived in Cleveland the last Sunday morning of May, 1897, and my husband and I were asked to luncheon by a Hungarian family. The topic of our conversation on this first day was politics. Anxious to know something of your government, we were informed by our host that although Mr. McKinley was the nominal president, in reality, Mr. Mark Hanna, a Cleveland man, was the power behind the throne. That was our initiating information about American government.

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My first impression of Americans was that they are open-hearted, easy-going, carefree people, friendly to a certain extent and very happy. I liked that very much and hoped to have my share of this happiness. But during the very first week I found out that this country is the land of nicknames where the boys call each other "Freckles, Shorty, Fatty, Skinny," and they call the immigrants "Ginny." Many bitter fights were fought by our little adopted son and his schoolmates because of this much hated and resented name.

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But how teach true Americanism most effectively to the immigrant? By what process can we make an American of him in the shortest possible time. How convey to him the meaning of American ideals? The first step is that he who wants to teach him of these things must live up to the ideals and demonstrate them by his behavior, sympathy, and helpfulness. That is the only thing you can do for the immigrant as he has to work out his own adjustment, accomplish his own assimilation. By association we learn. Therefore show yourself and meet these newcomers half way. Probably your children's children and that scorned immigrant's children's children will assimilate by intermarriage. One never can tell. So the sooner you look upon him as a fellowman and not an outsider the better for all parties concerned.

Immigrants are just like plants. They suffer transplantation and their acclimation is very often a matter of doubt. But just as by the gentle care of the gardener, the plant which seemed to wither and droop slowly revives and flourishes in the new soil and climate, the immigrant with the aid of your sympathy and good-will, takes hold of the new life and grows to be a strong, useful, and appreciative citizen They do not need your pity. All they need is your kind understanding; give them the language, the knowledge of the law, and your own example.

A pathetic figure is the immigrant mother who is left behind through the rapid Americanization of her children. A child soon learns the American language and customs. He then considers himself superior to his mother, and does not wish to speak to her in her native tongue for fear that people will find out that he is a foreigner, never translates things to the satisfaction of his mother, calls her "the old woman," does not care for her cooking while her husband insists upon his accustomed old-country meals.

True Americanism, just like charity, should begin at home and could be carried out most effectively by the mother, who is the natural leader of her children. But how can she teach them American ways and customs if she does not know them herself? Therefore take care and teach the immigrant mother and you need not worry about the coming generation. As a rule, her ambition is to keep up with and take part in the enjoyment of her children, also to become independent. Do you know what that means? When you have to beg for somebody's help when you are in trouble and cannot explain or complain; always looking for an interpreter, for even your own children, no matter how well they speak the English language, will not translate to your satisfaction.

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The immigrant mother should learn not only to speak English, but should also learn the customs and laws of the country. But it is not advisable to insist upon giving up all old-country traits. She should keep what is good and contribute to the welfare of others. Every immigrant brings something from her native land that is worthy to be preserved.

The public library seems to be the ideal and fitting place for such classes where mothers could be taught English, home economics, and civics. And by the way, we in Cleveland call our Mothers' Classes, "English Club for Mothers." And inasmuch as it is fashionable to belong to a club nowadays, this in itself is an incentive to join. Immigrant mothers are interested in civics and to a certain extent in politics. Nearly all of them would like to take a hand in the "Government of the people, by the people, for the people" by casting their votes at election.

Our Nation's hope is in the children, in our coming generation. The mother is the natural leader of her child and her influence will be the greatest factor in molding the character of the child. If you want to keep up the standards of this country, you must help the immigrant mother find herself in her new environment. Here is a great mission work for real patriotic and humanitarian leaders. Associate with her. By your example, she will learn. But don't try to make her give up her individuality. Make her retain good habits. These dear women of many nations brings to us new strength, new blood, examples of endurance, tenacity of purpose. Befriend them, teach them.

WHY STATE LEADERSHIP IS NEEDED FOR IMMIGRANT EDUCATION—ABSTRACT

E. C. VERMILLION, SUPERVISOR OF IMMIGRANT EDUCATION, STATE OF OHIO

Technique is new—For years educators have been trying to develop and perfect a system of education suited to the needs of children in all conditions of life and children of all degrees of intelligence. It used to be a fairly simple matter when kinds of schools and courses of study were not so numerous. Gradually as the school has been made responsible for the health, hygiene, vocational education, recreation and so on of the child it has been necessary for those in charge of educational programs to devote their entire time to the problems of adjustment for the benefit of the child. When conditions arose which gave them the added responsibility of adult education, the whole question was so foreign to problems with which they were familiar that the actual work had to be entrusted to people who would experiment and learn by experience the things not to do. Many communities are still in that experimental stage. In order that the communities within the State may profit by such experience, leadership must of necessity be vested in a State agency. Many local school officials are quite ignorant of the method of organizing adult schools and the procedure to be followed. If there were not some agency to which to turn, hopeless blunders might be made.

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For a period of about eight years many so-called specialists in adult education have been experimenting. From these attempts to meet the problem, without question certain fundamental principles have been evolved. After consulting statistics on enrolment and weekly attendance the discrepancy is still so great that much is left to develop in the technique. The logical force to select the best in every community and every State and transmit it for the benefit of all pupils is the State leader.

The individuals who have been actively engaged in this field of work realize fully that specialized technique and training are necessary. Unfortunately the people to whom they are responsible have not always caught the vision. Consequently it is necessary to have some one to whom to turn for guidance, who at the same time has the authority and ability to reconstruct the viewpoint of local school officials.

Improper agencies—Until the time arrived when the question of Americanizing adults was recognized as being primarily a question of education, many agencies, principally the Y. M. C. A., tried to satisfy individual requests for assistance in learning English. No great advertising campaign was launched by any one organization, but in one way or another a comparatively small number of immigrants were assisted by one agency or another. With the impetus of the war it was conceded to be rather patriotic to Americanized foreigners. Practically every agency in the community appointed a committee on Americanization. Some of these agencies became very active, as in those industries where plant directors were employed and a large corps of teachers, also the Y. M. C. A., social settlements, women's clubs, patriotic organizations, certain individual churches, and religious organizations. It has been largely through State leadership that today we have coöperation between these agencies and that they have selected the thing they are best qualified to do. I wish I could picture for you the great change in the feelings of agencies toward each other and the enthusiasm to carry out their phase of the work. For example, through the State organization of the D. A. R. or the Federation of Women's Clubs it is possible to go into any community and know that a definite State program has been adopted with regard to the immigrant.

In communities where the local leaders have developed a practical and intensive program, all the various agencies have been brought into a cooperative plan for serving the foreign-born of the city. The success and progress of the work in such communities furnishes ample proof of what might be done in every community, however small.

Out of this experience has developed the fact that the educational work should be conducted by the local and State boards of education. Practically all industries have given the the responsibility for instruction in language and citizenship over to the local school authorities. While the Y. M. C. A. has a definite educational program, it has been doing it with the idea of pioneering in the field and then turning classes over to the board of education. The Y. W. C. A. limits its work to the assistance to foreign-born women. The patriotic organizations are sponsoring the receptions for new

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citizens. The women's clubs have arranged social gatherings where foreign-born and Americans may become better acquainted.

Vast number of educational units—In every State the need for adult immigrant education is not confined to a few large cities. In Ohio practically every city over 2500 has at least 150 foreign-born residents. Moreover, there are many rural districts which have a large foreign population in proportion to the number of American residents. This means that the education of the adult cannot be taken care of entirely by city boards of education, but must sometimes become a part of the program of the county superintendent. Since city and county superintendents are not responsible to the same boards of education and have no relationship to one another, even though their problems are sometimes closely related to each other, it is highly desirable to have a State leader, who, because of his position, is able to bring the two forces together for a special kind of work.

Even in communities of comparatively the same size industrial conditions vary so greatly that adjustments need to be made in programs which may have proved successful in one community, but would have failed in another. For example, in Akron most immigrants work in the rubber industry. They work on shifts, but these shifts change regularly and it is possible to arrange a schedule whereby pupils can conveniently attend classes. In Youngstown, East Youngstown, Massillon, and parts of Cleveland, the majority of the foreign-born residents work in the steel mills. Here the shifts are irregular, depending on the kind of work a man does. Some work eight hours, others ten and a half, others twelve hours, and frequently now, due to the shortage of labor, men work overtime. Naturally difficulties arise and it is quite difficult for a superintendent, who has had litle experience in this kind of work, to find out the best course to pursue.

State leadership rather than National leadership—It has been the policy of our National Government from the beginning to give to the separate States full power to manage the affairs which pertain to those States alone, reserving for itself questions which involved more than one State. As a result each State, entirely independently of the other, has developed its own educational system in accord with the local conditions. It has been demonstrated to our satisfaction that the regular educational forces are the logical agencies and those best equipped to carry on the work for immigrant education. Since the organization of the educational forces in each State is already set up, it is decidedly better to have the leadership for this special work in the State rather than in the Federal Government.

This does not mean that there is no place for the Federal Government in the education of the immigrant, for in my mind it has two definite pieces of work which only the Federal agencies can do. First of all, because of the migratory habits of many immigrants, the question of naturalization must be managed by an agency which can see that a uniform law is carried out all over the country. Today the separate States have too many laws discriminating between citizens and aliens, and immigrants cannot understand, *e. g.*, why they cannot fish in one State, hunt in another, own property

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in another, and so on. If the question of naturalization were left to the separate States few men would ever get papers. This question is a Federal one and must be administered in a uniform way. Secondly, the Federal Government has an opportunity to do in the States, that are unorganized, what the State leader does in new communities. One State cannot urge upon the other the value of a State program, the need for special training, the economy of the right kind of leadership. The Federal Government is in a position to do this and should devote much energy and time to it. In other words it should pave the way for State leadership and then relinquish all control when the goal has been attained.

Principles of good leadership—In order that adult education may be carried on successfully either as a community project or as a state policy, the leader must appreciate and understand a few fundamental principles.

First of all, he must recognize the size of the problem, not merely in regard to the actual number of foreign-born residents in his State, but also the various phases of every community's problem in order that the actual needs of the immigrant are satisfied, that he will really become an active and better citizen. He will be constantly confronted with arguments that there is not enough money to educate the children properly. The leader must continually keep in mind the vision of what his work is aiming to do, knowing that shortly something may happen in such communities which will prove that we are responsible for more than the education of a definite number of children inasmuch as these children are greatly influenced by the conditions of the parents.

Secondly, the good leader will recognize that this is a piece of educational work which should be carried on by the educational forces. In the last few years private individuals, who frequently exploited beyond measure their pupils and clients, religious organizations, industries, and private organizations have tried to do this work from an educational standpoint and their success has been meager. They did not realize that immigrants mistrust any agency which is not a public educational institution open to citizens and aliens alike.

Even though the teaching is done primarily by regular day school teachers, it must be recognized from the beginning that their equipment as day school teachers is not sufficient to qualify them for work with adults. No leader will get far if he does not require special training of his teachers and provide means whereby new teachers may be trained.

This leadership should be vested in an American. Foreign-born people are looking to Americans for their example of citizenship. They have many organizations, composed of people of their own nationality, and they meet socially with their own people. Therefore, they are anxious to have their educational work directed by Americans in order to become acquainted with American customs. They have so little opportunity to learn, to know, real Americans. Their whole environment is either predominantly foreign or else a mixture of foreign and the lowest type of American life. The average American censures the low standards of living of foreign people, not realiz-

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ing that the immigrant has almost no opportunity to learn about our standards as interpreted by Americans themselves. For this reason I am convinced that the work of educating the adult immigrant must be done largely by Americans.

This does not mean that the foreign-born are to be disregarded in the administration of any program. A good leader will recognize immediately that he will not accomplish much without the assistance of foreign-born men and women, who realize the value of education, who are good citizens and who have the respect and confidence of their fellow-countrymen. It might be possible to attract a limited number of pupils to a school and get good results, but for a successful community program the coöperation of the leading foreign-born residents is necessary. They can do so much to help form the opinion of approval toward the educational work, and through them it will be possible for the leader to understand better the groups with which he works, thus making it possible to enlarge the sphere of his work to include social, recreational, and civic activities.

TYPES OF STATE ORGANIZATION—ABSTRACT

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As immigrant education has passed through the various stages leading up to the time when it has become a definite part of the program of State departments of education, many experiments have been tried and innumerable opinions have been expressed.

In 1908, schools were established in the great labor camps in Pennsylvania with the aim of getting the men to petition the educational authorities to open schools "which are plainly functions of public education." As a result a law was passed in Pennsylvania authorizing school boards to establish and maintain schools upon petition of twenty applicants. Many cities maintained schools for immigrants long before they were authorized to do so by law—for example, in 1917 Boston made a report on evening schools after having conducted them for fifty years. Classes were carried on for twenty years in some cities in Ohio before the law of authorization was passed in 1921.

Finally through conferences, educational and industrial, the question of the education of the immigrant in the limited States was given over definitely to the educational forces. Just previous to this time or immediately following it, most States having a large immigrant population passed legislation providing for State direction in this field of work.

Out of this chaos of ideas and out of total disorganization, State leadership was provided to standardize the work of the various cities and establish a practical, workable program. Three types of State organization arose based on the amount of financial aid given communities by the State. In 1919, Massachusetts initiated the well-known 50-50 plan and many States have adopted a similar program. According to this plan a sum of money is appro-

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priated to maintain the State department and in each community the State pays fifty per cent of the cost of instruction. In Massachusetts this law is made more effective by the existence of two laws which have been on the statute books for many years, one to compel towns of 10,000 or more to maintain evening schools for pupils over the age of fourteen years, the other to compel illiterate minors from sixteen to twenty-one to attend evening school. The other States which have a program of State aid are New York, Connecticut, California, Rhode Island, New Jersey, South Dakota, North Dakota, Minnesota, New Hampshire.

New York—The New York law provides that free public night schools shall be maintained in cities and certain districts. Secondly, an amount equal to one half the salary paid to each teacher up to $1000 will be paid by the State to the community. Furthermore the literacy test for new voters which went into effect January 1, 1922, makes it compulsory for every new voter, whether just arriving at majority or just having been naturalized, to be able to read a fifty word passage from the State constitution in English and reproduce in writing ten words of the matter.

Connecticut—Fifty per cent of the local director's salary up to $3000 is paid by the State. There are twenty-three such directors and is paid per pupil in average attendance for seventy-five sessions.

California—The special classes for immigrants are on a high-school basis, and thereby are able to receive greater State imbursement. Each year a sum of $30 per high-school pupil is placed in a State high-school fund. From this fund a certain amount is apportioned to each high school district according to the number of persons in attendance in an evening high school. In addition the county pays a certain sum based on attendance, and furthermore, the district may give any additional amount for the support of special classes. This liberal policy makes it possible for California to have special supervisors in sixteen of the twenty-seven cities having classes, sixty-two full-time union high school directors and three county directors. There are four interesting laws in California. The county clerk must furnish the names of persons filing first and second papers to the superintendent of schools. On application of twenty-five such persons special citizenship classes shall be established. Penalty is exacted for failure to hold classes. The Home Teacher Act provides that a teacher may be employed for every five hundred children in attendance in a school district to teach in the home. Persons over 18 and under 21 who cannot read, write, and speak English are required to attend two sessions a week. In the recent session of the legislature a law was passed so making it compulsory for boards of education on application of pupils to provide classes for pupils over 21 who do not speak, read, or write English. These classes are to be held at least two times a week for a two-hour period.

In Massachusetts, New York, Connecticut, California, and Rhode Island, there is a special director in charge of immigrant education under the State department of education. In Massachusetts the State director has two assistants, who are in charge of certain phases of the program such as factory and home classes, citizenship, teacher training, and finances. In Connecticut the director has one assistant, a field worker. In New York, in addition to

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the supervisor, there are six regional directors, who at the same time, have charge of such matters as certification and administration plans, women's work, factory classes and teacher training, rural work, literacy test, and statistics. California has an assistant superintendent in charge of immigrant education and the special aid of a member of the faculty of the University of California who is employed to go about the State training teachers.

The other States which have State aid have a much smaller organization and the supervisor in charge has other duties to perform quite apart from immigrant education. In North Dakota the slogan "No Illiteracy in North Dakota in 1924" has been adopted and plans are being made to work through county agencies. In South Dakota the compulsory attendance of minors who cannot speak, read, and write English is provided for and machinery for *enforcing* the law is set up. In New Hampshire there is no special State aid but regular reimbursement is allowed for teachers' salaries in towns eligible for general State aid.

The second type of organization is found in Delaware, where the State pays the entire expense with a staff of four State workers. There is a director, and assistant in charge of community Americanization and home teaching, a secretary, and a full-time field worker, all of whom are assigned to certain phases of work.

The third kind of program is found in Pennsylvania and Ohio, where an appropriation is made to maintain a State department for the purposes of training teachers, but the burden of expense of operation is borne by the community. The entire responsibility rests with the town or city where the problem exists. It is conceded that the past development and the future growth of any particular community involves the type of people who constitute the population and therefore the community is directly responsible for the education of its constituents. In Pennsylvania there is a State staff of six who are assigned to certain zones or districts, while one is in charge of teacher training in addition to the supervision of a district. In Ohio the law provided for a supervisor, an assistant, and a supervisor of teacher training. Because of the financial status of practically every city in Ohio; it was necessary, in order to maintain schools at all, to charge a tuition fee in all except two cities. Only Ohio, New Hampshire, and Minnesota have a provision in the law to charge a fee. In New Hampshire illiterates are not charged. In Minnesota pupils under 21 are not subject to tuition. In Ohio the attendance is equally as good, and better in some cases, with the exception of New York State, if New York City is included, than the attendance in States where no tuition is charged. Furthermore the average daily attendance is more stable. Communities are so satisfied with the results that the tuition has come to stay as long as evening schools are maintained.

With the organizations as outlined above, the various States have made great progress along definite lines. All States except New Hampshire, New Jersey, North Dakota, and South Dakota have special training courses for teachers. The courses vary in length from two weeks of intensive instruction comprising forty hours of work to six weeks devoting thirty hours to method, racial backgrounds, and government each. In each case the courses are

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designed to meet the State requirements for certification. The qualifications for teachers seem to vary widely. In most cases the teachers who hold day-school certificates seemed to be the favored ones, especially if they do only part-time work. If added to that training the teacher has taken a special course she becomes firmly entrenched in the system. For the full-time worker who is not a regular teacher the requirements are very rigid. They are probably most strict in California where six units of university credit are required consisting of thirty hours of methods, thirty hours of racial backgrounds, thirty hours of American institutions with a possible sixty hours of practice teaching. In order to get a certificate, in addition to this training, teachers must have an A. B. degree or two years of normal plus four years of teaching or social service.

Most training courses are conducted in the summer sessions of the State normal schools, State universities, or other large universities. In New York State this year courses are being given at Albany, Buffalo, Oswego, Plattsburg, Rochester, Syracuse, and New York. In Connecticut courses are given at Yale University. In Massachusetts courses are given at Harvard and Hyannis. California conducts courses at Berkeley, Los Angeles, San Francisco, and San Jose. Extension courses are given during the winter also. Massachusetts reaches teachers for whom it is impossible to attend any regular courses by having a correspondence course consisting of eight lessons, and a special certificate is granted when the course is completed.

It is interesting to note whether the attendance has increased or decreased. Delaware showed an increase of about 62; New Jersey of 1231; New York of 12,006; North Dakota of 1000; Minnesota showed a marked increase; Massachusetts, 3000; California, about 6000. Three States showed a decrease, South Dakota, Connecticut, and Pennsylvania. Ohio reached about the same number this year as formerly.

In spite of the fact that we teach our students that the representatives we send to the General Assembly represent public opinion, the programs of economy practiced by them in several States this year are far from the true sentiment of those who know what has been accomplished in immigrant education. The State directors report that the general attitude of the public is "enthusiastic," "excellent," "steady sustained interest," "acceptance as necessary part of educational program." One State reports "full legislative support," which is rather extraordinary. In the States where the most drastic measures of economy are to be effected, organizations of every sort have denounced the curtailment of this special work and have petitioned the "powers that be" for a reconsideration and more liberal decision.

The greater number of pupils attending evening schools are men. There is no question of the permanency of these classes. They are firmly established. Now that women are required to acquire their citizenship papers independently of their husbands, it has become important to reach the women in the home. Massachusetts reports 150 home classes with an enrolment of 1000 women. Connecticut has 50 classes with the number growing each week. Delaware considers that its greatest progress has been made with mothers in

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home classes. Special classes for women were carried on in 14 Ohio cities, 60 classes being conducted in Akron alone. In California the full-time worker is able to reach a great many women individually and in classes, approximately between 4000 and 5000 last year.

RELATION BETWEEN SCHOOLS AND OTHER SOCIAL AGENCIES—ABSTRACT

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In considering primary education of any type, I believe it to be sound doctrine that there is but one agency qualified to carry on the educational function of preparation for citizenship. I believe, further, that the only logical reason for the American system of general public education lies in the preparation for citizenship given by and through the schools. I believe it to be axiomatic that the basis for our form of government is universal education and that the only practical and efficient agency for universal education is the public school.

Accepting this promise then, the relation between schools and other social agencies in the field of immigrant education must be on a basis of cordial coöperation, the schools undertaking to perform the educational function which is their duty and all other social agencies undertaking to work through the schools toward a better and broader realization of constructive participation on the part of the immigrant in the privileges and duties of American citizenship.

The field of coöperative effort, therefore, in which social agencies, other than the schools, which I shall hereafter call outside agencies, may best find their niche in any program of immigrant education, can be roughly divided into the following general divisions, each of which will later be discussed in detail: financial assistance, where the school board does not have sufficient funds for effective operation, recruiting, advertising, organization, follow-up work, citizenship exercises, home visiting, and home or neighborhood class organization, information service, acting as liason between the schools and industrial or mercantile plants employing foreign born; and finally, in developing and directing public opinion toward a program of immigrant education.

In financial coöperation the function of the outside social agency is to step in only when needed to secure necessary funds with which the public school may defray the expenses incident to a comprehensive program of immigrant education. The funds so raised should be dispensed through the local board of education in order to continue direct supervision and control of the teaching activities within the public school. They can be solicited from any interested sources and should be turned over to the Board of Education with the stipulation that they be expended only for the maintenance of classes for

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foreign-born. Stress must also be laid on the absolute necessity for well-equipped teaching staffs if efficient service is to be rendered in bringing the foreign-born resident to the standard of American citizenship. Except in very rare instances this specialized training is available only through courses of instruction established for the purpose.

In suggesting that outside agencies recruit for classes conducted by the public schools, I have in mind that the schools are fulfilling their entire function when they announce their readiness to furnish facilities and instruction to those who come to them. The schools cannot properly be expected to recruit. This part of the work must be done by some other interested agency and can be carried on in a number of ways. I shall merely mention a few of our activities in Pittsburgh, through which we succeeded in raising the number enrolled in our evening school Americanization or immigrant education classes more than fifty per cent, in a period of less than four months. The Americanization Bureau of the Chamber of Commerce of Pittsburgh carried on and directed this activity. The entire city was divided into six zones or districts, selected because of the large number of foreign born residing in them. Each zone was placed in charge of a trained attendance-worker who was assigned to two or three schools within the zone and complete accord and coöperation was established between this worker and the principal of each school. Volunteer workers were also secured from the women's clubs of the city and assigned to zones in closest proximity to their homes. These volunteers were placed under the supervision and direction of the zone worker for training. All foreign-born families were then visited at regular intervals during the school year and the members of the families were invited to utilize the facilities furnished by the schools. The workers were instructed, however, to do no more than extend a most cordial invitation to join the classes, but at the same time, to explain the advantages to be gained by the foreign born through a knowledge of the language of America. These attendance workers found many instances where assistance was needed in matters other than education, and in such cases help was always freely given if possible as a means toward gaining the confidence of the people with whom they were working because, without this confidence their efforts would have been futile. This activity of recruiting into the classes conducted by the public schools is an integral and important part of every activity carried on by any outside agency in Pittsburgh.

When the problem of advertising school Americanization classes is considered, the best advertising agency available is the satisfied and progressive member of the class. Other means of advertising may be utilized, however, with most beneficial results. Here again the schools cannot properly be expected to function and the burden devolves upon interested and coöperative outside social agencies. We found the foreign language press the best medium for reaching the foreign born in Pittsburgh to bring to them news concerning the classes operated by the public schools and this agency responded most heartily to every request for coöperation. Many of them carried free advertisements in every issue, advising their readers to take advantage of the facilities for acquiring a knowledge of our language

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and customs, and listing the schools where such instruction was to be had. Organizations and societies composed of foreign born themselves also proved effective in spreading information. The Americanization Bureau of the Chamber of Commerce printed and distributed through the mills, mines, factories, and other industrial establishments over two thousand posters and forty thousand envelope stuffers, printed in eight languages, giving reasons for attendance at school and the time and places of meeting of the school classes. In addition, every social worker whose field of activity lay with the foreign born became a walking and enthusiastic oral advertisement of the schools.

In organizing what is known as "the vestibule class" the outside agency in Pittsburgh finds one of its most fertile fields. These classes are under the supervision of the Board of Education and are instructed by teachers furnished by the board but are held outside of school buildings. They are located in industrial plants, hotels, stores, churches, or in any conveniently located hall or room which can be utilized as a schoolroom. The outside agencies not only organize these classes, but conduct them until they acquire the minimum enrolment set by the Board of Education, when they are turned over to the board.

Included in the duties of the zone workers is that of following up the attendance of classes conducted in the schools in their districts. Whenever a student is absent more than three consecutive sessions his name is handed to the attendance worker who is instructed to immediately call at the home or place of employment of the absentee to ascertain the reason for the absence and if possible persuade the student to resume his studies. We believe that it is just as important, if not more so, to retain our old students as it is to secure new enrolment.

In conducting citizenship exercises the local United States Naturalization Office, the public schools, and the Chamber of Commerce Americanization Committee have coöperated in presenting diplomas and certificates of citizenship on Washington's birthday each year to those who have both completed the course prescribed by the schools and who have, during the year, received their final citizenship papers. To this event all the friends and relatives of the graduates are invited and the social agencies interested do all in their power to welcome the new citizens and to clothe American citizenship with dignity. This activity has had a very salutory effect in inducing applicants for citizenship to attend special citizenship classes.

Home visiting and home-class organization have been undertaken in Pittsburgh by organizations such as the International Institute and the women's clubs. The International Institute uses trained language workers almost exclusively but the other women's organizations of the city provide volunteers who receive their training in special classes or who are placed under the instruction and supervision of the zone worker and who, from these attendance workers, receive experience and training before they are assigned to operate by themselves. There are very few except trained workers operating in our city today. The function of those workers is to visit the homes of the foreign born to interest the women in obtaining at least a rudi-

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mentary knowledge of our language and customs. This has become especially important in view of the recent amendment to the Constitution, enfranchising women, and the law requiring separate naturalization of husband and wife.

Information and service to immigrants is furnished through three centers, located in districts of Pittsburgh, populated largely by foreign born. In these centers matters relating to naturalization, immigration, passports, foreign exchange, legal advice, and other questions of importance to the foreign-born resident are explained and assistance is given without charge. Classes are held in rooms supplied and equipped by the Chamber of Commerce, the classes being instructed by teachers sent from the Board of Education. Both afternoon and evening classes are held to reach those men who are employed at night and cannot attend the regular night school classes. The public library has also installed in the main center a branch library which was visited by over 32,000 foreign-born persons during last year. A special naturalization center has been installed in the corridor of the United States Naturalization Office for assisting declarants and applicants for citizenship in properly filling out and filing their papers. Other types of cases are also handled in this center, however, if request is made.

Liason between the schools and the industries has been established by the zone workers with the result that many of the larger factories in Pittsburgh now have schools of their workman instructed by teachers sent by the Board of Education. Similar classes have also been inaugurated in large commercial establishments and in hotels. Where an industry cannot support a class within the plant the employees of the plant who are enrolled in public school classes are checked and their attendance and class standing are reported to the superintendent or foreman. The coöperation of the mills and the stores with the public schools has thus been secured for the mutual benefit of both in immigrant education.

Public opinion in Pittsburgh has not yet been crystallized to support Americanization or immigrant education activity. The general public seems to be apathetic or indifferent both to the need for such work and to the effects which are being made to meet the need, but plans are now being formulated for a campaign of publicity which should stir up a large amount of popular interest. The outside social agency can do much to arouse public opinion which will support the school board which is making an attempt to meet the existing need or to force the board to make such an attempt where such pressure is needed.

In closing I wish to appeal for closer coöperation between outside social agencies and the public schools in an earnest and sincere effort to solve the problem of the assimilation of the immigrant into American-life conditions with the least possible wastage. Let this coöperative effort recognize a distinct demarkation of function between the schools and other social agencies, each doing its task to the best of its ability, and, with the cordial recognition of the common goal of a better America through better individual Americans, let each work in accord and harmony with all.

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THE WORK OF CITY SUPERVISION—ABSTRACT

FLORA D. SMITH, DIRECTOR OF IMMIGRANT EDUCATION, LOS ANGELES CITY SCHOOLS, LOS ANGELES, CALIFORNIA

In order to understand the needs of Los Angeles, I want to give you the following figures. Los Angeles had a population of 576,673, according to the census of 1920. Of that number, 126,196, or 22 per cent were foreign-born: the Mexicans leading with 21,500; Japanese, second with 11,500; Russian, 9,500; and Italians, 8,000. Before leaving to attend the meeting of the National Education Association, I phoned the library (not the Chamber of Commerce) to get the estimated population of 1923. 666,853 was given, an increase of about 90,000.

In 1916, it was found necessary to appoint a supervisor who could devote her entire time to the organization and supervision of the work of the Department of Immigrant Education. During the last year, an assistant has been appointed. She is devoting her time to the supervision of instruction, preparing, with the coöperation of the teachers, lesson plans, leaflets, and the like.

The Los Angeles Department of Immigrant Education has three lines of work: Evening classes; day classes, organized by the home and Americanization teachers; and foreign opportunity classes for non-English speaking pupils who cannot be assigned to regular grades because of their language handicap. During the year 1921-22, the enrolment in the evening classes was 12,000 in round numbers, and 3,000 women were enrolled in day classes. Los Angeles has a Department of Naturalization, hence the figures quoted do not include the enrolment in citizenship classes.

You may be interested in knowing that Los Angeles has forty-two full-time home teachers, and eight full-time Americanization teachers. Home and Americanization teachers take the same examinations, hold the same certification as the regular elementary teacher. They are a carefully selected group of teachers, "hand-picked" as it were. Evening school teachers were changed last year from the elementary salary schedule to the secondary salary schedule. This change makes it necessary for teachers to hold higher certification in order to draw secondary salaries, consequently extra preparation is required, raising the teaching standards very materially.

There should be leadership in the study of professional problems confronting the teachers of the non-English speaking child and adult; the mastery of the skills of teaching, the technique of teaching the students to speak, read, and write English. Why do I stress this point first? Because it is so necessary that we conserve the time and energy of our students. Many come to us weary and exhausted after the day's work. When I see the men working in the streets, in the hot sun, on hot pavements, and then meet these same men in the evening classes, then I am again convinced that this is a very important matter. I do not wish to be misunderstood that, in teaching an individual to speak, read and write, he or she will automatically become a good citizen. As a night school man said in my presence, "Knowing the English language we are only partly Americanized or only one fraction Americanized." Another student, speaking of her teacher, said, "She is not teaching us just

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to read and write, and how to talk, but she teaches me how to live and what to think about. Sometimes after the two hours in school, I can think and talk a whole day afterward."

It is necessary that there be a common language, and how can we hope to teach these newcomers a love and reverence for our institutions and ideals if they can not learn of our history from the printed page? I hope that when we study our heroes we shall be courteous enough to study the heroes of the different race groups with which we are working. A class in Los Angeles was reading about our beloved Abraham Lincoln, when a Mexican said, "We have an Abraham Lincoln—Benito Juarez." The teacher wisely stopped the lesson and gave the student an opportunity to tell of the Mexican hero. Miss Lee, the assistant in our department, afterward wrote a beautiful story of Juarez. When it was read to a foreign group, a Mexican girl said with tears in her eyes, "I didn't know Americans cared for our great men."

Leadership in our work should make participation possible for the strangers who have come to live with us—participation in the life of the community in which they live, a feeling that "they belong." How to accomplish this? To suggest definite programs would place one in the category of a quack doctor. It is a matter that requires the most careful diagnosis, communities differ so widely. Some can be reached through community sings, the movies, others through drama clubs, debating societies, arts and crafts exhibits, æsthetic dancing, folk games and songs, trying always to interest the family as a group, not social activities which interest only the young people and the partents see, with many misgivings and heartaches, old traditions broken down.

Let us have these foreign-born friends feel that their coming to live with us, their new citizenship is not a divorce, a renouncing of old-world traditions and heritages. There is a place for the love of their native country. An immigrant has been Americanized only when his mind and will have united with the mind and will of the American so that the two act and think together. May our leadership make it possible for foreign and native-born to "act and think" together in the land we love, America!

ADMINISTRATION OF CITY SUPERVISION IN WORK WITH THE FOREIGN BORN—ABSTRACT

NINA J. BEGLINGER, SUPERVISOR OF ENGLISH TO FOREIGNERS, DETROIT

Needs of the foreign born do not confine themselves to education alone. They are three-fold in nature: Their physical needs; their intellectual needs, and their spiritual needs.

No socially organized situation lends itself so completely to a unit of service as does city life, where society is so organized as to meet the general problems of the immigrant in health, in social contacts, in labor, in education, and, in a large degree, in cultural and ethical problems. Dangers

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lurk in all these fields, however, and exploitation is possible, but our faith in the sincerity of the workers minimizes this danger.

The subject assigned to me is the educational need of the immigrant, and I shall touch upon the problem as we find it in Detroit, and the solution as found in the administration of classes, and instruction. This will be indicative of the problem in the entire State.

Detroit's raw material is, roughly speaking, about 289,000 foreign born; approximately 264,000 are over the age of twenty-one years, and 38.2 per cent of these are naturalized with about 45 per cent declarants. Of this number 10,485 adults were enrolled in classes for the foreign born during the past year. Of these, 7432 were men, 3053 were women. Sixty-eight of every hundred persons who enrolled were still in attendance despite change of residence or economic condition at the end of the term.

Administration of supervision in Detroit covers two fields, administration proper covering budgets, overhead, organization of classes, hiring and firing, registration, and reports of all types pertaining to the situations mentioned. The following types of work are carried on: (1) Classes for adults three nights a week; (2) afternoon factory classes in situations not easily accessible to school buildings, and classes or centers for men or women working on night shifts; (3) afternoon classes for women; (4) special rooms for foreign children; and (5) citizenship classes for those desiring specialized instruction with a view to getting second papers. No student can be enrolled in this last group who has no command of the English language.

Situations are of two types—organized centers in school buildings or other places approved by the Board of Education, and single classes so distributed as to meet individual situations or problems.

The personnel of the teaching force is provided from two groups: (1) Day school teachers, and (2) a special group having equal credentials but withdrawn from full-time activity in teaching day schools, both groups specialized according to requirements specified later under Administration of Instruction.

The Detroit Board of Education has the coöperation of almost every organization in the city which has contacts with the foreign born, as well as special aid from: (1) The Americanization Committee of Detroit, made up of interested editors of foreign papers and racial leaders, lawyers and professional men, and headed by the Superintendent of Schools; and (2) the Detroit Council on Immigrant Education, made up of the executive head and Americanization chairman of 15 local organizations in active work with the foreign born other than strictly educational activities.

Michigan has a State Council on Immigrant Education and it is organized upon the same plan as the Detroit council and was the outgrowth of the successful achievement which resulted from Detroit's organization. The chief work of these groups lies in the field of uniting groups and clarifying situations, having to do with the foreign-born, and in supporting constructive legislation and opposing obnoxious legislation in this field. During last year they fostered an Adult Educational Bill in the Legislature of the State of Michigan and the bill found but one opposing vote in

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the House and none in the Senate, although two years ago the same bill was overwhelmingly defeated in the House. Detroit's problem of racial distribution does not differ widely from that found in a number of cities. Of the total population, nearly 72 per cent are foreign born or the children of foreign born, but only an approximately small part of this number is an acute problem. Of our 10,485 adults in classes, 17 per cent are Jewish, 15 per cent Polish, 13 per cent Italians, with Hungarians, Slavs, Greeks, Armenians, Ukrainians, Mexicans, and others in diminishing percentages.

In opening schools, large, new schools are selected in preference to dingy buildings on back streets. Nine of our Americanization schools are in high-school buildings, seven in elementary buildings, and other centers are housed in parochial schools, churches, settlement-houses, clubs, factories, hotels, and in the city prison.

The instructional cost this past year was nine cents per student hour. Our teacher pay schedule ranged from $1.70 to $2.10 per hour according to experience and special merit, and the total budget was about $75,000.00.

Administration of instruction is in charge of the Supervisor of English to Foreigners and divides itself into three activities: Research, teacher training, and instruction proper.

The city, as no other situation, lends itself to research in the field of English instruction to the foreign born because of sufficient numbers being available in a convenient area to make experimentation data authentic. I believe that the city should be made the laboratory for the determining of *basic* laws in instruction, that may be applied to each and every situation in which language is taught to the average group having the usual equipment of eyes, ears, hands, and voices.

Among types of study and research undertaken in Detroit the last two years are three studies of vocabulary content necessary to general situations, social and economic, two studies of instructional methods confined to drills and the acquisition of skill in language, one study to determine the comparative value of devices in developing oral fluency, and one study of individual student achievement of children. All these have been completed. A study of student achievements in the case of adults is under way.

Administration of instruction includes teacher training and Detroit Teachers College offers the following courses in connection with degree credit:

1. Methods in Teaching Foreign Adults—1½ hours credit. 2. Methods in Teaching Foreign Children—1½ hours credit. 3. Racial Psychology—3 hours credit. 4. Administration and General Welfare Work—3 hours credit. 5. Experimentation—3 hours credit. 6. Diagnosis—3 hours credit. 7. Observation—1½ hours credit. 8. Practice Teaching—3 hours credit.

Credits in methods of teaching English to adults, racial study, observation, and practice teaching are required for appointment in Detroit for work with adult foreigners. No one is eligible to specialization who has not basic qualifications of two years credit in teacher training beyond high school as a minimum requirement.

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The actual administration of instruction is in the hands of elementary evening-school principals who are directly responsible to the Supervisor of Instruction for classroom results and teachers' instructional plans. In a city having forty-two schools personal supervision of classes becomes impractical although personal visits to individual classes are made four times per year with any number of special visits for assistance to principals upon request. Principals are responsible for a knowledge of policies of method, courses of study and content in all elementary classes, and for the intelligent application of these policies, courses of study, and content by their teachers. A system of teacher efficiency rating is maintained, open at all times to the teacher.

Although the course of study for Detroit foreign classes concerns itself primarily with English throughout its entire course, yet it carries a content approved by the High School Department to admit students to high schools upon the completion of the elementary school course. Approximately 500 students graduate and go on into high-school work from our evening schools every year. Many of these enroll in regular high-school courses, but more often they enter the High School of Commerce or the Cass Technical School which has special advantages for vocational training.

The administrative policy as covered by this outline has resulted in mutual confidence and general efficiency throughout the department, not only between supervisors, principals, and teachers, but reflects itself in increased percentage of attendance and general happiness of all concerned.

THE WORK OF A CITY SUPERVISOR—ABSTRACT

D. L. HENNESSEY, SUPERVISOR OF IMMIGRANT EDUCATION
BERKELEY, CALIFORNIA

No one should attempt to supervise Americanization work unless he has made himself thoroughly familiar with this phase of education. He should have had actual experience in the classroom in order that he may know at first-hand something of the problems that confront the teacher. Many of the University professors who give Americanization courses for teachers have never had any practical experience in the work. Indeed, some of them have never visited a school for adult foreigners. I believe that every such instructor should be required to take time off and put in some months of actual teaching before continuing his courses. If this could be accomplished, much of the dogmatic or theoretical instruction which we now have would be changed into something better and more vital.

A supervisor of Americanization should know his community thoroughly and should be ever on the alert to take advantage of the organized assistance of various civic, patriotic, and paternal agencies.

A supervisor should be sympathetic and coöperative with his teachers and should encourage them by giving due recognition to the worth-while things which they accomplish.

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CITIZENSHIP CEREMONIES—ABSTRACT

MRS. ANNE M. GODFREY, EDUCATIONAL REPRESENTATIVE, NATURALIZATION SERVICE, U. S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR

The subject of citizenship ceremonies is one which makes a deep appeal to me, because several years ago I arranged the first citizenship ceremony to be held in the State of California.

In the consideration of the citizenship ceremonies I believe that we should take into consideration the sociological background of the various races coming to our shores. Generally speaking, there are two classifications of these people. One type comes from countries where government is well established and where age-long traditions tend to bring to them a deep and abiding realization of the fundamentals of government. The other type comes from countries where individual liberty has been curtailed, and in some instances the tyranny of the government has limited its people in the development and understanding of the responsibility in citizenship. Frequently the two types are combined.

In view of these conditions, it seems not only wise, but just, that citizenship in the United States, be conferred with the honor and dignity which should accompany the bestowal of the highest honor which it is in the power of the United States Government to confer upon an alien resident.

It is time for us to see that citizenship, the most valuable of all things, is at least as dignified and impressive a procedure as the ceremony connected with the bestowal of educational degrees. Personally, I believe that no matter what other ceremonies are conducted under the auspices of the schools for adult foreigners, or under the auspices of the community, civic or patriotic organizations, there should be thorough coöperation of the judges and some interested person in the community in at least a brief ceremony at the actual time of naturalization. It has been found that the majority of judges are willing and glad to have a simple ceremony at the beginning of the court hearing, such as the pledge of allegiance to the flag, led by the color guard of the R. O. T. C., or the Boy Scouts. This has an impressive effect not only upon the petitioners for citizenship present, but also upon the Americans in the court room. Any such ceremony is without the power of the naturalization service to establish, and it rests upon those in the community who are interested to arrange for such ceremonies through the judges.

In this connection I might add that last year at the American Bar Association conference I was able to induce Judge N. P. Conrey, judge of the District Court of Appeals, to devote about one third of his address to the Judicial Section of the American Bar Association, to the responsibilities of the judges in regard to the bestowal of naturalization.

In analyzing the other types of citizenship ceremonies, the one conducted by the community seems to be the most important, as it brings the American residents into closer relationship with the foreign-born residents.

We have been able in San Francisco to see that the Mayor's Independence Day Committee should include a sub-committee on Americanization which arranges for invitations to be issued to all who have become citizens during

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the past year, inviting them to be guests of honor at the literary exercises on July Fourth. Occurring on such a day, the ceremony should be patriotic, but it should also include some scene or number bringing out the value of the contribution made to our community life by the various racial groups resident therein.

Another type of exercise is that conducted under the auspices of the school for those graduating from the classes in citizenship. Personally, I think this is most advantageous, as it places the stamp of approval upon *education* for citizenship. It may be made most valuable in enlisting the aid of various organizations and prominent people in the community as sponsors to those of foreign birth who are graduating from the classes.

The American Legion and many other patriotic organizations are taking cognizance of the newly naturalized citizen, and many communities are putting on the patriotic program which is supposed to give an added incentive to the new citizens in their understanding of the patriotic ideals of America. In some communities the programs in honor of the newly naturalized citizens have been prepared and arranged by other organizations, such as the Federation of Women's Clubs and the Lion's Club.

THE AMERICAN PUBLIC SCHOOLS AND OLD-WORLD CULTURE—ABSTRACT

H. B. WILSON, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, BERKELEY, CALIFORNIA

Henry Van Dyke has truly said that "the streams that have entered into our American life come from springs very wide apart." Yes, from the Puritans came especially personal independence and religious intensity; from the Dutch came the principles of religious liberty; from the Cavaliers came those influences that stood strongly for forgetting differences and consolidating all the strengths of the republic in a strong central government.

Not only are we deeply indebted to older civilizations for these practical ethical and spiritual ideals and for the political conceptions out of which were forged in this new world the beliefs that "all men are born equal" in their right to life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness, that governmental power is only just when the governed consent, that "taxation without representation is tyranny" and the like; but our debt in the practical fields of the arts, industry, and commerce has continued to grow from year to year even unto our own day and generation.

Because the contribution of other nations to America's making has been so fundamental and so great, we shall ever be mindful of them, transmitting them through tradition and teaching to the oncoming citizens of all generations yet to be born. Not for sentimental reasons will we do this, but for deep service reasons—because doing so helps us to see deeply and to fit ourselves more fundamentally to meet successfully and worthily the problems, issues, and duties which will confront our American citizenship.

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The attention of our schools and other social agencies to old-world culture must, of course, be guided and determined by fundamental selective standards. Only thus may we successfully guard against such waste as would result from attention and study of useless, functionless materials and experiences.

Briefly stated, therefore, we shall always be concerned with old-world culture as it exists in its various forms and as it may be brought into our schools through books, or in other forms, to the extent that it is definitely understandable, useful, and functional in the lives of American pupils and future citizens. Each thing used, however, must bring some valuable contribution to fit the oncoming citizens for meeting life's issues and duties whether they be local, National, or international.

THE AMERICANIZATION PROGRAM OF FRESNO COUNTY, CALIFORNIA[1]

HARRIET W. MERRILL, SUPERVISOR, FRESNO COUNTY, CALIFORNIA

Americanization is rather a broad term and there is some difference of opinion among educators as to its proper meaning. For the practical purposes of our discussion, however, I believe that we may well accept Professor Draschler's definition of the term as "the incorporation of the alien into the spiritual as well as the material life of the Nation."

The Americanization problem is the direct and natural result of our traditional immigration policy. The founders of our Republic came to America in search of civil and religious freedom. Consequently they and their descendants naturally sympathized with others who wished to come here for the same reason, and hence, for many years after the formation of our government, America was proud to be known as an asylum for the poor and oppressed of all lands, and immigrants were welcomed to our shores without restriction.

For the first century of our National existence this policy, if not positively advantageous to the country, at least created no serious problem. But during the last fifty years, the enormous influx of foreign-born peoples has become a menace to the Republic. In that brief time, some twenty-seven and a half million immigrants have settled in the United States. Moreover, the source of immigration has shifted from Northwestern to Southeastern Europe and a large proportion of the newcomers are utterly alien to America in race, language, history, culture, and ideals. Recognizing the danger, the Federal Government is now placing reasonable restrictions upon the inflow of foreign races.

But today, scattered throughout the length and breadth of the land are more than 15,000,000 foreign-born whites. Many of them are illiterate.

[1] Abstract of an address given by Clarence W. Edwards, superintendent of schools of Fresno County, California, at the Superintendents' Convention of California, and outlined by Harriet W. Merrill, director of Americanization, Fresno, California.

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Many of them cannot speak the English language. Large numbers of them are economically inefficient. Many of their standards of living are inferior to American standards. In thier ignorance they are constantly being exploited and imposed upon by unscrupulous employers and corrupt politicians. Knowing little or nothing of our institutions, they are sometimes misled into hostility against our Government by unpatriotic and radical propaganda. Many of them are indeed not very prepossessing material for American citizenship. But they are here—with our permission. They have sought refuge under the ægis of the Republic and it is our interest and our duty to endeavor to convert them into useful, patriotic American citizens. This colossal task is the problem of Americanization.

We, as county-school superintendents, are primarily concerned with the rural phase of Americanization. The immigrant problem, generally speaking, is not so acute in the country as in large cities. But even in rural sections, conditions are such as to challenge the serious attention of educators. The California immigration and illiteracy statistics for 1920 indicate that the Americanization problem of Fresno County is fairly typical of the State. According to the last census the total population of the county was approximately 129,000. About 40 per cent of these were foreign-born whites. In point of numbers the leading foreign white nationalities were the Russians, the Armenians, the Italians, and the Mexicans. Of the native-born whites only 4 per cent were illiterate, while 15.5 per cent of the foreign-born whites could neither read nor write English. These figures demonstrate the urgent need for Americanization.

The educational forces of Fresno County have addressed themselves to the solution of this problem with all their zeal and energy and in a friendly and fraternal spirit. The activities of the various agencies are organized, supervised, and guided by a director, appointed by the county superintendent of schools under the law authorizing him to employ supervisors of special subjects. The success of the work depends in a great measure upon the ability, the training, and the personality of the director. This branch of education is still in the experimental stage; methods have not yet been standardized; few teachers have taken the necessary special training. New and difficult problems are continually arising. Many different types and classes of people must be met and brought into coöperation. Consequently expert leadership is indispensable.

The Americanization program of Fresno County is administered through four chief agencies; the elementary schools, the high schools, the full-time Americanization teacher, and community organizations. In the elementary schools are many foreign children who cannot speak English. They cannot make progress until their disability is removed. The common disregard of this language handicap is unquestionably largely responsible for the high percentage of retardation in the public schools. These children should be placed in special classes and given special instruction in English until they can understand the language well enough to keep up with their regular grades.

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Night classes for the foreign-born are organized in both elementary and high schools. English and citizenship are the usual subjects. In the high schools, however, other subjects are also taught according to the requirements of the members of the classes and efforts are made to satisfy their social, cultural, and recreational needs. Graduates of the citizenship classes upon the recommendation of the director are awarded diplomas and are usually admitted to citizenship by the courts without further examination. At the present time in the night schools of Fresno County, there are eight citizenship classes and eighteen English classes, with a total enrolment of more than 500 students.

Full-time Americanization teachers are essential to a complete program of Americanization. Foreign-born women are often timid and unwilling to attend public classes. The full-time Americanization teachers visit them in their homes, cultivate their friendship, win their confidence, and give them instruction in such practical subjects as English, civics, cooking, sewing, sanitation, and the care of children. Community organizations, such as Parent-Teachers' Associations and Mothers' Clubs, are potential factors in Americanization.

The entire success of the Americanization movement depends upon the manner in which we approach the foreign-born. If there be any suspicion of a condescending or a patronizing attitude, the work is foredoomed to failure. We must win the foreign people to our ideals. We must recognize their merits. We must show appreciation of their services to the Nation.

Americanization work properly conducted cannot fail to react favorably upon our own people. Modern invention has brought the nations of the world into close contact and the future happiness, prosperity, and progress of mankind will depend upon the general cultivation of friendly relations. It is fitting that the greatest Republic in the world should set a proper example to all other nations. In the words of the poet:

This is the land where hate should die,
No feuds of faith, no spleen of race,
No darkly brooding fear should try
Beneath our flag to find a place.
Lo, every people here has sent its sons
To answer Freedom's call;
Their lifeblood is the strong cement
That builds and holds the nation's wall.
This is the land where hate should die,
This is the land where strife should cease,
Where foul suspicious fear should fly
Before the light of love and peace.
Then let us purge from poisoned tho't
That service to the State we give
And so be worthy as we ought
Of this great land in which we live.

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President—ALMA LOUISE BINZEL, Assistant Professor, Child Training, Home Economics Department, University of Minnesota.....Minneapolis, Minnesota
Secretary—FRANCES KERN, Director, Early Elementary Education, Western State Normal School .....Kalamazoo, Michigan

FIRST SESSION—TUESDAY AFTERNOON, JULY 3, 1923

Joint session of the American Home Economics Association, Departments of Child Hygiene, Kindergarten Education, National Conference of Educational Method, and National Council of Primary Council.

The President called the meeting to order; appointed Barbara Greenwood, Southern Branch of the University of California, Los Angeles, to act as secretary in place of Frances Kern, Michigan, who was absent.

Attention was called to the auspiciousness of the occasion, which brought together five groups of educators, all interested in the needs of children.

The topic of the afternoon, THE NEW PSYCHOLOGY AND THE TEACHER OF LITTLE CHILDREN, was dealt with from several important angles. Miss Hilda M. Holmes, Psychologist, State Teachers' College, San Francisco, California, spoke on THE NATURE AND IMPORTANCE OF BEHAVIOR IN EARLY CHILDHOOD.

Dr. Josephine A. Jackson, Psychotherapeutist, Pasadena, California, discussed THE SUBCONSCIOUS MIND AS AN ALLY IN EDUCATIONAL PROCEDURE.

Dr. V. H. Podstata, Livermore Sanatarium, Livermore, California, discussed WHAT DOMINATES INDIVIDUAL AND GROUP BEHAVIOR.

Dr. Calvin P. Stone, assistant professor of Psychology, Stanford University, emphasized prenatal nutrition as ONE IMPORTANT INTERNAL FACTOR UNDERLYING THE CONGENITAL RESPONSES OF CHILDREN.

Dr. J. E. Coover, being absent, the discussion of all papers was thrown open to the audience. The questions asked and answered showed that the material presented had had vital significance for those present.

SECOND SESSION—WEDNESDAY, JULY 4, 1923

An attractive breakfast was tendered by the Southern California Kindergarten-Primary Club at the St. Francis Hotel to visiting delegates and officers. Miss Barbara Greenwood and Miss Madeline Veverka shared the pleasure of introducing guests who in turn spoke of the newer types of work which are being undertaken, many of these are in the nature of social service.

THIRD SESSION—THURSDAY, JULY 5, 1923

The beautiful luncheon of the National Council of Primary Education was held at Key Route Inn. It was attended by 275 kindergartners, primary teachers, and others interested. Miss Dobbs presided and gave a short history of the organization. The outstanding features were jolly songs by the group, a vocal solo, the Hawaiian Aloha, and an inspiring message from Mrs. Grace Stanley, Commissioner of Elementary Education for California.

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Immediately following the luncheon the second joint session of the five departments was opened. The general topic was BEST TYPES OF PRINCIPLES AND PRACTICE IN THE EDUCATION OF YOUNG CHILDREN.

Miss Dobbs as presiding officer introduced Mrs. Edna Rich Morse, president of the Woman's Education Association of Boston, whose topic was THE NEEDS OF THE NURSERY PERIOD.

Miss Louise M. Alder, director of Kindergarten Education at State Normal School, Milwaukee, indicated how the newer knowledge of the needs of children between four and six are modifying kindergarten procedure.

Miss Gail Harrison, first-grade teacher, Lincoln School, New York City, dealt with the needs of the Primary Period. After enumerating these, a series of pictures illustrating modern activities with primary children was thrown on the screen and explained by her.

Regrets were expressed that Dr. James F. Hosic was unable to be present to open the discussion. Though the hour of adjournment was late, the audience expressed its approval in various ways of the afternoon program.

FOURTH SESSION—FRIDAY, JULY 6, 1923

The charms of the luncheon which opened the third session on the veranda of the Claremont Hotel were many.

Miss Grace Barnard, Berkeley, Chairman of the Central Committee was the embodiment of the Bay Regions gracious hospitality—which expected, according to reservations made, one hundred and fifty guests, but quickly amplified itself to make more than two hundred folk joyous and happy.

Miss Barnard introduced Miss Anna Stovall, of San Francisco, whose endearing welcome will be one of the pleasant memories of the convention.

Good fellowship was promoted by brief speeches from a number of people representing different parts of the country. Among them were those who are anticipating being future hostesses to kindergartners at Los Angeles where the International Kindergarten will probably meet in 1925; and also at Minneapolis where it will meet in 1924.

Miss Florence Kuss, president of the Kindergarten Section of the Teachers' Club of Los Angeles, brought an echo from the 1923 meeting in the form of the banner awarded to the California Delegation for having made the greatest effort to attend the recent convention at Pittsburgh.

Miss Binzel, the president, voiced the deep general appreciation of the guests' enjoyment of the generous hospitality of the Bay Region. She paid her own special tribute to Miss Florence L. Morrison, president of the Bay Region Kindergarten Association saying, "That no one, not even President Harding himself, could ever have a more delightfully efficient body guard than Miss Morrison."

The guests were particularly glad to hear Mrs. F. V. Vollmer, president of the Oakland Federation of Parent-Teacher Associations, re-affirm the interest of these Associations in all movements in behalf of young children. The local Federation's cordial welcoming of the guests of the convention expressed itself daily at Aahmese Temple and again in the beauty of the flowers which graced the departmental sessions at the Congregational Church.

The business meeting opened with the report of the Committee on Nominations. Miss Stovall, chairman, reported president, Miss Marion Barbour, Chico, California, and for Secretary Miss E. Jean Foster, of Evansville, Indiana. They were elected.

The president then announced the surprise of the day: the appropriation by the Representative Assembly of the National Education Association of five hundred dollars for the use of the Kindergarten Department. The sum to be used to gather, prepare and publish a circular on "A Day's Work in the Kindergarten." The suggestion for this work originated at the 1922 meeting at Boston. The funds therefor have been secured with the understanding that this material be presented at the 1924 meeting and that publication take place before the 1925 one.

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Miss Binzel emphasized how this project is making for continuity of effort in departmental activity through the coöperation of out-going and in-coming officers.

The request from the International Kindergarten Union for a contribution to the expenses of a delegate on the Kindergarten Pilgrimage to France was presented. Miss May Murray, the delegate, will report the trip through the Kindergarten First Grade Magazine. Motion to respond at once was carried. In consequence a check for fifty-five dollars will be forwarded to Miss Boyce, president of the I. K. U. It is confidently expected that the members will carry this request to their respective clubs for there will be many of the Kindergartners who will wish to contribute further to the fund.

Miss Marion Barbour, chairman of the Resolutions Committee, presented the following report. It was unanimously adopted.

The Department of Kindergarten Education of the National Education Association in the Seventeenth Annual Convention declares its profound satisfaction in the world-wide movement for the betterment of early education, through the closer association of all educative agencies, which have hitherto worked in more or less separate units.

We rejoice that the physicians, the psychologists, the dietitians, the nurses, the parents, and the teachers are recognized as indispensable factors working together in the field of education.

We rejoice that this period of education reaching from the pre-school child on through the primary age is being scientifically treated as one unbroken unit of growth.

We rejoice that out of this mass of material that science has accumulated there has come a deeper realization of what the problem of education really is, and that the teachers for this period must bring to the work a background of the best world ideals as well as the highest form of specialized training.

We call attention to the repeated note that has characterized so many meetings of this convention, that a spiritual interpretation is fundamental in education.

We wish to express our sincere thanks for the most gracious hospitality that has been shown us.

We are especially indebted to the Central Committee and its sub-committees for the flower-decorated breakfasts, luncheons, dinners, and receptions, for the splendidly conducted excursions and other kind attentions.

We also wish to express our appreciation to those who have contributed so largely in making the meetings so constructively inspirational.

MARION BARBOUR, *Chairman*
MISS CROSS
MISS WINTERS

A rising vote of thanks was tendered Miss Binzel for the excellent scheme and quality of the programs.

Miss Binzel then expressed her own gratitude to all who had rendered signal service in making the meetings a success. She introduced the new officers, Miss Barbour and Miss Foster, and then adjourned the 1923 session of the Kindergarten Department leaving the California group to plan an organization of Kindergartners while all others entered the waiting automobiles for the anticipated pleasures of the justly famous Sky-Line Boulevard Drive. That all who desired to take the drive found themselves provided for comfortably, even though they had not registered prior to Thursday night, was further evidence of California's ability to meet the situation on short notice. To Oakland's Miss Ella Marshall warm gratitude is due for her splendid generalship of the drive.

The officers had counted much upon the presence of Miss Anna Willson, superintendent of schools, Crawfordsville, Indiana, for a message on PUTTING THE NEWER PROGRAMS ACROSS. They regretted deeply, not only her absence but its cause, her own critical illness. A telegram expressing ardent hopes for her comfort and recovery was sent early during the week.

THE NATURE AND IMPORTANCE OF BEHAVIOR IN EARLY CHILDHOOD—ABSTRACT

HILDA M. HOLMES, STATE TEACHERS' COLLEGE
SAN FRANCISCO, CALIFORNIA

A knowledge of behavioristic psychology is invaluable to those dealing with young children. Modern psychologists have vividly brought to our notice the significance of early behavior and the importance of interpreting it correctly so that the future of the child may be safeguarded.

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The behaviorists have undertaken to explain the meaning and nature of behavior by means of a mechanism of the nervous system, the conditioned reflex. Human beings are born with few instinctive responses to visual and auditory stimuli. The whole world of sights and sounds may be looked upon as a wide field to which the child must learn to make responses.

It has long been known that actions are performed by the contraction of muscles and the secretion of glands, but only recently have psychologists realized that nerve impulses may be directed from one path to another.

That new nerve connections may be made, that new stimuli may be substituted for old ones, that new responses may be given is of great importance to those who deal with young children. They should understand the nervous mechanism functioning in habit formation, how desirable responses are provoked, how undesirable reactions are eliminated.

They should know how to present stimuli to avoid the possibility of negative adaptation on the part of the child, therefore, the importance of securing the child's attention; and above all the paramount importance of emotion as well as of repetition in the building up of habit systems. Thus, child training depends, not on punishment, nor upon the inhibiting of action, but upon the calling out of right responses.

WHAT DOMINATES INDIVIDUAL AND GROUP BEHAVIOR—ABSTRACT

V. H. PODSTATA, LIVERMORE SANITARIUM, LIVERMORE, CALIFORNIA

I cannot see how behavior can be viewed merely from the standpoint of reaction to environment. Surely a far greater force is continually in evidence in animal and human behavior and this is not dependent upon environment. Most of the so-called instincts are mere habits of response to environment. The big driving force is much deeper and of far greater significance.

The most important motive for behavior is not an instinct. It is a force inherent within all living matter in existence. It is perhaps best denoted by the term " the urge to live " and closely associated with this " the urge to progress and more highly develop." Millions of years ago this meant the evolution of a multi-cellular from a uni-cellular organism. From that time on it has meant the evolution of more complex adaptive behavior based, of course, upon more complex physical organization. Always, however, this was prompted by the tremendous urge to live and to progress.

This primitive force or urge may be divided into more definite single efforts, as: (a) The urge for self-maintenance—meaning, largely, the necessary nutritive functions; (b) the urge for self-defense: exceedingly primitive at first, but later, a much more complex effort; (c) a very definite effort or urge for self-advancement.

The secondary urge, secondary only perhaps in the intensity and constancy of its force, we must denote *the urge on behalf of others* and this may be subdivided into: (a) The urge of propagation of the same kind of offspring;

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(b) the urge to contribute to the maintenance of others; (c) the urge to contribute to the defense of others, especially, the offspring of the same kind; (d) the urge to contribute to the advancement of others.

This rather late development, meant, primarily, the advancement of the offspring up to a certain period and later, extending over a much larger group of more or less related individuals. Ultimately it will undoubtedly mean the urge to contribute to the advancement and progress of the entire human race—indeed, of the entire living world.

What concerns us today, even more, are certain other fundamental facts pertaining to modification of behavior which constitute the basis of our discussion. They be summarized as follows:

1. *Life in its higher form*—Therefore, also, in the human form—passes on through the medium of germ plasm. With this the urge to live and the urge to progress are passed on; also there are transmitted certain acquired tendencies pertaining to growth, and some primitive tendencies in behavior.

2. There is also passed on, through the union of the two distinct germ plasms, the entire ancestry of the two cells. This second item must be most carefully understood by him who seeks to interpret it, lest serious errors develop.

3. The more highly evolved the biological unit concerned in procreation, the less he will transmit of the instinctive and the more, in proportion, of the adaptive faculties. Hence, the human babe comes into the world exceedingly helpless and would utterly perish without the most careful and complex care given it by the mother through the urge on her part to maintain, to defend, and to advance her off-spring. The new-born bee or ant is fully prepared to enter its life duties. However, the adaptive mechanism and capacity of the bee or the ant is exceedingly limited, whereas the child's capacity in that direction is very great.

The dominating forces of the individual or group behavior, then, may be treated under the following headings:

(a) *The physical factors:* 1. *Nutrition.* In these days of incomplete, yet fairly substantial, knowledge of problems of nutrition, especially our knowledge of the so-called vitamines, we know something of the effect of insufficient or one-sided feeding, especially during the developmental period of life. We cannot question the vast importance which nutrition plays in the modification of behavior of an individual.

2. *The endocrine activity*—This is another important factor in the modification of behavior of an individual. We cannot, as yet, maintain but we see indications that the exceedingly important fundamental disturbances of mental life—namely, the profound changes in the fundamental tone of feeling—generally that of depression, are at times of endocrine origin. No one will question the great influence which the presence of an underlying tone of depression has upon the behavior of the individual.

3. *Diseases*—Bacterial toxines, retention of waste-matter, etc., through their irritating and other influences upon the nerve structure, produce remarkable changes and modifications of human behavior. Perhaps the most ready illustration is furnished by the influence of alcohol upon human behavior.

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4. *Physical obstructions*—Irritants, such as may be found in the mouth, the nose, and respiratory passages, in the external sex organs, also in the form of irritants and blemishes upon the skin produce a modification of behavior, directly at times, as in the case of adenoids.

5. *Physical strength*—This is a very important item in the behavior of an individual. When it is available in a large measure, both the aggressive and defensive mechanism is likely to be altogether differently organized than would be the case in a puny or physically inefficient human being. This inevitably affects the entire psychic response to reality.

6. *Muscular coördination*—This is another item in the behavior of the human being. The better-trained and the finer and better-controlled and coördinated are the muscles responses, the more developed and trained is "will-power."

(b) *The mental factors*—Everyone affirms that the early years of life, chiefly the pre-school age, is responsible for the establishment of definite habits of reaction and the traits of character. To the constant influences of what we may call "home atmosphere," the intangible something which makes us comfortable or ill at ease as we enter a home, the little child responds with great readiness.

It is also during this early period of life when there is established, or is not established, the real aim in life. I do not mean some sort of vocational selection, I refer to the greatly needed realization of what one is really living for, for only through such a life is it possible to attain contentment, peace, and happiness. This can be done not through dependence upon some sort of inherited primitive instincts but through habits acquired and firmly established during the early period of the child's life.

INTERNAL FACTORS UNDERLYING CONGENITAL RESPONSES OF CHILDREN—ABSTRACT

CALVIN P. STONE, ASSISTANT PROFESSOR OF PSYCHOLOGY
STANFORD UNIVERSITY, CALIFORNIA

The experimenter who seeks to understand the nature and operation of congenital behavior is confronted with three distinct problems. He must describe and classify the responses, define their adequate stimuli, and determine what internal factors condition their appearance.

The first problem is that of identifying the constituent elements of particular responses and determining their temporal, serial, and functional relationships. It has received the attention of psychologists for several decades; its study has led to enumerations and classifications of a host of reflexes, instincts, and inborn capacities; nevertheless, since it has too often been studied apart from the second and third problems, the results have been all but negligible in determining the procedure for child-training. Description and classification of congenital responses alone does not yield the necessary formulæ for their employment in the interest of education.

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The second problem pertains to the ascertainment of the adequate stimuli and their mode of action in the arousal of specific congenital acts. Obviously, the teacher who attempts to strengthen congenital responses through exercise, to attach them to new stimuli, or to combine them into units of greater complexity, proceeds with greater assurance of success if she is thoroughly acquainted with the adequate stimuli and their application for the arousal of those responses with which she is concerned. Highly significant progress has been made in defining stimuli adequate for the initiation and control of particular congenital responses which play an important rôle in the early training of children. Further researches along this line are to be encouraged, since specific knowledge of the stimuli which call out congenital responses will greatly facilitate the direction and control of child behavior in the interest of the school.

The third problem is concerned with those internal factors operating within the organism to (a) regulate the development of structures involved in response mechanisms, (b) to integrate these structures into mechanisms for coördinated action, and (c) to sensitize the organized mechanism for specific responses to definite stimuli of the environment. This problem—the most intricate of the three—is also the most fundamental, and its study will yield results of far-reaching significance for the understanding and utilization of congenital responses in child-training. Accordingly, it deserves immediate attention by investigators working in the field of child psychology. Already noteworthy advances in defining the internal factors underlying certain groups of congenital activities have been made by the biologists. One such advance has been made in the problem of "nutrition."

How is nutrition intimately concerned with the development of congenital responses? Almost all the organs, the musculature, and the framework of the body are differentiated within the first month of embryonal life. During the remaining eight months of gestation the organs, musculature, and body's framework grow rapidly in weight and complexity of structure.

Normal growth and development are contingent upon a copious supply of nutrition which necessarily is supplied by the mother. If the latter is well nourished, the fœtus in turn will be well nourished; but if for a prolonged period of time the mother suffers mal-nutrition, or uses for her own maintenance nutritive elements which normally are shared with the fœtus, the latter will, as a general rule, exhibit marked signs of undernourishment. This fact has been demonstrated again and again by experiments upon the laboratory animals and through observations, as well, upon man in countries suffering from food famines.

The most obvious effect of fœtal mal-nutrition is retardation of growth and development of the body as a whole. This retardation is not distributed equally among all parts of the body. Certain parts, it would seem, rob the table and cause others to go a-begging. Some organs are capable of taking from the deficient supply an amount of nutriment approximating their needs. Others thereby fail to secure their proper proportion, with the result that the rate of growth of well-nourished and ill-nourished organs gets out of step.

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Turning to the original inquiry as to the observable effects on congenital behavior resulting from retardation of growth and dissociation of rates of development of particular organs and structures it has been proved that the most obvious effect is general delay in the awakening of congenital responses. The effects of retarded development of bodily structures will be manifested in the repertoire of congenital activities a new-born, or a child exhibits at different chronological ages. And, since habits arise from congenital acts soon after the latter's appearance, we may further add that these effects will be reflected in the child's repertoire of instinct-habits. In addition to retardation in the awakening of congenital responses, severe under-nutrition sometimes diminishes their vigor. That dynamic quality which constitutes the "drive" or "urge" so characteristic of congenital responses, is absent or diminished in potency, hence, the responses serve ineffectively the end for which they exist in the life of the organism. Beneficial habits develop from them more slowly, or not at all; and the stability of habits thus formed is less certain.

When the diet is faulty in certain respects, the nervous system is greatly affected. Extreme irritability and nervousness often grow out of defective diets. Timidity and morbid fears may be accentuated, and mild delusions of inferiority established. These and many other illustrations which might be cited show how profoundly intellectual development and character are influenced by the general nutrition of the body. Its importance as one of the internal factors regulating and controlling the behavior of children can no longer be overlooked by educators. And we who are here today in the interest of child-education can serve this interest in no better way than by spreading the newer knowledge of nutrition.

THE USE OF THE SUBCONSCIOUS AS AN ALLY IN EDUCATION—ABSTRACT

JOSEPHINE A. JACKSON, PSYCHOTHERAPEUTIST, PASADENA, CALIFORNIA

In considering the subconscious mind we need to discuss it from both the standpoint of the child and the educator, for the full force of the alliance in the work of education is the at-one-ment of mind with mind at the level of the subconscious rather that at the level of consciousness. What you are will draw out what is in the child—for good, if you have found yourself, but for scant good, if you are at war with life.

Is the discipline of the child your real difficulty? Then the fault lies in the extent to which your own mind is not single and turned outward. As we look for the secret of power in some of those who have swayed the minds of men, we see singleness of purpose, and utter obliviousness to self. Lincoln's cabinet ceased their bear-baiting when they found his wonderful mind had but one object, the preservation of the Union. Your little ones will be all with you when your self isn't in it. Nervous fatigue means there has been a conflict of interests, and that no one interest prevailed.

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The function of education is to be an amplifier to native impulse. Growth comes not by accretion, but by assimilation. Not what the child hears, but what his interest takes hold on, enriches him; not what his retina records, but what his attention connects up with, becomes a part of himself, although every single sense impression carries its own weight of influence. Native impulse swings in ever-widening circles from the depth of the subconscious, where lies its well-spring of energy, over into life and back again to its source, carrying an increment of power.

Education should be a coördinating mechanism, on the line between that which native impulse is seeking, and all the rich abundance which life has to offer. From the psychological viewpoint the child is a live-wire. His own little subconscious is a generating station. Like the Faradic current, every make and break of contact with life serves to increase his potentiality. The child who is lacking in out-going impulse, the so-called "good child" who gives us no trouble in discipline, is really an insulated, shut-in personality who can make no growth until the current is re-established. The parent and teacher should welcome every spark of out-going impulse, and be to it a conducting medium so that the child may come into his fullest measure of power.

There is something else we need to recognize as educators and members of the social group, and that is that the child is already a "going concern" when he comes to us. We are not compelled to furnish him with a single human faculty. Curiosity, initiative, pugnacity, sense of justice, loyalty, love of self, love of life, love of power, all are innate, inherent, and fully activated by what the child is within himself. But just as any business is dependent for success on fair franchises, and freedom from burdensome taxation and unwise zoning ordinances, even so must the child be allowed full facility for expression and a free run for all his faculties. Discipline must never take on the slightest suggestion of repression but must serve as ample means for safe direction of energy.

In this age of efficiency we have happened upon an old truth—namely, that every force in nature is beneficent if rightly used. Every phenomenon in nature proves itself to be purposive, when looked at with the long, clear vision of life itself. Every faculty of the subconscious is an asset of priceless value in the equipment of the human being. Social training has been too much along the lines of repression of impulse, of cramping and hindering natural lines of development. The result has been a loss of symmetry in the character so formed, and a great lessening in the total potentialities of the individual.

The subconscious is really the heart of things, for out of it are the issues of life. The furnishings of the subconscious come to us largely by heredity, the dynamic experiences of our ancestors through all the ages, plus the further addition of our individual experiences recorded day by day. All the faculties that make us human are present in embryo at birth, but society must provide conditions favorable for their development and must know that every single faculty has its rightful place in the well-rounded human being. "Expression" is the slogan with which psychology starts us out in our work

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as educators and members of the social group; expression in the freest measure, with a complete ban on any idea of suppression or repression.

The message of the new psychology is the gospel of full and free self-expression. This means liberty as opposed to repression, but it also means re-direction of energy as opposed to license. It is direct when it serves all the needs of the personality, both as an individual and as a member of the social group; indirect, which it runs through the channels of sublimated interests, when occasion demands.

When a child wants to do something all by himself, let him choose his own way and his own time. For the child comes naturally to love the feel of quick-moving efficient muscles and of alert-moving mind. But his tempo is self-chosen. Tasks that are too difficult for a child should never be presented, for a failure to achieve brings about a loss of confidence in his own powers. That idea is promptly dramatized by his subconscious mind for the subconscious is an automatic artist.

Native impulse is not, like the love of money, the root of all evil. It is Life's capital, which business and social forces have been clever enough to turn to advantage. It is the function of education to get in its work still nearer the head of the stream, so that the unfortunate channels may be avoided at the outset and no repressive measures may enter in. This is the *motif* of education as it links up with the new psychology.

How tap the subconscious? How set free all those native impulses? The understanding heart of the educator is the key to the whole situation. When psychology, the child of intuition and common sense, made its entrance upon the stage of social life, it did not bring to an end the reign of its worthy parents. Intuition far outruns knowledge. Find yourself first, and then be done with self. Then as you come into contact with the child you will see in him none but rightful impulses, which lack only the faculty of adaptation to reality. And these impulses of his, finding ready *rapport* with your adult understanding will come into fullest, freest expression and make glad the child and all about him.

THE NEEDS OF THE NURSERY PERIOD

MRS. EDNA RICH MORSE, PRESIDENT, WOMAN'S EDUCATION ASSOCIATION
BOSTON, MASSACHUSETTS

Groups and individuals in rapidly increasing numbers are earnestly seeking a better way of life for the very young children. The interest in their physical health is well established and standards have been set up. Social workers have talked in the past about "the neglected age," but they now talk of the needs of the pre-school age. Parents' eyes are opening to the fundamental importance of right care in the early years and parents in all walks of life are asking and seeking an answer to the question, "What ought we to do for our little children?" Educators find themselves searching for the foundations of adequate preparation for life. Education begins at birth we are told on the best authority. Psychologists find that first associations are the most lasting

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ones; that character and personality are largely formed in the first four years of life. Could we ask for greater evidence of the importance of the early years?

The study of very young children has become a science. The study and care of children from birth has always been an *art* and the development of the science only increases the importance, power, and beauty of the art. What is all this study seeking to do? It is seeking to solve questions of habit formation in the first years of life, for the importance of the life of a little child is in its ability to form habits which will be of more permanent and influential nature than any formed at a later period.

Why then are we talking of nursery schools? Because there is real need of them. Thoughtful parents who want the best for their children in the early years as well as in the later ones are demanding for them as devoted, intelligent, and skillful care as their own in the time when they are not with them. They seek for themselves knowledge of the science and the art of child-training. Parents whose lives consist in a steady grind of manual labor, who have not the means to provide leisure and the environment in which to give their little children the things they need are deeply grateful and appreciative of a place where the run-abouts can live fully for some hours in the day. The light of joy in the eyes of such parents and the readiness to do their part to help in the work is the measure of its need. So nursery schools are being formed.

What is done in a nursery school? The Ruggles Street Nursery School in Boston is fortunate in having a spacious old-fashioned house with a large yard, part of which is gradually becoming a garden. Indoors there are two large play rooms furnished for the use of little children, a kitchen, and sleeping rooms. Whenever possible, and that is a large part of the year, the school is conducted outdoors. Children two and three years of age are admitted. It is open five days a week from half past eight to four o'clock. The morning is spent in various activities, two periods of free play, a music period, a period of quiet occupations, morning lunch at ten and dinner at twelve o'clock. The children sleep from one to three o'clock, then comes a third period of free play until the mothers call for them.

We are gradually building up what seems to be the right environment for children of this age. The children are all inspected daily on arrival by a baby nurse from the Community Health Association, who also helps in teaching health habits and talks with the mothers about health problems. Close supervision of their physical condition is kept and any defects are cared for at the hospitals in the city.

For educational purposes we have gathered together things for the children to use—Montessori apparatus, kindergarten gifts, toys, large blocks, simple materials, and the like. We have created an environment rich in educational possibilities and we let the children live in it. Our part as teachers is not to work for intellectual attainment, but to create an atmosphere of joy, foster a love for the good and the beautiful, and to give the children a chance to satisfy their thirst for knowledge. Constantly before us is the belief that we are helping the children form right habits of body and mind. That is the educa-

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tional purpose of the school. These habits include control of body, matter, emotions, will, and mind; love of music, color, nature, people; helpfulness, recognition of rights of others, self-expression, imagination, speech, memory, and many more. By studying each child we try to guide him into the formation of good habits.

We impose no educational method on the children but we allow them and help them to educate themselves, trusting the environment to stimulate their desire for knowledge. Freedom of choice is universal except for a few wise laws; freedom without law is license. We are striving constantly to learn more fully the needs of little children and to this end we are keeping records of the development of the children's habits of body and mind. So far the thing that we feel sure can and should be learned at this age is self-control.

Ruggles Street is in a poor district. The parents pay seventy-five cents a week to cover the cost of the food given. The appreciation of the parents and the response to suggestion and demonstration has been most encouraging. Some of the mothers help for regular periods in the school, many visiting it often, while all are well known to us and have confidence in us. A mothers' club brings the mothers together.

There is another nursery school in which I have a direct interest. It is in Cambridge, organized by a group of highly educated mothers for their children. It has a morning and afternoon session, the children going home for dinner and nap between. These parents are happy in the group work for their children; in the knowledge that their children are with someone whom they can wholly trust; in the opportunity to learn from the group, standards of aim and method in dealing with their own children. A teacher is in charge of the group, the mothers taking turns assisting regularly.

These two nursery schools are of contrasting types with the same aim, the starting of children in right habits in the years of most rapid development. The development of these little children, of the child who refused to eat, the child who did not talk, the friends who fought constantly, the child who appeared to live only to destroy what others had built up, the child who enjoyed being cruel—all are interesting stories. One has only to see how habits can be rightly guided in the earliest years to be convinced of the need of spreading by demonstration and practice the knowledge of the educational needs of pre-school children.

HOW THE NEEDS OF THE KINDERGARTEN PERIOD ARE BEING MET

LOUISE M. ALDER, DIRECTOR, KINDERGARTEN EDUCATION, STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, MILWAUKEE, WISCONSIN

Dr. Gesell in his recent book, "The Pre-School Child" says: "There is no agency concerned with the welfare of early childhood which in America holds more power for effective service than does the kindergarten. The kindergarten is strategically situated in our educational system. It is the very

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vestibule of our vast public school system." It meets the needs of children who come within the so-called pre-school period which students of childhood declare to be the most important period in the whole span of human development.

The kindergarten should control school entrance. All healthy normal children should enter the public school through its doors, and as they enroll, should be given careful physical examinations and intelligence tests. The organization of the kindergarten should be free and flexible and adapted to meet the differing needs of individual children. The kindergarten should not retain all children the same length of time, but should speed ahead those who show themselves to be physically, mentally, socially, and morally mature, and should retain for a much longer time those who are immature and undeveloped.

The modern kindergartner is seeking to work in a scientific way to develop children with strong, vigorous bodies and to help them to appreciate good health and to establish good health habits. She is also working earnestly to develop in her children sound mental and emotional stability. In the free happy atmosphere of the modern kindergarten the teacher learns to know the real child and so can help him to overcome faulty emotions. In order that her children may grow in personality and usefulness she gives them much opportunity to think for themselves, to find problems, to make and carry out plans, to compare their work fairly with that of others and to improve upon it. The modern kindergarten with its free type of organization helps children to learn how to adjust themselves to others, to work and play with others with a spirit of fair play and helpfulness. The free type of organization requires a higher type of self-control on the part of the children, more difficult to secure, but more valuable in character development.

The kindergartner of today realizes that science and social needs are making such rapid changes in education that she must be constantly reading and studying to keep up with them. She is seeking to become a sincere and thorough student of young children, open-minded and scientific in attitude, willing to experiment, able to evaluate results, and if necessary, to modify her curriculum and methods in the light of her findings. She believes in the greatness of her work and is putting forth earnest effort to grow in order that she may more intelligently guide her little children in their growth.

HOW ARE THE NEEDS OF THE PRIMARY SCHOOL PERIOD BEING MET?

GAIL HARRISON, THE LINCOLN SCHOOL OF TEACHERS COLLEGE
COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY, NEW YORK CITY

A child steps into this phase of school life, the primary school, having had, we hope, a good home plus day nursery and kindergarten experiences. Society owes every child, rich and poor, a fairer chance in each of these laboratories, and the day is dawning when, thanks to the revived and united efforts of

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mothers, doctors, nurses, psychologists, educational experts, and teachers, attention is centering on the pre-school child. Clinics, homes, day nurseries and kindergartens will then become clearing-houses for the schools, detecting and preventing mental, physical, and social blights which happen before the ages of six and seven.

The needs of this period, briefly, are as follows:

1. The best, most highly trained, and most highly paid teachers for the youngest children—*if* we believe in habit psychology.

2. The working out of the curriculum by this expert teacher herself under the guidance of one expert supervisor trained to handle the period of early childhood including the kindergarten and the first three grades.

3. The placing of the special subjects in charge of special supervisors under the control of the kindergarten-primary supervisor.

4. An enrolment of not more than thirty children in any primary grade—if we expect the teacher to start right habits of study, to build character, and social behavior that will bloom into self-government later.

5. Better classification of children in beginning grades by means of modern tests in subject matter—such as the Stanford achievement tests and others.

6. A creative curriculum—one built up by the supervisor, the teacher of each grade, and last but not least, the children of each grade, adapted to the individual differences and needs of both children and teachers.

7. A richer schoolroom environment—not only a movable curriculum and movable furniture, but real workshop facilities which invite purposeful activity, creative thinking and freedom, without license.

8. Longer spans of time in the program in which the teacher may develop needed and prescribed units of work or offer the children the time to develop their group and individual plans.

9. Time and equipment to insure to every child his right to become a *successful personality.*

10. Better training schools which shall emphasize quality and not quantity of teachers turned into the field.

In closing, I wish to make a special plea for the needs of the average child and the average teachers, those whose I. Q.'s fall between 100 and 140, where most of us belong. Terman tells us that gifted children rate between 140 and 200 and that their greatest need is a curriculum adapted to their high abilities—true enough. All children need a much fairer chance than we now give them. All children need our protection from school systems which too often extinguish native talents—and smother creative thinking.

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Library Department

OFFICERS

President—MARTHA C. PRITCHARD, Supervisor School Libraries, Board of Education, Detroit, Michigan
Vice-President—MRS. EDWARD CARTER, Librarian, High School.....Port Arthur, Texas
Secretary and Treasurer—DELLA FRANCES NORTHEY, Supervisor of School Libraries, Indianapolis, Indiana

FIRST SESSION—MONDAY AFTERNOON, JULY 2, 1923

Chairman: Martha C. Pritchard, Supervisor of School Libraries, Detroit, Michigan

The chairman appointed Mrs. Elizabeth Madison and Miss Helen Price, of Oakland, members of the Nominating Committee, and Mr. W. H. Kerr, Emporia, Kansas, on the Committee on Resolutions.

Speaking on the topic of Problems and Forecasts for the Library Department, Miss Martha C. Pritchard said in substance: "The concept of the school library is growing in educators' minds, because of the widening distribution of school libraries, and the daily dependence being placed upon them for instructional service, recreational reading, and standards of taste. Because of the growing number of school libraries and the demands made upon them, there is need for a form for surveying educational libraries of all types. The High School standard set up by the Certain Report, are more and more generally recognized. The junior high school library movement is coming, and the elementary school library is under way. The growth of these types of libraries makes the normal school library instruction all the more acute, especially for teaching the use of the various types of school library and for stimulating a further growth. The Library Department, therefore, needs further workers to get up momentum for an active aggressive propaganda for school libraries in the United States. This should be for the purpose of (a) Preparation of standards for plans and equipment for new buildings; (b) preparation of standards of qualifications for libraries with plans toward certification; (c) standards for book selections for various grades, and the means used should be: (a) Publicity through periodicals, one person to sponsor each topic; (b) publicity through circulation of state departments of education, city superintendents and leading architects; (c) committees on elementary school standards, qualifications of school librarians, booklists for the grades and high school, survey of school libraries, and publicity."

The following papers were then presented:

"SEVENTEEN" AND THE REFERENCE LIBRARIAN—Lucile F. Fargo, Librarian, North Central High School, Spokane, Washington.

POETRY AND MODERN CHILDREN—C. C. Certain, Assistant Director of Language Instruction, Detroit Public Schools, Detroit, Michigan.

RECREATIONAL READING AS A PART OF THE PRESENT-DAY CURRICULUM—J. F. Hosic, Assistant Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.

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SECOND SESSION—TUESDAY AFTERNOON, JULY 3, 1923

Chairman: Miss Martha Pritchard

TEACHING THE USE OF BOOKS AND LIBRARIES—Mary L. Harris, Librarian, High School, Santa Ana, California. (30-minute lesson given to class.)

RESOURCES FOR SCHOOL LIBRARY SERVICE AVAILABLE IN EACH STATE—Joy Elmer Morgan, Editor of *Journal of National Education Association*, Washington D. C.

THE LIBRARIAN, HER WORK AND HER OPPORTUNITY—Dr. Aurelia Henry Reinhardt, President of Mills College, Oakland, California.

THURSDAY AFTERNOON, JULY 5, 1923—ROUND TABLE CONFERENCES

LIBRARY PROBLEMS IN TRAINING TEACHERS—Mabel Zoe Wilson, Librarian, Bellingham Normal School, Bellingham, Washington.

HIGH SCHOOL LIBRARIES—Mrs. Elizabeth Madison, Supervisor School Libraries, Oakland, California.

RURAL LIBRARIES AND RURAL SCHOOLS—Stella Huntington, Librarian, Santa Clara County Library, San Jose, California.

READING CIRCLES FOR TEACHERS—Willis H. Kerr, Librarian, State Normal College. Emporia, Kansas.

THURSDAY AFTERNOON, JULY 5, 1923, LIBRARY LUNCHEON—WILD DUCK INN OAKLAND

UNITED STATES SCHOOL LIBRARIES IN THE PACIFIC OCEAN—Mary Lawrence, Director of Children's Work, Honolulu, Hawaii.

THE SCHOOL LIBRARY AS SEEN FROM THE SUPERINTENDENT'S OFFICE—E. Morris Cox, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, Oakland, California.

HOW THE STATE LIBRARY REPRESENTATIVE CAN HELP THE N. E. A.—Jasmine Britton, Librarian, Elementary School Libraries, Los Angeles, California.

BUSINESS MEETING—TUESDAY AFTERNOON, JULY 3, 1923

The chairman, Miss Martha Pritchard, outlined the organization of Library section and she stated that it was unable to finance all of its activities with its present funds, *i. e.*, 50c. for membership and $25 from the National Education Association. She presented a bill for $32 for the distribution of Mr. W. H. Kerr's Measuring Stick, and a bill for $75 for the distribution of Mr. C. C. Certain's Report on Elementary School Standards.

The Library Section voted to appoint a committee to assist the A. L. A. in preparing a list of a thousand books for high-school pupils. It also voted to appoint a committee to assist the A. L. A. in revising the graded list of books.

The Library Department voted to endorse Mr. C. C. Certain's Report on Elementary School Standards. It also voted to endorse Mr. W. H. Kerr's Measuring Stick for Libraries of Teacher-training Institutions.

The following recommended change in the by-laws of the Library Department presented by the committee appointed for that purpose was passed by the Library Section:

"That the by-laws be amended, so as to secure the continuance in office of State representatives for a term of two years."

The Committee on Resolutions offered the following:

"*Resolved*, That the Library Department record its sorrow and sends a personal and professional loss in the passing of Mr. O. L. Rice, supervisor of school libraries for the Wisconsin State Department of Education. To all his work, he brought a high degree of zeal and industry, and the present organization of the department is in considerable measure due to his initiative."

"*Resolved*, That the Library Department express its thanks to the librarians of the State and locality for very generous and comprehensive entertainment, and especially to Mrs. Elizabeth Madison and Miss Helen Price for their leadership in the arrangements which have resulted in a most profitable session of the department."

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The chairman of the Nominating Committee, Mrs. Elizabeth Madison, presented the following names, which were unanimously accepted:

President: Willis H. Kerr, Librarian, Kansas State Normal College, Emporia, Kansas.

Vice-President: Ella Morgan, Librarian, Lincoln High School, Los Angeles, California.

Secretary and Treasurer: Harriet A. Wood, Supervisor of School Libraries, State Department of Education, St. Paul, Minnesota.

"SEVENTEEN" AND THE REFERENCE LIBRARIAN

LUCILE F. FARGO, LIBRARIAN, NORTH CENTRAL HIGH SCHOOL
SPOKANE, WASHINGTON

There is five feet eleven inches of him—or six feet two if you judge by what protrudes beyond coat-sleeve and trouser-leg. He drapes himself over the high desk. "Say, *she* says get sumpthin' about Holly Rod Place or whatever it was, I don't know, but mebbe its Holy Rod, and anyway it's history and—What period in history did you say? Wy-er-the first period, an' I forgot it last night an'—Oh, I get-cha. You mean what time in history. Wy-I dun-no. She didn't tell us, but I gotta next period, an' say (ingratiatingly) can't-cha gimme somethin' real short? Gee, I gotta have it this morning 'cause if I get another goose-egg I get kicked off the team, an' the bell rings in ten minutes, an' say, can't-cha gimme it quick?"

You, and that means you or me or any other red-blooded reference librarian, ditch all your theories of method and "give it to him quick." He hurriedly copies on the fly-leaf of a ruined free textbook the paragraph in the Britannica which you obligingly indicate, and when the bell rings, he tumbles out of the library, leaving you with a wide grin which says you are sure some peach—and also with a heavy volume to replace and a wad of gum to remove from under the table where he stuck it when you sat down by him. And you ask yourself what on earth Seventeen gets out of it, or Miss Brown (the "she" with goose-egg tendencies) or the school board which provides $500 per year for books, or Seventeen's father and mother who scrimp to keep him in ties and socks and football togs.

But wait awhile. You passed your first merit badge exam when you "gave it to him quick." He suspects you of being able to pass others. Gothic palaces and courses in History IV are necessary evils to be disposed of in short order. But there are things he really wants to know and will go any length to learn about—radio, and Ty Cobb's batting average, and whether it's better to be a mining engineer or a Y secretary, and the mechanism of the engine in Dad's Ford, and whether the prettiest girl in the class would dance with him if he could keep off her toes.

And if Seventeen is a girl there is just as much to be learned—things all outside of textbooks, but vital to the n-th degree: How to make ribbon flowers; how to remove freckles; how to accept an invitation, or refuse one; how to become a movie star, or a missionary; and way down deep, a seed

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that bursts and roots and shyly grows—how to become a woman and a mother. Did you ever stop to think of your tremendous responsibility, you lady of the reference desk, you dispenser of invisible education? Are you prepared for your merit-badge exams?

First, we must understand Seventeen. "This is the age of wasteful ways, awkwardness, mannerisms, tensions that are a constant leakage of vital energy," says the psychologist. It is the reading age, the sampling and trying age, the age of receptivity, the age of intense desires, exaggerated longings, and awful inarticulateness.

If Seventeen comes to the library on a personally vital quest, his embarrassment prevents his stating his desire clearly. Sent by the best teacher in the world on a perfectly definite mission, his notion of what he wants is vague and uncertain by the time he arrives. And when in the game of cross questions and crooked answers the librarian finally discovers the true nature of his request, there is yet a long road to travel. For nobody can educate Seventeen except himself. A teacher put it tersely. "You can stick a pin in Seventeen's attention, but the minute your back is turned the pin falls out." To be sure. And it is the reference librarian's problem as well as the teacher's to make Seventeen stick in his own pins.

And so you must catch him young, preferably while he is in the grade school, and certainly not later than his first year in high school, and while he is still in the joyous "doing" age. Here the hieroglyphic marks on the back of the encyclopedia are a puzzle to be solved by the quickest-witted, and the card catalog is a "blue-book" full of minute directions for excursions into all parts of the library and all corners of a curious world. Johnny Knickerbocker, who will be seventeen before you know it, takes readily to your library stunts. Sure he can run down across reference and copy a call number and find his book on the shelves, and without your help, if you please. And Mary Elizabeth, too. She even shyly informs you she's going straight home to put Dad's library in order according to the Dewey Decimal system. So start Seventeen early before the bloom has worn off and he is a blasé sophomore. And having trained up the child in the way he should go, trust hopefully that when he is old he will walk therein. But to your trust add patience, for Seventeen is as wobbly on his intellectual legs as any young calf. He abhors effort. He implores you to give it to him quick. He is always willing to be carried.

Here is the reference librarian's great problem and eventually her great triumph. Willy-nilly, Seventeen, must be required to stand on his own legs. This is a proposition to which the rules of public library good form do not apply. You are not here dealing with a hurried business man in search of a vital fact or a technical expert to whom time is money. To these you may hand out information with bargain-counter celerity and a clear conscience. But in Seventeen's case, you must put a firm heel on public library ideals and consistently refuse to do anything for him which he can do for himself. To be sure, you will recognize an emergency when you see it and carry him over an occasional rough spot like "Holly Rod." But mostly, you will take the longer way around. "Let's see if you really know what you are looking

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for, Seventeen. Is it the cost of living now, or during the war? Would you be more likely to find the answer to your problem in a magazine or in a book? What headings shall we try? Would a book published in 1914 deal with the question of the Ruhr?" And so you set up guide posts and forestall false moves and gently steer, push, and even prod. But the game belongs to Seventeen. Beware of playing it for him. You are only the coach.

Since in the average high school, the librarian is but one and her patrons are as the sands of the sea, it is necessary that much of the preliminary guiding and coaching be done by the teacher in the classroom. In my own school, in addition to instruction given by the librarian on the use of the card catalog and the method of finding books on the shelves, a few simple lessons on the use of common reference tools are given by English and history teachers. Obviously, the best results are obtained when such lessons are directly related to group projects or regular class work. The girl who answers a few questions out of the World Almanac or the Statesmen's Yearbook as a part of a stereotyped set of lessons on the use of reference books, soon forgets where she looked or how she got her information. But a class introduced to the same volumes in connection with the study of civics learn their value quickly and well. This is something teachers and librarians alike should ponder. There has been too much of the giving of formal "reference courses" and not enough practical instruction on the part of teachers in connection with regular work. You need not be a reference librarian very long to discover this. How many times have you had to remind your seniors that Andrew Jackson cannot be found in "Who's Who," in spite of the fact that in their sophomore reference course they learned (or at least you told them) that this volume was for contemporaries only. On the other hand, watch your debate teams. Under the direction of their coach, they become the reference sharks of the school.

To the librarian who has pushed and prodded her Johnny Knickerbockers and Seventeens over the grades of compulsory reference work there comes the immense satisfaction of seeing them put to joyous uses their painfully gained knowledge. Adolescence is distinctively the reading age, the age of receptivity, the age of invisible education. Aside from the things Seventeen is frankly interested in like radio and animal stories, and if a girl, "Wo-he-lo" and love stories, there are a thousand other points which he would almost risk his life to find out about, and yet which he wouldn't for the world be caught investigating openly—manners, ideals, questions of sex, of religion, of morals.

But how shall we put these good things in Seventeen's way? By personal suggestion, the bulletin board, the book display, the browsing nook? Yes, all these. But, in the long run, method and organization bring larger results. Right here, let those of us who are librarians take off our hats to those who are teachers. After all, it is the teacher who sees Seventeen every day, who knows his interests, his limitations and his mental age. The librarian and the teacher working together are a winning combination.

In our school, there stood on the shelves for many years nature studies by Burroughs and Mills, the humor of Bangs and Leacock, those inimitable

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biographies of Jacob Riis and Mary Antin. The covers were unsoiled, and the pages innocent of thumb marks or dirt. Meanwhile, the English classes read Walden and The Autocrat and Macaulay's Life of Samuel Johnson. But one day, a great light broke upon us. Supplementary reading should be pleasure reading; it should be related to the pupil's psychological development and personal experience. What ensued was nothing less than a revolution. List-making became the obsession of the English department and the librarian. The library came into its own with a leap that trebled the circulation and left us with empty shelves and only the mangled remains of Riis and Antin and Bok. In the same way, the social organization of the girls of the school into " The Girls' League " has been paralleled by organized reading courses. " Open Doors," a list with page references and helpful reading hints has established an amazing voluntary reading record. Girls who would have been too shy to ask on their own initiative for books on love and friendship and motherhood have found the best in the essays of writers like Margaret Slattery and Bertha Condé and the straight-forward sincerity of Lowry's " Preparing for Womanhood." In similar fashion, the preparation coöperatively by librarian and vocational director of lists on business qualifications, the value of an education, and vocational openings has led to a steady demand for pertinent books and pamphlets. The point of all this is obvious. Organization of effort and coöperation between the library and every department of the school is absolutely essential to anything like effective direction of reading.

With the shortening of the working day for men and the easing of household tasks for women through the introduction of mechanical conveniences, there has come upon us the problem of the leisure hour. If jazz and movies and automobiles are the sole recourse of Seventeen in search of relaxation and pleasure when he leaves school, there are rocks ahead. That education which makes of Seventeen simply an efficient workman is no education at all. The avenues of escape from drudgery and from " treasons, stratagems and spoils " must be wider than they have been for you and me. Not to many is given that exhaltation of spirit which enables them to be Lucy Larcoms, composing poetry to the music of the shuttles. But to Seventeen grown up, the way to mental and spiritual freedom opens through the reading of the printed pages.

RECREATIONAL READING AS PART OF THE PRESENT-DAY CURRICULUM—ABSTRACT

JAMES F. HOSIC, ASSOCIATE PROFESSOR OF EDUCATION, TEACHERS COLLEGE COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY, NEW YORK CITY

General reading is often referred to as " outside reading." In practice that means that it is outside of the picture, to be done at odd times when there is nothing else pressing to be done. The term is unfortunate. The tendency to interpret " curriculum " as meaning a series of formal studies intended for recitation and examination is equally unfortunate. The cur-

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riculum should be taken to mean the entire opportunity which the school offers to our children.

The modern school provides for recreation—for re-creation, the building anew of body, mind, and spirit. In this sense, reading is second to no other agencies. It is generally available, unlimited in range, and wholly disinterested. It may furnish the means of purest enjoyment.

The school can do no less than to secure for all as large a measure of this enjoyment as a sound philosophy of life indicates and circumstances make possible. The library should receive the same liberal support now freely accorded to the laboratory and the shop. Both occasion for general reading and guidance in it should be offered. All departments should coöperate in doing this, for no worthy study fails to lead on to reading that is done for its own sake. In appropriate ways young people should be made to feel that their elders take as much pride and joy in their progress in capacity for pure enjoyment as in any other achievement whatever. The teacher who is himself a genuine lover and companion of books will find the way to do this.

High-school pupils need control of their lives now, and if we can give them this control now, the future will care for itself. The school exists for what the child is now rather than for what he is going to be. The high school is still standing on this future idea, but the place of literature in the curriculum is now officially recognized, and the part books may play in the life of the growing young person is limited only by the skill of the teacher. The recreational reading of books, with its immense immediate outcome, should begin in the grading in the form of "library hours" or "joy-reading." The pupils should learn to make their own selections, and the teacher should simply be the umpire in the class discussions.

INSTRUCTION IN THE USE OF BOOKS AND LIBRARIES[1]

MARY L. HARRIS, LIBRARIAN, HIGH SCHOOL, SANTA ANA, CALIFORNIA

The interest in this subject is shown by the fact that in the last few years it has been frequently finding a place on the programs of teachers' and librarians' meetings. Excellent courses have been worked out for teaching effectively the use of books and libraries and creating a desire to read, but a lack of uniformity exists as to the amount of time devoted to the work in the various schools. This seems to be dependent upon many factors, chief among them the opportunity to give the work a place in the curriculum and the time at the disposal of the librarian for planning and presenting the lessons and correcting the problems which she may wish to have follow each lesson. Sometimes only one class period is given, merely to bring the student to the library and acquaint him with its location and general matters in regard to it which is good in itself but not sufficient to produce great results—again,

[1] These remarks preceded a demonstration lesson given to a class of pupils from the University High School of Oakland before the Library Department of the National Education Association Tuesday afternoon, July 3, 1923, Oakland, California.

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in other schools, as many as twelve or more class periods are given to the work.

There is also a lack of uniformity as to the time when the work is given. Some courses provide for the grades and the high school—some only for one or the other, or for colleges. All are agreed upon the fundamentals to be taught —the care and parts of a book, the arrangement of books in libraries, the card catalog, the magazine indexes, and the more important reference books. As more time is allowed the course is expanded. The goal toward which we strive is to have courses which will teach the care and history of books, inspire the reading habit, and give self-dependence in the use of books running through the whole school curriculum, introducing the subjects at the time when there seems to be a real use for them and when the purpose can be readily understood.

At present there are many colleges the Nation over in which no courses of this kind are offered, and more high schools, and still more elementary schools. Some of the colleges are teaching their students how to use books and libraries intelligently, but this knowledge should also be given to that greater number of people whose formal education stops with high school days and even before that, so that they may be better equipped to extend their education by themselves through the public library which is the continuation school available to all people at all times.

It may be difficult occasionally to work these lessons into an already overcrowded curriculum but I know of no place where the work has been once introduced that it has not met with the hearty support of the faculty. The teaching methods of today often require the use of a great variety of material. Frequently several books and magazine articles, pictures, maps and publications of government bureaus are needed in working out some project which has been assigned, and teachers have recognized that knowing how to use things is a time saver and that it is also valuable training for later purposes in life. Then, too, the questions which it is well to have follow each library lesson may be correlated with the other class work, preferably of the class that is giving the time for this, so that the library instruction is not a detached subject.

Because this meeting was not held in a library it seemed best to give the demonstration lesson on the parts of a book, and after all that is the basis for all later lessons. The procedure in consulting any one book is substantially the same for all books. The index illustrates the alphabetic arrangement which is the key to the use of the card catalog, magazine indexes, and many reference books. The making of a good bibliography involves a knowledge of various parts of a book. Without such instruction so common a thing as the index of a textbook used frequently may escape the observation of many students.

Each student is provided with a copy of the same book and the parts are studied, in the order in which they occur, by a process of questions and explanations. A few variations from the example at hand are considered, but care must be taken that too many are not introduced or a confusion in the mind of the student will result.

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LIBRARY RESOURCES AND OBJECTIVES—ABSTRACT

JOY ELMER MORGAN, EDITOR OF THE JOURNAL OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, WASHINGTON, D. C.

The library in America stands for a unique idea. It is more than a mere marbled monument to learning. It is more than a mere collection of accumulated wisdom. It stands for more than the supplying of information and reading matter to those who happen to call for help. It stands for an ideal of informed intelligence, of sober and quiet consideration of serious things by the great masses of people upon whom our democratic institutions rest. There is so much in our life that is ephemeral and hectic and hurried that deliberate intelligence seems at times threatened with extinction.

The things that are dearest in our lives, that underlie our whole conception of the relations of men, depend upon regulating the selfish and dynamic elements in our civilization by matured judgment, by seasoned culture, and by substantial purpose. These are the things for which the library stands. They can be realized in their full power only by making the library a professional service as universal as the elementary school, only by bringing to every American community trained and devoted men and women who appreciate the mission of the free public library. Universal compulsory education has become general in American States only within the past few years and the battle for the schools is perhaps now at its height. The battle for the library cause may not be so hard, but it is equally essential. May I suggest four things that librarians may do in a dynamic way:

1. Continue to render in the best way the services that existing financial support makes possible.
2. Continue the work on standards for library service of different types and apply these standards through surveys of local and State systems.
3. Teach in all schools the place of the library in our life as an institution supported by society to maintain the ideals and intelligence which schools exist to create.
4. Support the movement recently inaugurated by the American Library Association for a Federal Bureau of Libraries charged with National leadership by experts in the investigation of problems and the promotion of universal service.

UNITED STATES SCHOOL LIBRARIES IN THE PACIFIC OCEAN—ABSTRACT

MARY S. LAWRENCE, DIRECTOR OF CHILDREN'S WORK HONOLULU, HAWAII

The Hawaii Library Association sends *aloha nui oe* to you all. When Miss Pritchard's letter arrived in Hawaii announcing the program for today's luncheon there was no time to inform her that I was a story-teller and not a public speaker. Fortunately, the subject is as familiar as a Hawaiian fairy tale so that I can bridge the gulf by making it as much of a story as possible, and it has the characteristics of a story except for the apparent anti-climax.

Jeanne Christophe

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I shall begin with the height of our achievement, the Punahou Library and finish with an account of the rural libraries for children of imported immigrants on the cane-fields, which are only in the beginnings of their development.

The anti-climax is only on the surface, however; in the rural schools we are working toward the wonderful climax which we hope to realize in the future when these plantation children have been moulded over into 100 per cent Americans.

Punahou, one of our oldest schools, was started in the early days as a school for the children of the missionaries. It includes Elementary, Junior High, and Senior High, and educates the majority of the children from our cultured homes. The library, one of which we may well be proud, is a beautiful grey stone building nestled among the cocoanut palms, a combination of library and art gallery. The present librarian, especially equipped for this work, is a graduate of Western Reserve University and Library School and has also completed the course "Training for Children's Librarians" in Cleveland. She is president of our Hawaii Library Association of which there are twenty-six members. She has one assistant and page help.

Kamehameha is our second largest private school founded by a native princess for the children of her own race. This includes the Boys' School, the Girls' School, and the Boys' Preparatory. Each department has its own library with a part-time teacher-librarian. The administration hopes in time to have a centralized library. Kamehameha is well endowed and its serious problem is not how to secure funds, but how to spend them to best advantage; this fact gives us reason to believe that the new library building is forthcoming.

The University of Hawaii, started fifteen years ago, has a present enrolment of about 500. A new library building is badly needed. The appropriation for this building has already been made, and ground will be broken as soon as the governor issues the 1923 bonds. The librarian and associate librarian are included as members of the faculty. This is also the government depository library, whose documents prove very valuable.

McKinley High School, the only public high school in Honolulu, has plans for a new library building. It has long outgrown its present quarters. Two of the new buildings on a larger site are almost completed, but the library building will probably come last. McKinley is doing remarkable work considering its cramped quarters. The library is in charge of a trained librarian who sends the overflow to the Library of Hawaii; the connection between the two libraries is entirely voluntary. We have high schools on each of the other large islands with part-time teacher-librarians. There is a chance for much growth in this phase of the work.

In all of the libraries already mentioned the conditions and problems are more or less the conditions and problems of mainland libraries. But with the younger children it is different. The majority of the children in our elementary schools are of foreign parentage and speak a foreign language in the homes. In the rural schools we have the children of plantation laborers, and in the cities the majority are those of ex-plantation laborers. About

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two per cent are from American homes. Naturally our method of approach is a unique problem. We have the county system as it is in California. These county libraries have deposit stations in most of the rural schools and in some of the city schools. Honolulu and Hilo children draw books directly from the public libraries. Statistics for the last two years show Honolulu juvenile circulation between two and three books per child for one year. In the country it is even less. Our future looks promising, however, as the last legislature appropriated a special fund of $30,000 for school circulating libraries. This will relieve the congestion and enable us to extend our work in all directions.

Two steps have been taken which will be of definite help in our extended program. (1) A list of about 300 books has been compiled to suit the needs of our immigrant children. This is used as a guide for the recreational reading in the schools of the children and is arranged in steps for the aid of the teacher but ungraded so that the children feel free to read books suited to their tastes and knowledge of the English language. (2) Two demonstration libraries have been carried on for several years, one in Honolulu, and the other in a rural school on Oahu. These prove the practicability of establishing libraries with trained librarians in all of the large rural and city schools.

The library at Kalihiwæna School started in 1919 with a part-time librarian from the Library of Hawaii. This school is in the outskirts of Honolulu in one of our poorest districts. The children are largely of Japanese, Portuguese, and Hawaiian parentage. At the start the conditions were fully as hopeless as in any rural school but the four years of intensive work has shown rapid improvement. They now have a full-time librarian and a library of 700 volumes purchased with money raised by the children through entertainments. They supplement this with books from the Library of Hawaii. They are still without a library room and keep the books in an enlarged closet. Their reading-room expands out into the hall and upon the second-story balcony or lanai. What matter if the books have to be carried back and forth each day! It is picturesque, with library round tables having a background of tree-tops and birds, and we can endure inconveniences most cheerfully when they do not interfere with the spirit of the work.

The library in Waialua plantation school started about the same time. They began in the principal's own parlor but are now settled in a delightful room of their own in the new concrete building with a librarian in charge. They also have the beginnings of their own library, the money for books being raised by the children themselves. Other schools have encouraged the library work also, and a number have part-time teacher librarians. The new school buildings are all being equipped with separate library rooms.

The inspirational work with the children must begin with the teachers. For that reason our extended program centers about the Normal School. Library work has grown rapidly under the present administration. The trained librarian has a part-time teacher-librarian and one training teacher each month as assistants. The training teacher spends the entire month under the librarian's direction. The extended program for the coming year calls for another training teacher each month to be under the direction of a libra-

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rian from the Library of Hawaii. This will make it possible to start libraries in two n ore schools, each occupying new buildings with empty library rooms awaiting us. A normal course in simple library technique and one in children's reading will prepare training teachers for this special practice work.

The Library of Hawaii has been in existence ten years. Each year makes us realize more fully its importance. We have had to recognize the fact that the children and even the parents will read practically nothing but fairy tales. We must supply them with all that has come down to us as a heritage from our ancestors; we must revive the art of story-telling, of folk ballads, and hero tales. They prefer the best of the world's great literature to modern fanciful tales. And we are now beginning to see results. In our two demonstration libraries and at the public libraries we find that when this course is pursued the time comes when the child has had enough, and then comes the great awakening.

LIBRARY PROBLEMS IN TRAINING TEACHERS

MABEL ZOE WILSON, LIBRARIAN, STATE NORMAL SCHOOL
BELLINGHAM, WASHINGTON, CHAIRMAN

The chairman announced that normal-school librarians should acquain themselves with the aims of the Publicity Committee of the Library Department of the National Education Association and use it as a clearance-house for the exchange of methods, devices, and activities. She offered this criticism that as a group, normal-school librarians do not realize that they have a highly specialized type of library work and that they should develop it as such.

Though the meeting was brief, the following subjects were contributed and discussed, following an invitation from the chairman to suggest many topics which could be announced as worthy of future reports and thought:

1. Place of library instruction in the curriculum. Required or elective? Should formal class assistance be contributed by members of the faculty?
2. By whom is children's reading taught? Are the juvenile books more effectively placed in the training school or in the library?
3. Normal schools, a logical place to train students who have completed the four-year courses for the position of high-school librarian.
4. Coöperating with graduates of the normal schools by lending books.
5. Chief function of the library is to unify the work of the whole school.
6. Methods of cataloging and classifying books which are peculiar to normal-school libraries, such as methods, mental tests, psychology of subjects, grading.

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CONFERENCE ON READING CIRCLES

WILLIS H. KERR, LIBRARIAN OF THE KANSAS STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE, EMPORIA, KANSAS, CHAIRMAN

Mr. D. F. Nickols, State manager, Illinois Reading Circle, Lincoln, Illinois, explained the system which is used in his State for advancing reading among teachers and pupils.

Mr. W. H. Kerr described the "Kansas Friends of Reading," a club which the Kansas State Teachers College at Emporia has organized to arouse interest in reading worth-while books among all the inhabitants of Kansas. This club sent its organization and stencils to all other libraries in the State and asked them to organize on the same basis. Great enthusiasm and a large membership constantly increasing were reported.

Various other informal reports and suggestions were given, showing that all types of libraries are assuming a large responsibility in directing and stimulating reading among teachers and pupils.

Extension classes for teachers; clubs and diplomas for pupils; renewals of certificates pending the reading of prescribed books; book lists distributed by libraries and published in local newspapers.

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Department of Music Education

President—GLENN H. WOODS, Director of Music.....Oakland, Calif.
Secretary—MAYBELLE GLENN, Director of Music.....Kansas City, Mo.

MONDAY AFTERNOON, JULY 2, 1923

FREMONT HIGH SCHOOL ORCHESTRA, 65 Players.—Full instrumentation, A. C. Olker, leader.

March—"American Destiny".....Holmes
First Movement "Fifth Symphony".....Beethoven
Intermezzo—"Columbine".....Wallace Smith
Selection from "Wonderland".....Victor Herbert

ADDRESS—John J. Landsbury, dean of music, University of Oregon.

SONG DEMONSTRATION, Sixth Grade, Cole School—Miss Gardiser, leader.

BOYS' GLEE CLUB, 30 voices, Golden Gate Junior High School—Irene Mackinder, leader.

Hark! I Hear a Voice.....College Song
Alma Mater.....Old American Tune
Vive L'Amour.....College Song
Down in Mobile.....Southern Song
Mosquito's Serenade.....Loomis
Our School Will Shine.....Popular Tune

STRING ENSEMBLE, Technical High School—Herman Trutner, Jr., leader.

ENSEMBLE

(a) Molly on the Shore.....Grainger

TRIO

(a) The Song of a Rose.....Lutte
(b) Norwegian Dance.....Grieg

'CELLO SOLO

Cantalina from Concerta.....Goltermann
Joziena Vander Ende

STRING QUARTETTE

Allegro Moderato from Quartette in F Major.....Mozart

ENSEMBLE

(a) Valse—Flirtation.....Steck

First Violins—Charles Cushing, Maude Steynor and Majorie Mallon.
Second Violins—Elsie Kaufman and Marion Augenstein.
Violas—Irma Naderer and Sterling Hunkins.
'Cello—Joziena Vander Ende.
Bass—Zo Holden.
Piano—Virginia Spencer.

THURSDAY AFTERNOON, JULY 5, 1923

ARION TRIO

Josephine Holub, first violin.
Margaret Avery, 'cello.
Mrs. Joyce Holloway Barthelson, piano.

Molto Allegro.....Mendelssohn
(From Trio in C Minor)
'Cello Solo—Nocturne.....Chopin
(Margaret Avery)
Old Irish Air.....Grainger-Kreisler
Rondo.....Haydn

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PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS—Glenn H. Woods, director of music, Public Schools, Oakland, California.

ALEXANDER HAMILTON JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL ORCHESTRA (sixty members)—Fred R. J. Rau, leader.

March—"E Pluribus Unum".....Jewel
Overture—"Bridal Rose".....Lavallee
Selection—"Sullivan's Operatic Gems".....Arr. by Seredy
March—"Hamiltonian".....Rau

ADDRESS—Will C. Wood, State superintendent of schools, Sacramento, California.

ELECTION OF OFFICERS

The officers elected for 1923-24 are: *President,* Mrs. Elizabeth Carmichael, Fort Dodge, Iowa; *Secretary,* Laura Bryant, Ithaca, New York.

PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS—ABSTRACT

GLENN H. WOODS, DIRECTOR OF MUSIC, OAKLAND, CALIFORNIA

Music is ackowledged as the universal language. Language is supposed to be the power of expression among peoples. But music has never approached the universal standard. It is taught in nearly all the American public schools, but it has never, in any manner, approached its general efficiency as a subject carrying both pedagogical and educational values. It remains for the teachers of music in the public schools to increase their efficiency in teaching that they may the sooner convince the educators and administrators that music may play a much larger part in the attention of the American child. If it is to be universally taught, the piano is the one instrument which should receive more general attention and in order to teach in larger quantities, demands class methods and equipment to carry on this type of instruction. Next comes the voice. Nearly every individual that can talk can sing and the cultivation of the singing voice unquestionably improves the speaking voice, and there are few public speakers who would not profit both for their own comfort as well as the comfort of those who try to listen, since the carrying power of the speaking voice could be increased by a training of the singing voice. This again requires class methods. Music teachers have to learn to instruct groups, and few of them have had sufficient pedagogical training to be expert in this type of instruction.

Musical appreciation is a more vital factor to an individual who can perform music in some manner and to the most highly sensitive appreciation of art when it is not without some musical power of appreciation. While it cannot be denied that the mechanical player and sound-recording instruments have added measurably to the musical culture of this country, it is more than vital that the rising generation should be taught to perform and acquire a musical technique of some kind whether it be instrumental or vocal.

Our educational system is largely emphasizing the academic subjects and it is no reason why the American boy and girl cannot acquire the art

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of music as well as the boys and girls of foreign countries. The pupils in the American schools, especially, can acquire just as good musical training as any group of students from any other country in the world. It remains, therefore, for the school systems of this country to invest sufficient funds in musical equipment to make it possible for American people and schools to acquire a good musical education, to be able to appreciate the fine artists that come to us from other nations, and at the same time to become so proficient that they can take their place in the American symphony, the American opera associations, and the American concert performers along with their foreign cousins.

The average child exposed to musical training acquires it with the same ease that he does any other subject, or any other technique, and it remains for those of us who are the public school teachers of America to insist that wider opportunity be given our boys and girls to acquire this musical training.

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Department of Normal Schools

President—J. C. BROWN, State Teachers College.....St. Cloud, Minn.
Secretary—ERNEST SILVER, State Normal School.....Plymouth, New Hampshire

TUESDAY AFTERNOON, JULY 3, 1923

ATTAINABLE IDEALS IN NORMAL SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES

INDUSTRIAL AND FINE ARTS IN EDUCATION—Samuel M. Hadden, State Teachers' College, Greeley, Colorado.

ADDRESS—W. W. Kemp, State Teachers' College, San Jose, California.

ADDRESS—John F. Sims, president, State Normal School, Stevens Point, Wisconsin.

ADDRESS—Irving Outcalt, head of the Department of English, State Normal School, San Diego, California.

After some discussion it was decided to leave the election of officers to a committee of which Dr. J. C. Brown, president of State Teachers College, St. Cloud, Minnesota, is chairman. The matter will be attended to as soon as the summer meeting-place is decided upon.

A MEASURING STICK FOR LIBRARIES OF TEACHER-TRAINING INSTITUTIONS

A REVISED AND ENLARGED STATEMENT, PRESENTED BEFORE THE NORMAL SCHOOL LIBRARIES' ROUND TABLE OF THE AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION AT HOT SPRINGS, ARKANSAS, APRIL 24, 1923, BY W. H. KERR, LIBRARIAN, KANSAS STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE OF EMPORIA, AND CHAIRMAN OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION COMMITTEE ON NORMAL SCHOOL LIBRARIES.

A measuring stick is needed for normal school and teachers' college libraries. How large a library staff should a normal school of 750 students have? How large a library fund? How many books are needed in the library of a teachers' college of 1500 students? How much floor space and how many rooms in the library building? What library instruction should be given?

Administrators, boards of regents, faculty committees and librarians of teacher-training institutions are asking questions like these. There ought to be an authoritative answer. For until these institutions have adequate library service, resulting in teachers trained to know the true value and use of libraries in education, all types of education will be deficient and all types of libraries will fail of their highest usefulness.

A preliminary statement of standards for libraries in normal schools and teachers' colleges was issued in December, 1921, by the following committee.[1]

[1] William C. Bagley, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York; Mary J. Booth, librarian, State Teachers College, Charleston, Illinois; W. M. Davidson, superintendent of schools, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania; O. M. Dickerson, president, States Teachers College, Moorehead, Minnesota; Martha Caroline Pritchard, librarian, Detroit Teachers College, Detroit, Michigan; Mary C. Richardson, librarian, State Normal School, Geneseo, New York; Alexander C. Roberts, associate in education, University of Washington, Seattle, and Willis H. Kerr, librarian, Kansas State Teachers College, Emporia, Kansas, chairman, to whom correspondence should be addressed.

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on Normal School Libraries of the National Education Association, Library Department. Each member of the committee signed the original statement, which is included in the enlarged statement. The "Measuring Stick" was published complete in *School and Society* for December 31, 1921; in *Public Libraries* for January, 1922; in *Educational Administration and Supervision* for February, 1922; slightly abridged in the *Journal of the National Educational Association* for April, 1922. It was commended editorially by many educational and library periodicals, notably by the *Educational Review* of May, 1922. By its use various librarians have obtained larger appropriations, more assistants, more room, more recognition of library instruction, and better academic and institutional standing for the library and the librarian. Architects, presidents, and State boards have used it in planning library buildings, and State library commissions and supervisors have made it the basis of conferences with teachers and administrators.

The following enlarged statement is prepared by the chairman of the committee after sixteen months of correspondence and discussion. It is accompanied by a score card by which any teacher-training library may measure itself with the standards set up. Proceeding from a summary of the score cards and the ensuing discussion, the committee plans to issue a detailed "measuring stick," going into many of the practical problems of library organization, administration, and use in teacher-training institutions, with floor plans, photographs of rooms and equipment, and a statistical showing of conditions and practices.

The additions made in the present edition are the sections on high school and exhibit rooms, stacks and shelving, library apparatus, hours of service per week, handling of textbooks, expenditures for periodicals and binding, and student assistants.

The "measuring stick" is not an attempt to approximate present conditions. It is hoped that the standards set up are reasonably attainable. The underlying belief is that no educational institution is better than its library; further, that the proper training of teachers is of the utmost importance and worthy of adequate support.

HOW TO READ THE FOLLOWING TABLES

The "measuring stick" is in two parts: (A) For four-year teachers' colleges; (B) for two-year normal schools. The figures for each are given on a basis of a minimum average winter enrolment of 500 and 300 students, respectively, with increments for each additional 500 or 300 student enrolment or major fraction thereof, respectively. For example, a four-year teachers college of 850 students should have a library fund, other than salaries and building maintenance, of $9000 per year—$6000 for its first 500 students, and $3000 increment for its additional 350 students. Proper allowances should be made for enlarged personnel and facilities to serve large summer-school enrolments.

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A. FOUR-YEAR TEACHERS' COLLEGES

For Initial Enrolment of 500 Students:

	No.	Sq. ft.	Readers accom.	Increment for each add. 500 students: No.	Sq. ft.	Readers
I. Building and Equipment:						
1. Library building, with following rooms or depts.:						
(a) Reading	1	2500	100	1	1500	75
(b) Reference	1	1250	50	1	1250	50
(c) Periodical	1	1000	50	.	400	25
(d) Children's	2	1000	50	.	500	25
(e) High school	.	...	..	2	1500	40
(f) Library classroom	1	750	60 seats	.	...	..
(g) Cataloging	1	300	..	.	...	..
(h) Work rooms	2	400	..	.	...	..
(i) Office	1	300	..	1	200	..
(j) Exhibit room	.	...	..	1	800	..
2. Book Stock:			Vols.			Vols.
(a) For general circulation and assigned reading			20000			10000
(b) Special reference, including bound periodicals			7500			2000
(c) Children's			2500			1000
Total			30000			13000
3. Equipment:						
(a) Stacks and shelving sufficient to accommodate double the above initial bookstock plus two double increments: *i. e.*, 108,000 vols...				Provide possibility of expanding stacks as needed.		
(b) Illustrative material	Statement to be developed					
(c) Furniture						
(d) Library apparatus, such as: Mimeograph, swinging bulletin boards, map cabinets, lantern for exhibit or classroom, photostat.						
4. Hours of Service:						
(a) Per week	72 hours			For first increment 12 hours		
II. Library Fund:						
1. At disposal of librarian, (not including salaries, building maintenance, or purchase of textbooks).	Amount per year $6000			Amount per year $3000		
(a) For example, expenditures for periodicals and continuations should be about: 250 titles.....	$1000			50 titles $200		
(b) Binding allowance	$1000			$500		
III. Librarian and Staff:						
1. Qualifications:						
(a) Librarian: A. B. or A. M., plus one or two years' training in approved library school, or five years conspicuously successful library experience; plus five years' successful teaching, or library experience, preferably both.						
(b) Staff members: A. B., plus one or two years' library school training, plus two years' teaching.						

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2. Academic Status:		
(a) Librarian: Full professor, head of a department, with vote.		
(b) Staff: All to rank at least as instructors; library department heads with sufficient academic attainments to rank as associate professors.		
3. Personnel:	Number	Number
(a) Librarian	1	
(b) Staff:		
Reference and library instructors	1	
Cataloger	1	
Children's librarian	1	
Loan desk	2	
	— 5	2
(c) Student assistants, averaging four hours per day each	4	2
4. Duties:		
(a) Not including general college clerical work or care of textbooks, except by student assistants.		
5. Salaries:		
(a) Librarian: On par with professor of English or other important department heads.		
(b) Staff: On par with better-paid instructors and associate professors.		
(c) Student assistants: From 25c. to 35c. per hour.		
IV. Library Instruction:		
1. Use of the library, at least 12 lessons of freshmen, taught by member of library staff.		
2. Children's literature, required, three semester hours credit.		
3. Elective courses, with credit such as library organization, bibliography and reference work.		

B. TWO-YEAR NORMAL SCHOOLS

For Initial Enrolment of 300 Students:

I. Building and Equipment: 1. Rooms:	No.	Sq. ft.	Readers accom.	Increment for each add. 300 students No.	Sq. ft.	Readers
(a) Reading and periodical	1	1875	75	1	1250	50
(b) Reference	1	500	25	.	500	25
(c) Children's	1	1000	40	.	500	20
(d) Library classroom	1	600	50 seats	.	...	..
(e) Cataloging and work-room	1	225	..	1	200	..
(f) Office	1	180	..	.	...	..

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1. Book Stock:		
(a) For general circulation and assigned reading	Vols. 15000	Vols. 5000
(b) Special reference, including bound periodicals	3000	1000
(c) Children's	2000	1000
Total	20000	7000
3. Equipment:		
(a) Stacks or shelving sufficient to accommodate double the above initial bookstock: *i. e.*, 40,000 vols.		
(b) Illustrative material	Statement	
(c) Furniture	to be	
(d) Library apparatus	developed	
4. Hours of service:		
(a) Per week	50 hours	6 hours
II. Library Fund:		
1. At disposal of librarian (not including salaries, building maintenance, or purchase of textbooks).	Amount per year $2500	Amount per year $1000
(a) For example, expenditures for periodicals and continuations should be about: for 100 titles..	$400	20 titles $100
(b) Binding allowance	$400	$100
III. Librarian and Staff:		
1. Qualifications:		
(a) Librarian: A. B. or A. M., plus one year training in approved library school; plus three years' successful library or teaching experience, preferably both.		
(b) Staff members: A. B., plus one year library school training; plus one year teaching experience.		
2. Academic Status:		
(a) Librarian: Full professor with vote.		
(b) Staff: Rank as instructors.		
3. Personnel:		
(a) Librarian (and library instructor?)	Number 1	Number
(b) Staff:		
Ref. and Children's librarian.	1	
Cataloger	1	
Loan desk, etc	1	
	— 3	1
(c) Student assistants, averaging four hours per day each	3	2
4. Duties:		
(a) Not including general school clerical work or care of textbooks, except by student assistants.		

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5. Salaries:
   (a) Librarian: On par with the professor of English.
   (b) Staff: On par with better-paid instructors of English.
   (c) Student assistants: From 25c. to 35c. per hour.

IV. Library Instruction:

1. Use of the Library, at least 12 lessons required of freshmen, taught by member of library staff.
2. Children's literature, required, three semester hours credit.

SCORE CARD FOR USE WITH THE "MEASURING STICK"

Institution	Place
Number Years College Work Offered	Average Winter Enrolment
Average Summer Enrolment	Date of Founding
Number on Faculty	Librarian

I. Building and Equipment:	*Standard amounts required on basis above winter enrolment* No.	Sq. ft.	Readers accom.	*Actual present amounts* No.	Sq. ft.	Readers
1. Library building, with following rooms or depts.						
(a) Reading						
(b) Reference						
(c) Periodical						
(d) Children's						
(e) High school						
(f) Libr. classr.						
(g) Cataloging						
(h) Work rooms						
(i) Office						
(j) Exhibit room						
2. Book Stock:			Vols.			Vols.
(a) General circ.						
(b) Special reference						
(c) Children's						
Totals						
3. Equipment:			Vols.			Vols.
(a) Stacks and shelving accommodating						
(b) Illustrative material				Attach separate list of these items		
(c) Furniture						
(d) Library apparatus	No standards set See list					
4. Hours of Service:			Hours			Hours
(a) Per Week						

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II. Library Fund:	Amounts per year	Amounts per year
1. Total:		
Subdivided:	....titles	....titles
(a) Periodicals		
(b) Binding		
(c) Supplies		
(d) Books		
III. Librarian and Staff:	*Standard qualifications and amounts*	*Actual qualifications or amounts*
1. Qualifications:		
(a) Librarian	1. A. B. or A. M.	1.
	2. 1 or 2 years' library school, or 5 years' successful library experience.	2.
	3. 5 years succ. teach. exper., or add. succ. libr. exper., or both.	3.
(b) Staff members	1. A. B.	1.
	2. 1, or 2 years' library school.	2.
	3. 2 years' teaching.	3.
2. Academic Status:	1. Full professor.	1.
(a) Librarian	2. Head of department.	2.
	3. With vote.	3.
(b) Staff	1. Instructors, at least.	1.
	2. Assoc. Prof., if suffic. acad. attainments.	2.
3. Personnel:	Number	Number
(a) Librarian		
(b) Staff		
Ref. & Library instruction		
Cataloger		
Children's librn.		
Loan desk		
(c) Student assistants		
4. Duties:	Not including general college clerical work or care of textbooks, except by student assistants.	
5. Salaries:		
(a) Librarian:	On par with professor of English or other important department heads.	
(b) Staff	On par with better-paid instructors and associate professor.	
(c) Student assistants	25c. to 35c. per hour.	
IV. Library Instruction:	1. Use of Library—At least 12 lessons required of freshmen.	
	2. Children's literature—Required. 3 semester hours.	
	3. Other elective courses:	
	(a) Library organization.	
	(b) Reference work.	
	(c) Book selection.	
	(d) Cataloging.	

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Department of Physical Education

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

OFFICERS

President—ETHEL PERRIN, Assistant Director of Health Education.....Detroit, Michigan
Secretary—WILLIAM BURDICK, M. D., Director of Public School Athletic League, Baltimore, Maryland

The Department of Physical Education, together with the Department of Child Hygiene merged its sessions with the International Health Conference, which was part of the World Conference on Education. The papers of the International Health Conference have been compiled into a report by the American Child Health Association, 370 Seventh Avenue, New York City. The program follows:

BEHAVIORISTIC PSYCHOLOGY AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION—Dr. Herbert R. Stolz, supervisor of physical education, State Board of Education, California; discussed by Mr. Hjelte, director of physical education in the public schools of Berkeley, California.

TRADITIONAL ATHLETICS FOR GIRLS—Alta Sims, director of physical education of the Oakland Public Schools.

A NEW PROGRAM IN PHYSICAL EDUCATION FOR GIRLS—Florence D. Alden, director of the School of Physical Education, University of Oregon. These last two papers were discussed by Dr. R. Tait McKenzie, professor of physical education, University of Pennsylvania.

COORDINATION OF HEALTH TEACHING AND THE PLAY ACTIVITY PROGRAM—Marguerite M. Hussey, director of physical education for women, State Teachers College, Fresno, California; discussed by M. B. Nash, director of physical education and play activities in Oakland, California.

REPORT ON A CONFERENCE ON ATHLETICS AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION FOR WOMEN AND GIRLS, HELD IN WASHINGTON, D. C., APRIL 6-7, 1923—Helen Bunting, assistant professor and director of physical education for women, Stanford University, California; discussed by Helen McKinstry, director of the Central School of Physical Education, New York.

Resolutions drawn up by the following committee will be printed at the end of the report on the Physical Education Section of the International Health Education Conference: Dr. William Burdick, of the U. S. A.; Mr. Thomas Yuan, of China; Signor Jorge Orozco, of Costa Rica; Mr. Joshiza Sano, of Japan; Mr. J. B. Nash, of the U. S. A.

The department held a business meeting on July 2, at 2:00 o'clock in the Hotel Fairmont, San Francisco. In the absence of the secretary, Dr. Thomas D. Wood, of Columbia University, acted as chairman.

The following resolution was passed: "*Resolved*, That this department hereafter be called the Department of Physical and Health Education."

The names of the newly elected officers of this department are: President, J. B. Nash, supervisor of physical education of the public schools, Oakland, California; vice-president, William Burdick, M. D., State supervisor of physical education, Baltimore, Maryland; secretary, Charles H. Keene, M. D., State supervisor of bureau of health education, State Department, Harrisburg, Pennsylvania.

The meeting was attended by between two and three hundred people, and was said to be one of the best international health meetings ever held.

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Department of Rural Education

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

CLEVELAND MEETING

OFFICERS

President—C. G. SARGENT, Agricultural College.....Fort Collins, Colorado
Vice-President—AMALIA M. BENGTSON, Superintendent, Renville County Schools..Olivia, Minn.
Secretary—MABEL CARNEY, Teachers College, Columbia University.....New York, New York
Treasurer—WILLIAM MCKINLEY ROBINSON, Junior-Senior High School.....Orleans, Vermont

FIRST SESSION—TUESDAY AFTERNOON, FEBRUARY 27, 1923

Facts and Future of the County Superintendency

THE SACRIFICE OF COUNTY SUPERINTENDENTS IN THE RECENT ELECTION AND SOME OF ITS CAUSES—Minnie J. Nielson, State Superintendent of Education, Bismarck, North Dakota.

REPORT OF THE N. E. A. COMMITTEE ON COUNTY SUPERINTENDENTS' PROBLEMS—Lee L. Driver, Director of Rural Education, State Department of Education, Harrisburg, Pennsylvania.

TWO DECADES UNDER A COUNTY BOARD OF EDUCATION—C. G. Cooper, County Superintendent of Schools, Baltimore, Maryland.

THE NEXT STEP TOWARD PROFESSIONALIZING THE OFFICE OF COUNTY SUPERINTENDENT—Charl O. Williams, Field Secretary, National Education Association, Washington, D. C.

GENERAL DISCUSSION.

ANNOUNCEMENTS AND PRELIMINARY BUSINESS.

TUESDAY EVENING, FEBRUARY 27, 1923

Joint Program with Department of Superintendence, National Association of Secondary School Principals, and the Department of Elementary School Principals

RURAL ADDRESS—THE ECONOMIC BACKGROUND OF RURAL EDUCATION—Aaron Sapiro, Attorney for Farmers' Coöperative Associations, 120 Broadway, New York City.

SECTION MEETINGS

Section I—State Supervisors and Inspectors of Rural Schools

WEDNESDAY AFTERNOON, FEBRUARY 28, 1923

Chairman, John M. Foote, State Department of Education
Baton Rouge, Louisiana
Secretary, Isobel M. Davidson, State Department of Education
Madison, Wisconsin

Instructional Supervision from the Point of View of the State Rural School Supervisor

WHAT IS INSTRUCTIONAL SUPERVISION?—Fannie W. Dunn, Professor of Rural Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.

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WHAT ARE THE ACTIVITIES OF THE STATE SUPERVISOR THAT DIRECTLY INFLUENCE THE RESULTS OF INSTRUCTION?—William J. Holloway, State Department of Education, Baltimore, Maryland.

HOW TO INTEREST RURAL SUPERVISORS AND TEACHERS IN THE OBJECTIVE MEASUREMENT OF CLASSROOM RESULTS—S. S. Brooks, District Superintendent, Winchester, New Hampshire.

A STATE PROGRAM FOR IMPROVING INSTRUCTION IN READING—Isobel M. Davidson, State Department of Education, Madison, Wisconsin.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE INVESTIGATING THE QUESTION: THE ORGANIZATION AND ACTIVITIES OF RURAL SCHOOL DIVISIONS IN STATE DEPARTMENTS OF EDUCATION—N. Searle Light, State Department of Education, Hartford, Connecticut.

BUSINESS MEETING.

Section II—County Superintendents and Rural School Supervisors

WEDNESDAY AFTERNOON, FEBRUARY 28, 1923

Chairman, J. S. Hoffman, Superintendent of School, Hunterdon County Flemington, New Jersey
Secretary, Agnes Samuelson, Superintendent of Schools, Page County Clarinda, Iowa

The Instructional Supervision of Local Rural Schools

PART OF THE STATE ELEMENTARY SUPERVISOR IN THE INSTRUCTIONAL SUPERVISION OF RURAL SCHOOLS—Roy L. Shaffer, Assistant State Commissioner of Elementary Education, Trenton, New Jersey.

PART OF THE COUNTY SUPERINTENDENT IN EFFECTIVE RURAL SCHOOL SUPERVISION—A. G. Yawberg, Superintendent of Schools, Cuyahoga County, Cleveland, Ohio.

PART OF THE COUNTY RURAL SUPERVISOR—Maud Newbury, Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C.

GRADE AND SUBJECT-MATTER SPECIALIZATION VERSUS GEOGRAPHIC DISTRICTING IN THE SUPERVISION OF RURAL SCHOOLS—H. E. Hall, Superintendent of Schools, Wood County, Bowling Green, Ohio; Elizabeth K. Rucker, Rural School Supervisor, Dorchester County, Cambridge, Maryland.

MOTION PICTURE FILM ON RURAL SCHOOL SUPERVISION—Presented and Explained by Mrs. Katherine M. Cook, Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C.

BUSINESS MEETING.

Section III—Rural Normal Directors

WEDNESDAY AFTERNOON, FEBRUARY 28, 1923

Chairman, Leslie B. Sipple, Normal School, Aberdeen, South Dakota
Secretary, M. S. Pittman, Normal College, Ypsilanti, Michigan

RURAL TEACHER-TRAINING IN THE COUNTY NORMAL CLASSES OF OHIO—T. Howard Winters, Inspector of Teacher-Training, Department of Education, Columbus, Ohio.

RURAL EDUCATION ACTIVITIES IN STATE TEACHERS COLLEGES—Charles McKenny, President, State Normal College, Ypsilanti, Michigan.

THE COÖPERATION OF COUNTY SUPERINTENDENTS IN THE PREPARATION OF RURAL TEACHERS—J. T. McKee, Superintendent of Schools, Colbert County, Tuscumbia, Alabama.

PRACTICAL STANDARDS FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF RURAL EDUCATION DEPARTMENTS IN NORMAL SCHOOLS AND TEACHERS COLLEGES—Rosamond Root, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.

GENERAL DISCUSSION.

BUSINESS MEETING.

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Section IV—Vocational Directors and Rural Extension Workers

Chairman, W. J. Wright, Cornell College of Agriculture, Ithaca, New York
Secretary—Gertrude Warren, States Relations Service, Department of Agriculture Washington, D. C.

Section V—Village and Consolidated School Principals

WEDNESDAY AFTERNOON, FEBRUARY 28, 1923

Chairman, C. C. Swain, State Teachers College, Cedar Falls, Iowa
Secretary, Thomas J. Smart, University of Kansas, Lawrence, Kansas

POSSIBILITIES OF THE VILLAGE HIGH SCHOOL IN AMERICAN LIFE—C. D. Steiner, Superintendent of Schools, Pandora, Ohio.
EDUCATIONAL ACTIVITIES AND COMMUNITY SERVICE OF THE FERGUS COUNTY HIGH SCHOOL, LEWISTOWN, MONTANA—F. L. Cummings, Principal, Lewistown, Montana.
THE CURRICULUM OF THE CONSOLIDATED AND VILLAGE HIGH SCHOOL—A. C. Fuller, Assistant Director of Extension, State Teachers College, Cedar Falls, Iowa.
GENERAL DISCUSSION.
BUSINESS MEETING.

THURSDAY MORNING, MARCH 1, 1923

Joint Meeting with County Superintendents' Section, Department of Superintendence

Chairman, J. S. Hoffman, Superintendent of Schools, Hunterdon County Flemington, New Jersey

Rural School Administration and the County Unit

NECESSITY OF THE COUNTY UNIT FOR THE EFFICIENT ADMINISTRATION OF RURAL SCHOOLS—Benjamin J. Burris, State Superintendent of Education, Indianapolis, Indiana.
THE COUNTY UNIT IN OPERATION—T. H. Harris, State Superintendent of Education, Baton Rouge, Louisiana.
COUNTY UNIT ORGANIZATION AND CONSOLIDATION—C. L. Coon, Superintendent of Schools, Wilson County, Wilson, North Carolina.
HOW TO SECURE THE COUNTY UNIT—May Trumper, State Superintendent of Schools, Helena, Montana.
EDUCATIONAL PUBLICITY AND THE COUNTY UNIT—M. S. Pittman, State Normal College, Ypsilanti, Michigan.
BUSINESS MEETING AND ELECTION OF OFFICERS.

THURSDAY AFTERNOON, MARCH 1, 1923

The Consolidation of Rural Schools

A STATE PROGRAM FOR RURAL SCHOOL IMPROVEMENT—Charles A. Lory, President of the State Agricultural College, Fort Collins, Colorado.
THE STANDARDIZATION OF CONSOLIDATED SCHOOLS—Macy Campbell, State Teachers College, Cedar Falls, Iowa.
THE PREPARATION OF TEACHERS AND PRINCIPALS FOR CONSOLIDATED SCHOOLS—Leslie B. Sipple, Normal School, Aberdeen, South Dakota.
REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON COMPARATIVE INSTRUCTION IN ONE-TEACHER AND CONSOLIDATED RURAL SCHOOLS—John M. Foote, State Rural Agent, Baton Rouge, Louisiana.
GENERAL DISCUSSION LED BY—Hilda M. Hughes, Superintendent of Schools, La Grange County, La Grange, Indiana.

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THURSDAY EVENING, MARCH 1, 1923

Dinner for County Superintendents and Rural School Specialists

Toastmaster, C. G. Sargent, President of the Department and Professor of Rural Education, State Agricultural College, Fort Collins, Colorado

THE MILLENNIUM IN RURAL EDUCATION: WHAT WILL BRING IT AND WHEN MAY WE EXPECT IT? (Speakers, five minutes each)—Thomas E. Finegan, Commissioner of Education, Harrisburg, Pennsylvania; W. C. Bagley, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City; U. J. Hoffman, State Supervisor of Rural Schools, Springfield, Illinois; Elizabeth Kelly, State Director of Adult Education, Raleigh, North Carolina; Marie Turner Harvey, Porter Rural School, Kirksville, Missouri; A. F. Harman, County Superintendent of Schools, Montgomery, Alabama; Florence M. Hale, State Rural Agent, Augusta, Maine; T. S. Davis, County Superintendent of Schools, Altoona, Pennsylvania; William L. Mercer, County Superintendent of Schools, Rochester, Minnesota; John J. Tigert, U. S. Commissioner of Education, Washington, D. C.

The annual business meeting of the Department of Rural Education was held in the Ball Room of the Cleveland Hotel, Thursday forenoon, March 1, at 11:45 A. M. The report of the Secretary was received at this time. Following this resolutions were presented by Mrs. Katherine M. Cook, of the U. S. Bureau of Education, and unanimously approved by the members present.

The Committee on Nominations then made its report recommending Macy Campbell, of Cedar Falls, Iowa, for the presidency of the Department and N. R. Baker, of Birmingham, Alabama, for the vice-presidency. Several members wished to see a Southern representative chosen this time, however, and John M. Foote, of Baton Rouge, Louisiana, was nominated from the floor by M. S. Pittman, of Michigan. A count by ballot was then made resulting in the election of Mr. Foote by a vote of 73 to 29. Following this Mr. Campbell was immediately nominated for membership on the Executive Committee, however, and unanimously elected for a period of three years.

Under special business Mr. Lee Driver, of Pennsylvania, presented a resolution requesting the Department to approve the reorganized Board of Directors for the *Journal of Rural Education* and authorizing it to manage the magazine for a period of two years beginning March 1, 1923. This motion was carried unanimously.

Following this Dr. Ernest Burnham, of Kalamazoo, Michigan, chairman of the Board of Directors for the *Journal,* reported briefly on the subscription and financial outlook of the magazine as summarized in a statement prepared by the business manager. This report showed a record of 1115 paid-up subscribers with 408 unpaid, making a total of 1523 bona-fide supporters on February 20, 1923. The financial situation of the periodical was presented as being encouraging at this time.

Miss Amalia Bengtson, of Minnesota, then reported for the official session of the Executive Committee announcing the continuation of Mabel Carney, Teachers College, Columbia University, as secretary of the Department for the coming year and the choice of Mrs. Archie Beverley, of Whit-

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mell, Virginia, as treasurer. A motion for combining the annual membership dues of the Department with the *Journal* subscription for a total of $3 was by unanimous vote of the Executive Committee postponed for consideration until next year.

The session then adjourned.

In addition to the regular official business reported above the following motion was overwhelmingly adopted by the Rural Department at its program session on Tuesday afternoon, February 27:

"*Resolved,* That the Department of Rural Education of the National Education Association place itself on record as advocating the professional employment of county superintendents of schools by a County Board of Education elected by the people from the county at large on a non-partisan ticket."

This motion was originally presented by M. K. Clements, superintendent of schools, for Limestone County, Athens, Alabama, and amended to mention the non-partisan election by J. L. McBrien, of the Normal School at Terre Haute, Indiana.

RESOLUTIONS OF THE RURAL DEPARTMENT

We, the members of the Department of Rural Education, desire to avail ourselves of this opportunity to reiterate our belief in the importance of the education of rural children and to renew our devotion to this cause.

We extend our thanks and appreciation to the local committees on arrangement and entertainment who have assisted in every way to make the Cleveland meeting a momentous one; to the officers of the National Education Association and the Department of Superintendence for their courtesy and helpfulness; to the officers of our own department.

We wish to express our sincere appreciation of, and accord with, the movement becoming more and more general among State departments of education, to assume in those departments greater responsibility for the improvement of the rural schools, and of their efforts to bring about a greater degree of standardization and centralization, especially in such matters of State-wide import as adequate and equitable school support, certification of teachers, and similar education movements.

We wish to affirm our belief in the county as an efficient unit for the support, administration, and supervision of schools in those States in which the county is an important civil unit. We believe in a small board of education, elected at large, on a non-partisan ballot, having approximately the same powers, duties, and obligations now accorded city boards of education and economically and educationally independent of other governmental officers. We desire to emphasize again our confidence in the appointive method of selecting the county superintendent of schools, as opposed to the elective method. We confidently believe that only through administrative officers selected solely on the basis of professional qualifications and given an adequate staff of supervisors, can an efficient rural school system be secured.

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We call upon the officers of the U. S. Bureau of Education, the National Education Association, State Departments of Education, and others interested in the welfare of rural schools, to do all within their power to secure administrative organizations designed to secure in the several States results such as are indicated above.

We reiterate our belief in the necessity for carefully trained and adequately compensated rural teachers. We commend the several State teacher preparing institutions which have established, or are establishing, special departments of rural education for the training of administrators, supervisors, and teachers. We urge upon them the necessity of making entrance requirements to rural teacher preparing courses as high for rural as for city teachers, and of making the courses offered equivalent in value for both classes of teachers. We realize that unsatisfactory living conditions are among the things which prevent many qualified persons from entering the rural teaching profession. We believe that teachers' homes or teacherages, erected, owned, and controlled by boards of education, offer in most instances the best known solution for this condition. We, therefore, urge upon State Departments of Education and other school officers the necessity for action in this matter.

We commend the increasing amount of experimentation in the field of rural education, for the improvement of the organization and curricula of the various types of rural schools and for extending facilities for observation and practice to prospective teachers in the field of rural education; and all other experimental movements either in process or in contemplation. We pledge the services of the members of this department to all institutions and individuals engaged in this important phase of work.

We desire to express our appreciation and commendation of the excellence of the *Journal of Rural Education,* the official organ of this department, and we renew our pledges of support and encouragement. We urge upon all persons engaged in rural education to make an effort to extend, in every legitimate way, the influence of the *Journal* and of the Department of Rural Education.

KATHERINE M. COOK,
A. G. YAWBERG,
Committee.

THE ECONOMIC BACKGROUND OF RURAL EDUCATION[1]

AARON SAPIRO, ATTORNEY FOR FARMERS' COÖPERATIVE ASSOCIATIONS
120 BROADWAY, NEW YORK CITY

Agriculture may seem rather distant from education but, as a matter of fact, the prosperity of agriculture affects both rural and urban education directly. If farmers cannot make money from their crops, they cannot build schools nor pay good salaries to teachers. They also stop real prosperity in the cities which then begin to figure on economizing and economize chiefly on cultural institutions.

[1] An address delivered by Mr. Sapiro before the Departments of Rural Education and Superintendence at Cleveland, February 27, 1923.

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Educational and spiritual forces are of far greater importance than material matters, it is true, but the need for material things is more in evidence. The farmer is going to see that his children have something to eat and wear and a roof over their heads before he will worry much about the building of new schools or the payment of teachers. We who are somewhat in touch with agricultural conditions recognize that the economic facts of agriculture must be faced and the economic problems at least largely solved before you can effect any real rural educational system for this country.

The problems of the farm can be understood only when some attention is given to a study of farm economics. Thus far farmers have been in great difficulties. For more than three generations they have been searching for some solution of their problems. They go to you and the farm leader and the city man and ask, "What is the trouble? Why is it that we grow good products and the consumer pays good money for them in great quantities and yet we don't get enough out of the deal to sustain a decent standard of living on the farm?" And then you and the city man say, "It is supply and demand. That is the force that keeps you where you are and prevents you from making a decent living." Children are taught the same thing, and the boy in the city and the farmer's boy both grow up thinking that the farmer's life is foreordained to problems and that there is no particular way of settling those problems because supply and demand determine all the standards of living on the farm. This has been criminal to the farmer because it means that the men who have been directing the minds of the farm boys and even of the farmers themselves have failed to find out whether or not there are economic influences in agriculture which are different from those of other industries. They have failed to determine whether or not there are rules applying to ordinary factories which do not apply to agriculture. Thus they have failed to discover that some things can be solved for the farmer only when you put your finger on the distinctive features of agriculture. This is the primary and fundamental error, simple to point out, but of tremendous weight in any plan for reform.

The common laws and practices of industry are based on group production, on the factory system. This system is characteristic of our modern civilization and has been so for more than 120 years. On the basis of group production and group distribution through coöperation the States have created artificial things called *corporations*. Through these corporations group capital gets together for group production and with group production and group capital, you have group distribution which is based on the group viewpoint. All this is characteristic of industry and embodies practices you should teach boys and girls in the cities. But agriculture is totally different. The outstanding characteristic of agriculture is *individual production*. The farmer raises his product as an individual but when he comes to market it he bumps against a group problem. This problem he tries to solve *as an individual*, and he inevitably fails. All he can do is to throw his crops into the hands of crop and food speculators who exploit him on the one hand and the consumer on the other.

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Let me give you an illustration as applied to cotton. We have more than 1,000,000 families raising cotton in the South. When the cotton crop matures men bring it into the little towns to sell. They haven't any conception of its quality or grade. They have no conception of the staple length of cotton. They know nothing of the absorbing power of the markets. They don't know within a million bales what the annual crop is likely to be. They don't know whether the American mills are going to use two or twenty million bales. They don't know whether England has enough purchasing power to buy a million bales or not. They don't know the German situation. They don't know whether the Spanish or Belgian mills will take any cotton. Each planter comes blindly into the market and sells his crop. What he does is to throw his cotton on the market unintelligently and against every other man who has been ginning cotton at that time. They all throw cotton against cotton and break the price of the market, while the speculators sit on the side and buy it in. These speculators have financial connections to carry the crop and feed it out for twelve months' use. So they take the cotton from the grower and the grower goes home with an average family income of less than $400 a year on which to maintain his family of five—to feed them, clothe them, and buy them some chance at education.

Dumping is the only things individuals can do. They can't merchandise. They can't make sales according to the demand. They don't even realize the force of supply and demand because supply and demand, as a rule, works on a seasonable basis and never touches the individual problem of the farmer selling cotton down in Texas.

As a result 78 per cent of the farmers raising cotton haven't enough money to produce a crop except under crop liens. More than 75 per cent of them are tenants, not farm owners. Tenantry is increasing in every State of the Union in which cotton and commodities of its type are grown. You have a feudal system growing up right under your noses and still you teach these farm boys and girls that the determining factor is supply and demand, that this determines prices, and that nothing else can be done for farm economics.

This is all wrong because something can be done—If you understand the fundamental difference between the economics of the farm and the economics of ordinary industry and then teach the farmer how to build a system based on that difference from an economic point of view it will be easy enough to accomplish something for him. If you can show farmers how to take their individual units and organize those units until they can face their group problems *as a group,* then they can solve their problems and instead of getting eight cents out of the consumer's daily dollar they will get 48 cents from it without increasing costs to the consumer one single penny.

On that difference between the eight cents and the 48 cents, you can then have education, culture, decent standards of living, and everything that makes for better, finer, and more spiritual life on the farm.

But I don't want to talk to you in general terms. I am going to ask your indulgence for telling the story of one particular crop—the story of the Burley tobacco growers. Some of us may differ in respect to the use of

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tobacco, but that doesn't enter in here. What we will think about now is the marketing of tobacco and how that has affected the life of the growers.

Burley tobacco is a peculiar type of tobacco raised chiefly in Kentucky, Ohio, Tennessee, Missouri, and to some extent in Illinois. About 90,000 families in the United States are engaged in the production of this product. The whole family is involved generally because while the man of the family is the chief farmer and the boss of the job, his wife and children do a great deal of the work. For instance, they are charged with the particularly unpleasant task of going out and pulling the worms off the tobacco leaves—worms that are almost young snakes in size and appearance. The whole family works and as a result of this whole-family effort, up to 1921, including the war years, the average family income in the Burley tobacco areas was $330 a year. Is it any wonder that Kentucky was forty-third in rural education? Is it any wonder that those men never thought in terms of schools and teachers? What happened? They began to grow more or less desperate. They began to feel that something was wrong—that you were giving good money for tobacco and they were still facing the utmost kind of misery.

Judge Bingham down in Kentucky is the president of the *Courier Journal*. The bankers went to him because they were troubled. The local merchants were troubled also. The farmers had been buying food on credit all through the winter and at mighty high prices. The merchants, the country bankers, and the bank correspondents were in trouble. They appealed to Judge Bingham. He went to California and discovered that in California the farmers had faced their problem as far back as 1885 and from then on had experimented and worked out a method of coöperative marketing. So Judge Bingham went back to Kentucky and called a meeting of sixty of the real leaders. They got together and decided that the old system of selling tobacco must go and that they would put a new system of coöperative marketing in its place.

What was that old system? The farmer would cut the tobacco, dry it, separate the trash and leaves, and bring it into town to be sold. There were great warehouses here where the buyers from the big companies would pretend to bid against each other for this tobacco. In all this I was of the opinion there wasn't very much grading done. So as a test I managed to have them sell me one basket ten times over. We changed the tag and sold it all the way across the warehouse. As a result we got prices on that basket ranging from eight to twenty-eight cents a pound. The same man who bought it for twenty-eight cents had also bought it for eleven cents! This showed that even the buyers did not know what their grades were. They were simply walking up and down, offering the grower prices. If he didn't like the prices all he had to do was to leave the tobacco and sleep in his wagon over night, and eat the sandwiches he had brought with him, and put it back on the floor the next morning. If he didn't sell it that day he could sleep in his wagon again the next night and wait another day. But sooner or later he *had* to sell on the local auction floor because there was no other point at

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which he could get rid of his tobacco and the pressure of crop liens and merchant accounts forced him to sell somewhere.

Thus the farmers would take the price offered them and perhaps get their indignation up and call a meeting and try to force the politicians in Washington to provide a legal solution through federal legislation. Some days they would get even more desperate—days when the children were sick and they couldn't find enough money to call in a country doctor. Often the children had no shoes and stockings and they couldn't send them to school. Then they would wonder how the youngsters were going to grow up. Some of us remember those days of desperation and Judge Bingham feared that such days were coming again in 1920. So he said, "Let's tell the farmers about this individual dumping and show them that if they would get together and adopt a group method, they could solve their problem."

As a result we put on a real campaign in Kentucky. In less than four and a half months, we signed up 55,710 Burley tobacco growers to form one single, purely coöperative association. This association was organized among farmers without capital stock who signed agreements under which they were to deliver the tobacco, grade it, pool it by grades, and then sell it and deduct only the cost of doing business. The net proceeds were then to be paid over to the farmers themselves so that each would get the same as every other man for the same quantity and grade of tobacco.

The first problem of the new coöperative was to grade the tobacco. When this was undertaken all the buyers stood around and said, "You will never be able to grade tobacco." But coöperatives never employ amateurs. We always get the best men in the business and we pay them enough to warrant their coming to the coöperatives. We hardly think it right to demand a fair price for prunes and deny it to brains.

With this principle in mind we got Mr. James Stone, probably the ablest tobacco man in the United States from the grower's point of view, to work out our system of grading. Mr. Stone brought in other experts and they decided on fifty-three grades of Burley tobacco, as against the three old divisions the growers had formerly known. An expert from the Department of Agriculture said our scale was the most perfect system of grading he had ever heard of. At any rate it was the first time the growers had ever really known what they were bringing to market for sale. Thus we solved the grading problem.

Then we had to get places to receive and handle the tobacco. At this point we called in the warehouse men and explained to them that they had the warehouses but that we were going to have the tobacco, and we felt they had made enough money from the industry to give the growers a chance. We showed them with their own figures that the growers had bought and paid for those warehouses ten times over but that the warehouse men still owned them. What we wanted them to do was to turn the warehouses over to us and let us make a contract agreeing to buy them at an appraised or arbitrated value by deducting from the tobacco at the rate of one-fifth of the value each year. Well, the warehouse men considered our proposition and finally

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117 out of 130 signed such a contract. In this way we solved our warehouse problem and the growers began to deliver the tobacco.

Next the growers were in need of money. They had to have money the very day they delivered their tobacco because creditors were pressing them and they couldn't wait. We had to raise money on all the tobacco delivered to the association; otherwise we should have been forced to dump just as the original growers used to dump. But you will be interested to know that through the banks of Kentucky, Indiana, and Ohio, we raised $5,600,000 at a maximum interest of 6 per cent on the basis of which we made advance payments to all the growers.

Later we sent out our grades to the companies, told them we had the tobacco, that we knew they wouldn't discriminate, and asked if they would please get in touch with us. In reply one of the firms said: "We won't buy any tobacco until you sell again on the auction floor." We wrote back and told them we weren't going to sell on the auction floor that we were going to sell raw tobacco just as they sold manufactured tobacco and that we hoped they would come in and purchase.

Meanwhile Liggett and Myers sent down their two vice-presidents with a sheet of paper on which, to our amazement, was an order for 22,000,000 pounds. They presented this order without conditions and asked if we could sell it. The sole question was the price, and Mr. Stone with his committee named that price—actually made the price for which we sold the first big order of Burley tobacco to Liggett and Myers! Moreover it was a good, fair price. We know it was fair because we had kept a record of the purchases of The American Tobacco Company and others who were not in the association and we had a suspicion that they were making their offers high to dissatisfy our members. But, since they established the market that way, we took the market as they had made it and when they started in to purchase, we gave them a summary of their own sales and said: "You have established the market, and of course this association will follow the lead you have made."

Then others began to buy. Suddenly in came the man who had written that nasty letter about selling back on the auction floor and he wanted 20,000,000 pounds of tobacco. Mr. Stone told him that he couldn't have twenty million, that all he could have was ten million but that the price had gone up a bit. That was a fact for it really had increased since the first announcement. We discovered also that on certain grades of tobacco there should have been a higher price. So we told him he could buy at our second figure. He said he had to have just as good a chance as Liggett and Myers. We told him that if he had come in to purchase earlier he would have been entitled to the same price as Liggett and Myers, but that is was then too late. He stormed on, however, until Mr. Stone finally remarked: "It cost you about $1.60 to send us that threatening telegram, but now it is going to cost you $350,000 for having sent it." And it did, because he bought the tobacco at the increased price.

But I will cut the story short by saying we sold every pound of tobacco delivered to the Association. We sold it and paid off the cost of doing

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business and one fifth the cost of our warehouses and then settled with the growers at approximately 21 cents net after all these deductions. This was the first real operation for Burley tobacco. They are on the second year now and of this year's crop we have sold more than 130,000,000 pounds and the price thus far is over 30 cents a pound net. Does all this hurt any one? The price of Chesterfield cigarettes was not raised during the year and yet the firm which makes them paid dividends of more than $24 per share on their common stock last year as against $25 the previous year. The truth is you can take any of these commodities, raise the price for the grower, not raise it to the consumer, and still leave all the groups prosperous.

How prosperous? Why, down in Kentucky they say that this association has meant an increased spending power to the rural districts of from fifteen to sixteen million dollars. What does that mean? That doesn't mean that just the merchants have it. It means that the men who grew that wealth now have some purchasing power and are beginning to realize that they, by their own action, are really solving their own problem.

One merchant from Versailles, Kentucky, called on me to express his gratitude. "There is nothing for which you should thank me," I replied. But he went on to say: "I have been in business in Versailles for years and I tell you this is the first time in three years that the farmers have been coming in to buy shoes and stockings for their children. That is why we are thanking you men who have put over coöperative marketing in Kentucky."

In this there was much truth. For that extra fifteen million dollars does not mean mere money in Kentucky. It means shoes and stockings for the children, and for women as well, because some of them have had to go around barefoot too. It means better food; it means some partitions in these one-room houses; it means some windows mended, some roofs fixed, a little chance at some reading matter, a little more taxing power for the improvement of roads, and a little more revenue for building schools and employing teachers. It means, in short, that we are gradually building an economic foundation on which they will put a superstructure of intellectual advance.

I say this positively because I have seen this thing done. I have sketched only the Burley tobacco situation for you but I don't want you to think this is a possibility confined to but one commodity or one section. It is an old European practice but in this country we have had it chiefly and almost solely in California, and even there for only 17 years on a large scale. Californians, however, have applied this principle from strawberries to alfalfa—to eggs, beans, walnuts, almonds, peaches, oranges, apples, prunes, raisins, and all kinds of commodities produced on the Coast. They are applying it to cotton all through the South, to tobacco all over the tobacco section, to maple syrup in New York, to potatoes in Maine. It is a movement that is sweeping the country like fire and it is based simply on the fact that we are recognizing the distinction between the economic influences of agriculture and those of other industries.

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Haven't you sometimes wondered why California ranks first in rural schools? Haven't you ever considered why it is that the salaries of rural teachers are greater in California than the salaries of rural teachers in any other section of the country? Haven't you wondered why the rural libraries, recreation points, and churches in California have been developed as they have? It isn't on account of the movies. It is in spite of them! It isn't because of the cities of Los Angeles and San Francisco. It is solely and wholly because the farmers there have built an economic system which gives them a steady purchasing power and with that purchasing power they are buying education as well as other things. These farmers have voted taxes on themselves to build roads and schools and pay decent salaries to teachers. This they have done gladly because they want the best things in the world for their children. Haven't you wondered why the University of California is running ahead of Columbia in registration? The answer is simply that the boys and girls from the farm go to the University. They go to college and graduate and return to the farm because farming has been made not only economically attractive but capable of sustaining a mode of living that is just as sweet and fine as life in the best cities. California clearly demonstrates that all you need to do with farmers is to put a decent economic basis under agriculture and that they will then build on that basis the type of civilization of which you and I dream as the great American civilization.

I am tremendously interested in hammering this into an audience of educators because you are the folks who can do more on this question than all the lawyers and farm leaders in the United States put together. Most of our farm leaders have been completely wrong anyway. Take the coöperatives they have advocated. They have had what they thought was coöperation. They have had Rochdale elevators and little individual creameries and all kinds of localized coöperation. They have not seemed to realize that what the farmers have been doing was to copy the consumers' coöperatives of England instead of the producers' marketing system of Denmark. Here we have had absolutely the wrong kind of coöperative marketing with never a voice raised against it by the agricultural colleges or any other State leaders! For more than 60 years the Mississippi Valley in particular has had the wrong kind of farm marketing, and when a protest was made against it recently one of the agricultural professors remarked: "This story from California can't be so, because if it had been I'd have known all about it."

All through this mid-west territory there has been a need for analytical leadership—leadership that is willing to analyze the situation, recognize a blunder, and then undo the blunder. In the whole northern stretch of States, there isn't one which has really faced coöperative marketing or given any recognition to the educational phases of the subject. I say that with all kinds of criticism in both my voice and my thought. I think it is the most awful condition I know that the educators of this land should have stood by to see an interest which represents almost half the whole wealth of the Nation and half the entire population of the country struggle and develop without even trying to find out whether there is something distinctive about

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it which warrants extra thought and attention and some particular type of leadership.

But I haven't this criticism for you; I hold it chiefly for the agricultural colleges which are supposed to specialize on this line. But they are not doing the work, and after all, in a broader sense it is really *your* work. You ought to undertake the study of coöperative marketing, the investigation of rural problems, and the building up of an understanding of these rural problems both among farm boys and girls and among the city youth with whom you come in contact. The city has to understand rural problems because it not only performs the actual distribution and financing of farm crops but because its own prosperity is built upon rural and urban understanding. All this is in your hands. I ask you, therefore, to give some study to coöperative marketing, and when you do, I think you are going to agree with me that it is the one vital point at which the fundamental economic problems of farm life can be reached. If you and I between us help to solve these economic problems of the farm, we are going to be doing the greatest single work in the United States today toward building a finer citizenship and idealism of life. It isn't a problem of pocketbooks; it is a problem of standards of living. It isn't a problem of bank accounts; it is a problem of fundamental culture. It is a problem of citizen-making, a problem of schools, of education, of anything and everything that means a progressive and higher civilization.

WHAT IS INSTRUCTIONAL SUPERVISION

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Until the middle of the 19th century supervision in the United States was a layman's function. It was, to put its Latin roots into Anglo-Saxon equivalents, oversight. The supervisor was an overseer. He was the local minister, or a select man, or a school committee man. He visited the school from time to time to pass upon its efficiency. He listened to recitations, examined the pupils on spelling, arithmetic, or Biblical knowledge, and approved or disapproved on a basis of his own personal standards of school room excellence. The school and its teacher feared his coming, conducted itself with trembling apprehension during his visit, breathed a sigh of relief when he departed.

It is a far cry from this unprofessional inspection to the work of the modern school superintendent and his aids. School teaching is a vastly more extensive undertaking than the school keeping of the past. With the increasing complexity of modern society and the extension of the suffrage in the United States, parallelled by an increase in the heterogeneousness of our population, educational problems have broadened and lengthened. A development of educational solutions has accompanied the increase of educational problems. Departmental instruction, junior and senior high schools, vocational education and vocational guidance, health education and education

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for citizenship, opportunity classes, provision for gifted children, tests and measurements, consolidation, transportation, socialized instruction, problem method, project method, and a host of other highly commended educational means demand the superintendent's intelligent and informed attention. Buildings, equipment, textbooks, extra curricular activities, financing, salaries, pensions, are present problems each of which requires expert or approximately expert oversight. The range of information and abilities demanded is prodigious. It is probably beyond any ordinary capacity. Here and there a genius in the field of education may encompass it, but most of us know no geniuses; all of us together know but few.

Specialization of function is indicated. The same person cannot be expected expertly to supervise all phases of education. We may come in time to consider differentiation and specialization, but we are making a far step in advance when we consider the field in two large divisions, to which Mr. Foote has applied the terms instructional and administrative supervision. I have for several years been attempting to make the same distinction, using the term supervision for the former and administration for the latter type. My assignment today is to define the former.

The need for this defining of function first arose in my own experience thirteen years ago when I undertook experimentally the work of rural school supervision under a county superintendent in a southern State. Early in the year, a bluff school board member said to me: "I know what the superintendent does and I know what the teacher does. But what do you do?" I could not give him a satisfactory answer, for my superintendent and I had not worked out our distinctive functions. As a matter of fact, I did any part of the superintendent's work which he thought I could do better than himself.

The need of definition arose again when a number of States began to provide superintendents with professional assistants, called variously supervising teachers, supervisors, or helping teachers, and when we in Teachers College were called on to offer courses for the preparation of these supervisors. What should be included in a course with this intent?

In attempting to answer this question, I sent an inquiry to every State where such professional assistants were afforded. The questionnaire[1] went to State and county superintendents and supervisors. It consisted in the main of a listing of a wide range of specific activities, and an inquiry for each as to whether it was performed by the superintendents, the supervisor, or the school board. The answers showed conclusively that variation was the only constant element in the different situations from which they came. Not a single function but somewhere was performed by the superintendent. Not a single one for which some supervisor was not held responsible.

It was, however, evident that a distinction was in the making. There were certain functions more frequently referred to the supervisor, certain others more frequently to the superintendent. Of the former were such duties as: advising as to methods of work, determining special methods for

[1] For a fuller report of this inquiry, see *Educational Administration and Supervision*, March, 1920, pp. 159-165.

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required use; consulting with the teacher on the teacher's invitation on matters of in-school work; recommending as to details of in-school work; assisting teachers in organizing various types of school clubs; observing instruction and management and offering suggestions for development; guiding the work of local or group teachers' meetings; advising as to professional reading and study; interpreting return from tests and laying the results of tests before the teachers. In a word, supervision of instruction and the improvement of teachers in service were the fields of the supervisor's responsibility.

On the other hand, to the superintendents were attributed such functions as recommending a general policy, as of consolidation; instituting and conducting campaigns to arouse realization of educational needs; inspecting buildings, recommending new buildings or repairs, or condemnation of unsanitary and unfit buildings; determining promotion requirements; charge of records and reports and determination of the type of records and reports to be kept; planning of the work of county institutes; and coördination of the schools with other social agencies of the community.

As a result of this investigation, the County Superintendent's Section of the Department of Rural Education of the National Education Association, to which I reported the result of my inquiry, approved a committee which reported the following year a series of theses as to the distinction between administration and supervision.[1] For our purpose here, the most important sections of this report are numbers 1, 2, 3, 4, and 6 under General Principles, which are quoted below.

One interpretative statement is necessary. The distinction was made in this report between the duties of two functionaries, the superintendent and the supervisor. It applies equally well however in differentiating the two functions. For administrator, substitute administrative supervision; for supervisor, substitute instructional supervision, and the definition holds.

1. The administrator is the general head of the educational system. He is responsible for the plan of the whole, for the coördination of its parts, and for assurance of the efficiency of each part. He must determine, with the approval of his board of trustees, all general policies.

2. Efficient instruction is the purpose of the whole school system. The superintendent, as the head of the school system, must promote or insure efficient instruction by four general means: (*a*) Determination of the large aims of instruction in his system. (*b*) Determination of the general means and methods to be employed in his system in attaining these aims. (c) Establishment of the conditions of effective instruction. (*d*) Organization of the system to further the efficiency of instruction.

3. The administrator, like any other general, requires lieutenants, to each of whom is entrusted responsibility and authority for effecting a certain part of the whole plan.

4. The supervisor or helping teacher is the lieutenant whose special function it is to lead, instruct, and inspire the teachers of the school system so that they may be kept alive and growing, and the quality of instruction may constantly improve.

6. In fine, whereas a large part of the administrator's time must be given to working with and through the school board and the community toward the establishment of progressive policies and adequate provision for education, the super-

[1] *Journal of Rural Education*, January, 1922, pp. 235-238.

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visor's effort should be concentrated on working with and through teachers for realization of policies and effective use of all provisions that are made.

At the same meeting of the National Education Association at which this report was made Superintendent Cook, of Baltimore County, now State superintendent of Maryland, presented an independently arrived at set of theses;[1] which were in remarkably general agreement with the distinction made by our committee, as may be seen from those few quoted below:

Competent supervision is the best known method for improving the quality of teaching, both before and after the teacher enters the service. Supervision is a teacher-training proposition; even normal schools and teacher-training schools base their practice-school work on the foregoing principle.

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1. The supervisor's chief function is to improve the quality of teaching. This involves a very broad and thorough knowledge of subject-matter and method.
2. The means of supervision are the various types of teachers' meetings, the course of study, conferences with individual teachers, visiting schools in and out of the system, observation lessons and critiques, etc.; the extent of teacher participation in these activities is the final test of supervisory efficiency.
3. The superintendent's chief duty in relation to the supervisor is to see that the conditions are right for the supervisor to do her best work. This involves first-class administrative and executive ability, as well as a thorough knowledge of educational principles, methods and aims.

A few other quotations will give the conception of supervision of instruction, or instructional supervision, which is held by other leaders in this field of work. W. J. Holloway, for a number of years State supervisor of rural schools in Maryland, made this statement in a bulletin issued in 1918:

The whole purpose of supervision work is so to deal with the situation which the supervisor finds as to get the maximum results in the way of improvement. To criticise, to inspect, is not the aim. Inspection is not only supervision, but may interfere with it. The main purpose is to get the teacher beyond where she is; not primarily to get rid of her, but to find out where her strength lies and to build it up.

An excellent illustration of this point occurred some years ago in a far western State. A teacher, highly successful in a New England school system, had been induced to accept a position in this western location. She failed miserably. Her supervisor might have contented himself with dismissing her at the end of her first year, and resolving never again to employ Easterners since evidently they could not adapt themselves to western conditions. But he did not. He felt sure there was strength somewhere in the teacher. He "camped on her trail," observed her frequently, conferred with her, studied her. At last he found what he believed to be her greatest ability, and encouraged and aided her to the type of position, in the same State, where this ability could best exercise itself. He was right. She was a success from the beginning, she grew steadily, and became a leader in the educational forces of the State.

In a report of a "Joint Working Conference of State and County Supervisors," held in Alabama in 1922, the following paragraph occurs:

[1] *Journal of Rural Education*, September, 1921, pp. 13-14.

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To the teachers, the supervisor is first and always a helping teacher and friend, not so much a superior as a co-worker with whatever authority is necessary to carry out the plans which she and the county superintendent, after consultation with the teachers, have agreed are for the best interests of the schools. She helps individual teachers in their schools with whatever problems they have—classification of pupils, making of a daily program, methods of teaching the classes, materials for teaching, use of equipment, diagnosis and points of emphasis, school hygiene, physical education, discipline, etc. She brings individual teachers and schools into touch with the other schools of the county and through unification of purpose, coördination of efforts, and team work enables all to accomplish for themselves results which no one school could accomplish alone. The school which was isolated becomes a necessary part of a growing system. . . . . The supervisor takes a personal interest in the professional growth of each teacher, helps her discover her strengths and weaknesses, suggests possibilities for advancement, puts her in touch with needed means of growth, and provides opportunities for service in lines in which she excels. She accomplishes these results mainly through school visitations, provision for demonstration teaching, teachers' meetings, community meetings, the sending out of outlines and teaching material from the office, and the individual conference with teachers. . . . .

This suggests the title, helping teachers which in New Jersey is given to those who are engaged in the work of instructional supervision in rural schools. Mr. Zenos E. Scott, formerly assistant commissioner of New Jersey in charge of elementary education, has stated as among his supervisory policies, the following:

That all teachers are expected to grow in teaching skill through teaching.

That supervision to be worth while must be constructive in its policies.

That if supervision is to create enthusiasm among the supervising and teaching bodies it must be favorable wherever possible. That whenever negative criticism is given, the ways to improve the situation must be illustrated in detail.

That supervision be optimistic. Good supervision expects the teacher to do tasks which are difficult. But optimistic leadership stimulates the teacher to utilize the difficult situations as opportunities by which to increase good teaching.

Dr. Pittman, author of "The Value of School Supervision" and "Successful Teaching in Rural Schools," epitomizes his concept of the spirit of instructional supervision in the story of the small boy who showed his bantam hen an ostrich egg, and told her to look at that and do her best.

Finally, Dr. Frank McMurry has enunciated the following theses:

The principal object of supervision should be the improvement of the teaching rather than the rating of teachers. The rating of teachers is merely an incident in proper supervision.

Standards for judging supervision are as necessary as standards for judging teaching.

The standards are essentially the same as those for judging teaching.

The leading test of successful supervision is found in the attitude of the teachers toward the supervisor. The leading quality necessary, therefore, is sympathy.

Negative criticism of instruction is generally unnecessary and undesirable. Criticism should be constructive rather than destructive.

Skill in supervision is greatly dependent on the extent to which the supervisor gives reasons for his statements.

It is evident that all of these authorities are in general agreement. Before summarizing in answer to our question "What is instructional supervision?" brief consideration should be given to a related question, "*Why* is instructional supervision?"

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A common answer to this question, especially in relationship to rural schools, is that rural teachers are so deficient in preparation for their work that it is imperative to give them, through supervision, training in service. This is of course true, but it is far from the whole truth. It is not the fact that the best supervisor is he who works himself out of a job. For the fundamental element of instructional supervision is not remedying defects, it is stimulating growth. And growth is continuous throughout life. The teacher who is not growing is a dead teacher. The supervisor's function is not primarily to discover defects and remove or correct them; it is rather to discover potentialities and develop them. The more intelligent or better qualified the teacher, the greater are her potentialities for development. A crucial test of instructional supervision is the extent to which it keeps the superior teachers in the system growing to the limit of their capacities.

Instructional supervision, therefore, has the large purpose of improving the quality of instruction, primarily by promoting the professional growth of all teachers, and secondarily or temporarily by correcting deficiencies of preliminary preparation for teaching by the training of teachers in service.

Instructional supervision *is* teaching. It is educating educators. It is leadership and coöperation, rather than direction and compulsion. It is democratic utilization of all the powers of all the individual teachers of a system for the benefit of each and all of them. It is not a matter of structures of bricks and mortar, but of human spirit. It is the province of administrative supervision to provide as adequately as possible the conditions for effective instruction—a well-organized system; sound and progressive policies; adequate financial support; good buildings and grounds, well equipped; well qualified teachers. It is the function of instructional supervision to realize to the utmost on all the provisions that are made. There is a good deal of fallacy in the familiar statement as to Mark Hopkins on the end of a log. The implication is that Mark Hopkins could not have done a better piece of work with better facilities than the log afforded. Let us provide the best facilities we can. It yet remains for instructional supervision to bring each teacher to as near the standard of a Mark Hopkins as is possible.

Instructional supervision improves education by improving teachers and the work of teachers. It does have an element of inspection, but it is inspection not as an end in itself, but as a means of growth. The supervisor must know his teachers' strengths and weaknesses, needs and capacities, in order to develop their potentialities. He must also know the situation in which each teacher is working, its strengths, weaknesses, defects, and possibilities—the children in the school, the home and community conditions back of the school.

After inspection—or observation—must come evaluation, diagnosis. Applying the standards which educational philosophy and psychology have given him, the supervisor determined the lines of most needed or most practicable development. Applying then all his knowledge of principles and practice of teaching, he makes a plan for development, a tentative plan. Applying finally all his skill in dealing with human personalities, he presents his plan to the teacher or the teachers in such a way as to gain their coöperation

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in improving the situation. If he is highly skillful, he gets the teachers themselves making plans, and the final plan is the coöperative product of the democratic teacher-supervisor group. Each gives of his best, whatever it is. Each leads or follows as the situation determines.

This is instructional supervision, a highly professionalized, helping, coördinating, coöperating, inspiring function. Its breath of life, its vitalizing spirit, lies in the realization by teachers and supervisor alike, that they share in the greatest of all human privileges and the supreme social responsibility—determination of the future of the nation's childhood, and through them the future of the nation, the race, and perhaps of civilization itself.

WHAT ARE THE ACTIVITIES OF THE STATE SUPERVISOR THAT DIRECTLY INFLUENCE THE RESULTS OF INSTRUCTION

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1. The improvement of the quality of classroom instruction is the chief purpose of supervision—State, county, or district. The State supervisor has a right to expect that the local school officials have made conditions right for effective teaching. If, however, these are unsatisfactory, the State supervisor, working through and with the constituted and responsible authorities, will help to devise ways and means for the improvement of conditions. Such activities belong to the realm of administrative supervision, and important as they may be in some situations, are not considered in this discussion.

2. The chief duty of the State supervisor, in furthering the purposes of instructional supervision, is to counsel and assist the several local school officials in his territory in planning and maintaining an effective system of elementary school supervision. In general, his opportunities for such service assume the following fairly well-defined groupings.

3. At the beginning of the school year, in conference with the State superintendent and other members of the department or bureau, the State supervisor should formulate State-wide objectives for the year's work. Brief monthly reports of his activities and an annual report covering achievements, the degree to which the year's objectives have been realized, and recommendations for the future, should be made to the State superintendent.

4. The efficiency of the State supervisor is largely dependent upon the training, experience, and professional ideals of the supervisory staff with which he works. He must therefore establish standards for determining the fitness of candidates for such positions and endeavors to see that these standards are applied by officials who have the appointive power. His constant aim is to improve the quality of the supervisors' work just as they endeavor to improve the quality of teaching. He confers with the supervising and helping teachers, individually and in groups; visits schools with them, to

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study conditions at first hand and to note the supervisors' manner of working with teachers; attends teachers' meetings conducted by the supervisors; and, in general, keeps in close touch with all the normal activities of the supervisory force in the State, in order to realize his aim of improving the efficiency of their work.

5. The State supervisor should encourage the development of courses of study adapted to the local needs of communities, districts, or particular schools. As a professional stimulus to teachers in service, the value of a course of study is directly proportional to the teacher's degree of participation in its preparation. Every teacher may be expected to make some contribution to a local course of study, if only a valid unit of subject matter, an approved lesson plan, a statement of successful teaching method, or an intelligent constructive criticism of the proposals of other teachers. In coöperation with the entire supervisory staff under his jurisdiction, he should formulate a State course of study and arrange for testing, in actual practice, its several subject matter units before publishing it for general use.

6. The State supervisor will use, or direct the use of, standard educational tests and scales for measuring the results of instruction. Such investigations, if wisely conceived and properly executed, stimulate the teaching of the subjects tested, inspire teachers and pupils to beat their previous records, and direct attention to problems of retardation and classification.

7. The State supervisor will, with the approval of the State superintendent, prepare, or cause to be prepared for distribution to supervising officials and to teachers, mimeographed or printed bulletins in which are presented suggestions for the organization of schools; results of tests, with possible remedial measures suggested by the conditions disclosed; lists of standard school equipment; approved units of a course of study; reports of successful supervisory method or teaching practice observed within or without the State; and other suggestions for the improvement of the quality of supervision and of teaching.

8. In addition to stressing the usual means of supervision, the State supervisor will, in accordance with his aim to secure the improvement of teachers in service, supervise teacher-training courses in summer schools, unless such courses are otherwise directed by the State Department, outline extension courses to be carried on during the school year, and foster other professional study clubs in more remote regions.

9. The State supervisor must give the same evidence of professional spirit as is expected of the superintendents, supervisors, and teachers in his territory. To that end, he will keep in touch with the best current professional thought and activity by attendance upon State and National associations, by accepting assignments upon committees engaged in constructive studies, by individual research, by taking occasional summer courses in leading universities, and by systematic, persevering home study. By these means, he can best stimulate continued professional growth and improvement of supervisory officials and teachers.

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A STATE PROGRAM FOR IMPROVING INSTRUCTION IN READING

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A democratic State provides varied types of schools to meet the needs of a democratic people but in all of this diversity there appears a well-defined thread of unity. State leadership, through the channels of the department of public instruction, aims to coördinate all the educational activities of a State into one component whole. The State department serves as a unifying center, and like the hub of a wheel with ramifying spokes, increases the opportunity for legitimate service to all the people. Policies defined coöperatively by staff members in response to immediate needs, and envisioning the future, aim to reduce waste motion and to secure maximum efficiency in all educational institutions of the State.

State supervisors by virtue of many and varied contacts over a widely scattered area gain a perspective and a breadth of vision which enable them to grasp the essential needs of a State, since the same difficulty is oft repeated in numberless situations. Through stimulation and re-direction of dormant forces within the community itself conditions are improved and worthwhile results are obtained. A State department committed to educational service places emphasis upon outstanding problems and attacks them in much the same spirit and manner as that which characterizes the work in smaller groups, whether city or country. The same types of supervisory skill are needed in shaping the ideals and practices of a State group. Since the field is larger, usually heterogeneous, and personal contacts necessarily fewer, one must rely upon "striking twelve" each time a visit, demonstration, lecture, or conference is held. This field work must, of necessity, be followed by personal letters, bulletins, outlines, plans, suggestive material, coöperative exchanges, and the like, until people in the State know that reasonable service is theirs for the asking. Calls from the field are indicative of a healthy, wholesome relationship established between a State department and the people whom it desires to serve.

Wisconsin, like other States of the Northwest, has a population of mixed nationalities—German, Swedes, Norwegians, Italians, Finns, Poles, Slavs—which makes it imperative that the school and home shall coöperate in producing staunch American citizens. Illiteracy is another phase of this problem, but it is adult rather than juvenile illiteracy that raises our percentage. Statistics show that we had .3 per cent between ages 10-15; 1.2 per cent between 15-18; 3.3 per cent 18 and over; totaling 4.8 per cent illiterates in 1920, due largely to the migrations from foreign shores halted within our borders. These two problems—Americanization and illiteracy—have aroused the thoughtful to find ways by which to eradicate difficulties arising from racial and environmental differences. The schools have considered reading as the tool "par excellence to hew down the tree of ignorance."

Believing that the development of good reading habits adds immeasurably to one's practical equipment and possibility of pleasure, the State department

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of public instruction has been pledged for some years to a State-wide program more or less consciously recognized by all for the purpose of raising the standard of reading accomplishment and increasing the supply of wholesome reading material for schools and communities. Handicapped by foreign language habits, the recent effects of the film drama in changed attitude toward pleasure reading, the annual " turn over " in the teaching profession, the whole situation is a challenge. Its very difficulty serves to stimulate us to more persistent effort in the accomplishment of our objective, *the development of an intelligent reading public.*

How to reach the vast number of rural, State graded, village, and small city schools, has been the problem of the State department; how to shape a policy which would lead to constructive work on the part of those who in turn direct the activities of local units; how to give work somewhat prescriptive, yet providing opportunity for development of initiative and a desire for further study and experimentation—these are questions which have been met variously by members of the Department. A brief résumé of the type of work covering a period of years will indicate that recent scientific investigation and experiment have rendered valuable service, and that progress has been made, not in any brilliant or startling fashion, but marked rather by slow and steady growth. Some of the means used have been as follows:

1. *Establishing standards—a.* The State course of study formulated primarily for the rural schools is an important guide, since it gives explicit directions regarding choice of materials, methods, devices, and indicates standards in harmony with the latest and best laboratory investigations in reading, both silent and oral.

b. Monographs on Reading prepared by Annie Reynolds of the State Department in 1916, setting forth underlying principles and practices, established a standard by which to measure reading activities in the schools. It was used in the county training schools and high-school training departments and by county superintendents.

President Brown, of Oshkosh Normal School, in 1920, issued a pamphlet, Fundamentals of Reading Method, which has wielded some influence in shaping modern practice. Detailed procedures in both silent and oral reading have been developed in typewritten form. Articles on " Remedial Work in Reading," by Anderson and Merton, published in the *Elementary School Journal,* 1921-22, present some plans worked out in the State.

c. More recent investigations in silent and oral reading, reported by the N. S. S. E. Year Book, Stone, Watkins, O'Brien, Smith, Germane, and others, have been rather widely circulated through the State Teachers' Reading Circle under the auspices of the county superintendent and teacher-training institutions, and the State Department. This directed reading and study has been of inestimable value in establishing workable ideals and promoting effective practice.

2. *Reading circle work*—Probably there has been no one factor which has exerted more influence on the extra-curricular activities than the Young Peoples' Reading Circles established in 1915-16 under the auspices of the

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supervisor of school libraries who quietly and persistently extended the work which has fostered the formation of library habits, beginning in primary grades and extending through high school, to teachers, and latterly, reaching out to the parents as well. Libraries are found in every school in the State, with a trained librarian in all high schools, and public libraries in nearly every village and town. Much credit is due the State Library Commission for the increase of public library facilities, and the valuable service rendered to the schools and the communities through the traveling library service—1350 communities have been served 45,000 books going into the schools.

The aim has been to develop an intelligent citizenship through instilling a love of reading and reading good literature. Dr. Hosic says if you wish to form the right taste you must engage upon this meritorious task between the ages of six and fourteen. Wisconsin has indeed caught them young. A well-chosen book list has been published annually for the last eight years and the growth in the number of readers has been steadily increasing: 5310 in 1916; 137,435 in 1922, and 117,000 of this number in rural schools. Many counties have gone "over the top" making 100 per cent in Reading Circle work which means that every school child has read at least six books annually, the required number listed for each year. Seals and diplomas are granted to those completing the entire course. Boys and girls graduating from our high schools have a fine opportunity to become acquainted with the world's best literature. In our haste to rear a reading public over-emphasis has been placed upon quantity, number of books read, rather than quality, but as teachers themselves come into this rich literary inheritance we believe that quality as well as quantity will be duly recognized. Through combined efforts of supervising teachers, principals, and teachers, acceptable book reports, dramatizations, and occasional oral readings of selections with greater emphasis upon social aspects give evidence of more intelligent use of the Y. P. R. C. work. Community pageants and the story hours with costumed story-tellers are being considered as potent means to stimulate delayed reading interests in some of our urban and rural communities.

3. *The use of tests and measurements*—A third type of work which has stimulated effort among pupils, teachers, and supervisors, is that conducted by the director of measurements, aided by other members of the Department. Under Dr. Theisen in 1920 some interesting studies of reading conditions were made and published for State-wide distribution. Later, in 1921, under our present director of measurements, an experiment was launched in the attempt to raise the standard of reading accomplishment in ten selected rural counties. The Monroe Silent Reading Tests were given to fifteen to thirty schools, selected at random, and analysis was made of results obtained, and aided by the State Department, the supervising teachers devised remedial measures, which were used with such success that the advance made in so short a time seemed phenomenal. In 1922, every county in the State was urged to give the Thorndike-McCall Silent Reading tests to about thirty schools, and a marked rate of improvement was again shown.

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"The average yearly improvement according to the Monroe Standards is five points. The average improvements obtained by all grades was 6.3 points in comprehension and was secured in less than a half year. The average improvement on the Thorndike-McCall Scale for a half year is 2.8 points in T Score. That actually obtained for 990 children was 6.2. Thus in these counties the progress of the children was more than the normal rate in spite of the poor conditions under which teachers work in the rural schools. The difference between the one-room rural school and other schools is in general less than would be expected." Diagnosis, which reveals the needs of accelerated pupils as well as of the slow or retarded ones, is helping the teacher to grasp the whole situation more intelligently. She gains a clearer conception of what constitutes reading ability, grows in knowledge of the type of errors, and increases her skill in the application of remedial measures to eradicate them.

The scientific approach to the study of school problems is gradually permeating all groups: classroom teachers, supervisors and superintendents, and teacher-training institutions recognize the advantages which it offers.

4. *A campaign of service—selling the silent reading idea*—An interesting situation arises when one sets out to change old habits. Discussion must be supplemented by demonstration, telling by showing. Each State supervisor is therefore engaged upon a definite campaign of forming new ideals and new practices among those still bound by lethargy and conservatism to the old, old custom of aimless oral reading. It is accomplished by showing better ways of securing desired results. Armed not only with fundamental principles but with an array of practical helps, books to read, bulletins, pamphlets, suggestive remedial exercises culled from any and all sources—Detroit, Iowa University, Indiana, Racine, Stoughton, and other cities—all these are crowded into our "hope chests" or "kit bags," as some call them.

A. Silent reading. Constant effort is expended to improve the choice of subject-matter for silent reading purposes and to train specifically for its application in the study of other curriculum subjects. Attempts are made to vitalize class procedures and further independent study through discussion and frequent demonstration before groups of teachers. The fundamental differences in purposeful cursory and consultative reading are set forth, helping teachers to grasp corresponding differences in the solution of problems which each type presents. Purposeful reading demands *study lessons* with the teacher, training children to think, to organize, and to retain for some specific purpose, and continuing such work without the aid of teacher through assignments; pleasure or "hobby" reading is largely of the cursory type, and as indicated in discussion of Reading Circle work presents problems worthy of our attention; consultative reading in response to a definite time limit, is much needed in training pupils to study history, civics, geography, arithmetic effectively. Silent reading and group discussions under pupil leadership or socialized recitation is encouraged.

B. Oral reading. Oral reading has not been neglected, though major emphasis has been placed upon silent. Standards for good oral reading are

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presented; emphasis being upon reading as a social function rather than a formal exercise. Much attention has been given to group reading in primary grades as a means to increase reading ability through contact with a wide range of suitable reading material. Two or more grades are also combined.

C. Textbooks and supplementary material. Persistent effort has been made to increase the number of different textbooks from one to six or more, in the primary grades; to encourage the purchase of books emphasizing history, geography, civics, nature, and even arithmetic, in small sets of four or six, to facilitate group reading and to train in consultative or reference reading; to stimulate pleasure or hobby reading by providing sets of multiple readers and story books, at least a different book for each child. The purpose is evident—to expose the child to an abundance of suitable reading material, and our expectations have been more than realized in many schools. The minimum number of books read in primary grades ranges from 16 to 12.

5. *Remedial measures*—The pupils who fall below the grade standard are the ones who give us gravest concern, but it is a source of gratification to observe the changed attitude on the part of both teachers and pupils in their attack of the individual needs. Among the types of remedial exercises we find the following, familiar to most of us:

(1) Silent reading procedures for grades 1, 2, and 3, using suggestions by Watkins, Horn of Iowa University, Detroit, Racine, Stoughton, Merrill, and other cities. Emphasis placed upon phrase and sentence slips—Wheeler set, Horn set, etc.; use of curtain and sentences to increase rapid recognition and increase eye span, and other devices.

(2) Miscellaneous study paragraphs with questions; directions for seat activity, etc. In some counties these are used as silent reading traveling library sets, as in Brown County, Door County.

(3) Graded paragraphs covering a wide range of subjects with questions, to be used as rapid 5-minute daily drill exercises in developing speed and comprehension in grades 2 to 6, under the direction of the teacher; also to be used as seatwork by individuals as practice exercises in improving reading ability. Such material has been developed by Miss Merton, of Waukesha and Miss Huber, of Washington County.

(4) Simple, informal tests devised by superintendents, supervisors, training school principals and teachers, emphasizing diagnostic, inventory, practice, and examination types. Kircher, of Merrill, Miss Huber, of Washington County, and many others have contributed such material.

6. *Teamwork in securing results*—The type of organization which obtains in Wisconsin and which she holds in part with two or more of her sister States, materially aids in the successful issue of any State-wide program. Wisconsin is perhaps the only State having a corps of county supervising teachers, 106 in number, whose work it is to supervise and train young teachers in the field, and is the only State fostering county training schools, 31 all told, and high-school training departments, numbering 28, specifically interested in training rural teachers, *all working under the direct supervision* of the State Department. One can readily appreciate the fact that if you wish to effect a change in ideals and practices you turn at once to the

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training schools and to the supervising teachers. Much of the work indicated above becomes effective through these agencies. Selling the silent reading idea to the supervising teacher, as has already been indicated, has yielded large returns. It has been accomplished through visits with the supervising teacher to rural schools where observation, demonstration teaching, if need be, and suggestive helps are presented in concrete form, followed by conference with teacher and supervising teacher; through training her in the use and interpretation of tests and the right kind of practice material; through State and sectional conferences of supervising teachers; through utilization of coöperative effort in maintaining a supervising teachers' exchange and contributions to county bulletins; and through stimulation gained from professional reading. It is by such contacts as these that the large purposes of the Department can be expressed. These types of service are rendered not alone to county superintendents and supervising teachers but as well to city superintendents and supervisors, whose interest in the problem of reading has been such as to cause them to devote whole conferences to the various aspects of the problem.

State supervisors constantly reach large numbers of teachers in institutes, sectional meetings, and prospective teachers in the training schools, and in this manner the aims and purposes of a State-wide program gradually filter through, and return again in improved standards of accomplishment.

The State Department aims to reach the teacher in the classroom *indirectly* through the avenues of the supervisory and training agencies, but it is also the privilege of the seven supervisors engaged primarily in the rural field to *directly* aid the classroom teacher when occasion arises. Contact with 2000 to 3000 rural teachers annually is a conservative estimate. The improvement of the work of the classroom teacher is our goal, for we share with her the responsibility of starting boys and girls on the way to a worthy citizenship.

What is needed is more maturity and better preparation. Beginning in 1927 every teacher starting work will have had one year of professional preparation based upon a high-school education as a preliminary. We congratulate ourselves that at the present time we have more than 1600 students in our rural training courses who are meeting these requirements, an assurance of increased teaching efficiency. However, there remains much to be accomplished. A State program for the improvement of reading commits State supervisors to increasing efforts in securing State-wide acceptance of progressive measures in not only establishing standards but clarifying them; not only providing a measuring rod, but making it usable; not only increasing knowledge and skill in the use of reading materials and methods, but developing right attitudes and enlarged vision of service. Only through the coöperation of all legislative and educational agencies can our aim—the development of an intelligent reading public—be realized.

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PART OF THE COUNTY SUPERINTENDENT IN RURAL SCHOOL SUPERVISION

A. G. YAWBERG, COUNTY SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, CLEVELAND, OHIO

Vital, efficient, and inspirational supervision of school work is, or should be, as necessary and essential a part of our rural educational program today as it is or ever has been for a city educational program. Many county superintendents are so overburdened with petty details or so hedged about by other limitations that any real supervision is impossible. Many others though free to do a real job of actual supervision fail to realize the opportunity. Rural school supervision is an outstanding need. It challenges the best efforts of high-grade men and women.

The first essential of success for any county superintendent and his staff is to have a clear-cut definite program. Too many supervisors both city and rural follow only shifting programs depending largely upon the inspiration of the moment. This program must not only be definite for the superintendent, but must be equally well understood by every teacher. Supervision will never succeed by assuming the mysterious or a supercilious attitude of superiority. This program should be carefully worked out and put into written form even though it may be changed in some respects each year. It seems advisable to call attention briefly to the general scope of the problem together with a brief discussion of what seems to be the *fundamental principles* and the technique of method involved in such a program. The scope is as broad as the whole field of public education in all its relations, for, public education is a force aiming at social welfare and betterment. Briefly its aims are as follows: (1) to provide health instruction and inculcate health habits, (2) to acquire command of the fundamental processes, (3) to develop worthy home-membership, (4) to equip the individual to secure a livelihood, (5) to train each pupil into an efficient citizen, (6) to prepare each pupil to make the best use of his leisure time, and (7) to develop a strong ethical character.

With these broad purposes in mind and with an understanding that every superintendent has important administrative duties that bear directly upon these purposes we admit that the chief and immediate purpose of supervision is to improve and to maintain a high standard of classroom instruction. Supervisors should be sources of help and inspiration for teachers in the accomplishment of the task to be done.

The four essentials of adequate supervision, in relation to results, are: (1) Supervisors and teachers must recognize and establish certain definite goals of attainment in all subjects; (2) help and direction must be given in the attainment of the goals established; (3) results must be tested and checked in order that attainment of goals may be definitely known; and (4) coöperation must be developed among teachers and supervisors.

Statement of principles—Every superintendent must be guided by well-understood principles and his suggestions and activities should be in accord with well-known methods. Definite aims or goals are necessary. As some

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one has so well said, " There is small consolation in being told that we are on the way and moving fast if we do not know where we are going." We are just as much at sea if we do not know our point of departure. Points of reference are as necessary in the field of supervision as in surveying and no surveyor of land ever attempts anything until his point of reference is definitely established. The principles that should govern as well as the methods that should be followed in a program of supervision are: (1) self-activity, (2) maximum participation, (3) genuineness in situations and materials, (4) variety and proportion, and (5) novelty and surprise.

Self-activity—The principle of self-activity is of first importance. No teacher can be made better; he must grow better. Supervisors are prone to be dogmatic for it is easier to give orders than to lead the teacher to discover better methods. The supervisor should not attempt to demonstrate to the teacher every new step along the way. The art of teaching is as much a process of education for the teacher as his work should be with the pupils. There is no more reason for believing in employing the " pouring-in process " with teachers than with pupils. Education is a development and supervisory suggestions must arouse self-activity.

Maximum participation—This principle grows naturally out of the principle of self-activity. We can become interested to the extent of making real applications only when we contribute something of our own to a program. It is a mistake for school administrators and supervisors to try to determine all goals of attainment for the schools, to lay down rules of procedure in attempting to reach these goals, to make plans for checking results, or even to secure the coöperation of teachers without giving them a real and vital part in developing this whole program. The supervisory program must not only allow but must invite teacher participation in its development and application.

This principle can be operative only when there exists or is developed common knowledge and common points of view on the part of both supervisor and teacher. It is, therefore, necessary to bring teachers and supervisors into close working conditions. One of the problems is how to bring this about effectively. There has been entirely too much aloofness both on the part of teachers and supervisors, but especially on the part of the supervisors. Interrelating conference groups for specific purposes must be organized in which supervisors and teachers meet on a common level, giving each individual equal *opportunity and authority* to contribute and to determine the processes and goals of public education.

Genuineness in situations and materials—This principle requires superintendents to take into consideration the conditions under which, and the materials with which, teachers must work. It is very easy to work out programs and to suggest methods for ideal conditions which rarely if ever exist. Every teacher and every superintendent has ideals about conditions and materials, but suggestions must be made with the actual situation as well as with these ideals in mind. All supervision should be done under the most natural circumstances.

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Variety and proportion—This is a principle that is often seriously violated. Every teacher's work must have variety both as to material and method. Teachers must always be on the alert to avoid getting into a rut. This is especially true of departmental teachers who specialize in one subject. For such variety of application and material is absolutely essential. This is equally true with supervisors of special subjects, who often give the impression that they think nothing else matters if only their subject is well taught. They often lack a sense of proportion as to the relative values of the several subjects taught. This is sometimes true of a general supervisor who often likes one subject more than another and gives it more attention to the great detriment of other lines of study or work. Every supervisory program must seek to maintain the proper proportion in all lines of work and present suggestions with enough variety to keep up the interest of the teachers.

Novelty and surprise—This principle is of value in arousing new interests and in creating new points of view. Both of these results are necessary if the work of the teachers is to be kept on a high plane. Care must be exercised, however, not to overwork this principle. An occasional supervisor resorts to it so much that teachers become more interested in watching how he works than in following the suggestions made. The principle of variety and proportion should always be kept in mind in applying the principle of novelty and surprise.

Technique of method—It has been said and generally accepted that the greatest weakness of supervision is its proneness to be largely a matter of routine and detail. Superintendents too often allow themselves to be buried in a multiplicity of minor details and devices, a situation arising because the superintendent has not clearly kept in mind the definite principles and methods by which to accomplish the larger goals in education. It is very important that we understand the general method of procedure which fall under three heads: (1) destructive-constructive, (2) appreciative, and (3) stimulative.

Destructive criticism should never be made unless accompanied by constructive suggestions. Formerly and even yet some superintendents set themselves up as inspectors, taking the stand that their chief business is to point out errors and failures. They contend that it is the teacher's business to know and to know how and that if he is lacking in any way, that a new and better teacher must be secured. This is a narrow and outgrown view and would not be mentioned here except that it is still practiced.

Teachers need, want, and appreciate helpful criticism. They do not object to the discovery of their bad practices if a better way can be suggested. Because the suggestion always accompanies the criticism, this method is called the destructive-constructive method. It should eliminate failures insofar as that is possible.

Under the appreciative method a supervisor recognizes and indicates the good points in a teacher's work. This applies not only to recitations, but to all school activities under the teacher's direction. In doing this the supervisor must be both sincere and frank; flattery is exceedingly harmful. It

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the teacher is at all shrewd, he recognizes it and loses faith in the supervisor. If the supervisor is sincere and actually recognizes good work the teacher appreciates the recognition and usually has a more open mind for constructive suggestions.

The stimulative method is most important in that it bears a close relationship to the principle of self-activity. Without the application of this method, growth and development in the educational field would practically stop. The use of this method is the real test of the ability of the superintendent or supervisor.

He may be a master in the use of the destructive-constructive or appreciative methods, but if he fails to use the stimulative method he fails to promote growth. This method indicates the direction of growth and encourages conservative experimentation. Its use is the essence of leadership. Its practice has brought about improved courses of study, new methods, new devices, in fact, every real improvement in public education. Every visit of a superintendent or supervisor should leave a teacher stimulated to action in the attempt to solve some new problem or reach some higher goal.

While it is important to understand the principles according to which action is taken and the methods by which such action is applied, it is just as important to lay down a definite program of action. The most immediate and important purpose of supervision is to improve classroom instruction. The first and most important consideration in accomplishing this task is to secure a corps of teachers well trained, of strong personality, well fitted for their particular positions, and of high moral standards.

When this task is well done the best half of the task of supervision has been accomplished. However, the tasks ahead are vital. The best teaching force in the world, if it fails to grow or works at cross purposes without direction or common interests, will soon disintegrate. Stimulation, growth, goals, methods, checking of results and coöperation must receive constant attention. Of first importance in this field is the Course of Study.

Course of study—Providing a strong and helpful course of study is the first duty of a supervisory force. This does not mean that the supervisory force will betake themselves apart and prepare a course of study to hand down to the teachers. Courses provided in this manner never succeed for long. To be successful a course of study must be alive and growing. Every year should see growth and development, a sloughing off of old wornout material, and the addition of new stimulating material or method. The whole teaching force can and will be of very great assistance in developing a course of study if the directing forces are wise enough to know how to give them opportunity.

Because a course of study must be a growing organization of material and method it is difficult to provide it in printed and bound form and keep it up-to-date. Some practicable way should be found to provide it in loose-leaf form. The course of study should be a daily handbook for every teacher. The teacher will not only know but will apply every usable suggestion made in the course of study relative to his work.

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If supervision is to be effective both supervisors and teachers must have a basis of common knowledge of what each is to expect of the other. Too often it is taken for granted that this common knowledge is understood by both supervisors and teachers when they assume their duties. This common knowledge must become working capital and not "hidden treasure." This is the most difficult but the most important task of the superintendent.

The customary mode of procedure after getting schools under way is for the superintendent to begin a series of unannounced visits. He may and if he is wise will do everything possible to put the teacher at her ease. But no matter how skilful he or she may be it is impossible by this method to cast aside his rôle of inspector. You may not have experienced it but many supervisors have discovered that their presence in a building was in some way quietly announced. This happened despite the fact that the superintendent was efficient and well liked. This sort of supervising, which may be although often is not definite for the superintendent, certainly is anything but definite for the teacher.

Again it is our contention that supervision can never succeed on the basis of inspection. The purpose of supervision is not to discover teachers' faults or weaknesses. The real purpose of supervision as suggested above is to stimulate the teacher to a maximum of self-improvement. Suggestions no matter how good or how skilfully made never function well unless they grow out of the teacher's own consciousness of a need for them. A teacher must not only be able to discover her own faults or shortcomings but the remedy for them as well. The superintendent performs a real service when he creates conditions that make it certain that the teacher will exert herself to the limit of her ability to secure maximum results from her teaching.

Because we felt that the above statements set forth some very fundamental consideration and because the customary method of school-room visitation apparently defeats the realization of these considerations we instituted a change which we believe takes supervision out of the field of inspection and puts it into the field of instruction. The plan is to give a teacher written notice of the exact date and hour of the superintendent's visit, naming the class to be visited and specifying the particular points to be stressed in the visit. This appointment is made with the teacher's schedule before the superintendent so that the school procedure for the day will not be interfered with in the least. This is not altogether a new procedure though it is far from the usual.

Professor M. S. Pittman, of Ypsilanti, Michigan, used this method in his experiment in Brown County, South Dakota, in 1919-1920 except that his visits were not arranged in accord with the school schedule. We believe that the visit should be timed with the schedule in order that the work may be done under as nearly normal conditions as possible. In other words we believe not to visit in accord with the usual schedule violates the "Principle of Genuineness in Situations and Materials."

In order to give this procedure a real test we chose what we believed would be the most difficult field in which to try it out. This is in the

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Junior and Senior High Schools. Assistant County Superintendent, H. B. Alberty, of this county is in charge of the actual supervision of instruction in these schools. This is in a field where some people, school supervisors I refer to, still maintain that actual class-room supervision either is not needed or cannot be done effectively. Our only answer to this is that it is being done and we are ready to have its efficiency tested. Mr. Alberty agreed to make the test, in fact the suggestion of the whole plan was first made by him and after due consideration agreed upon by the office staff.

We chose also to make the test first upon two subjects: (1) Lesson Plans; (2) Directed Study. I refer to definite and specific written plans setting forth not only the teachers' and pupils' aims but a separation of subject-matter and method with proper emphasis upon the assignment while usually granted as desirable is not generally done in any kind of high school. The same is true with respect to "Directed or Supervised Study," because few teachers as yet know how to accomplish it.

The plan was instituted by sending out the following type of letter to all teachers to be visited:

Date .....

Dear .....:

On ..... I expect to visit the ..... school and I desire to visit your class in ..... which recites the ..... period.

I am especially interested in observing two phases of the work. They are as follows: (1) The lesson plan; (2) directed study.

I hope you will find it convenient at that time to give me a copy of the plan of your recitation which I may keep for future use. This plan need not be made especially for this recitation. The plan for the entire unit of subject-matter (see Handbook on "The Lesson Plan") of which this recitation is a part, is what I want.

I wish that on this occasion you would divide your time approximately as follows: First 2/5 of the period for recitation; next 1/5 of the period for assignment; and last 2/5 of the period for directed study.

The plan for the assignment and directed study should be a part of your lesson plan and should be carried on in accordance with some recognized method. See handbooks "Directing the Study of Pupils," and "The Lesson Assignment."

My visit, is, of course, conditional upon several factors, such as: (1) the weather; (2) health; (3) unavoidable changes in plans.

If you so desire, you may tell your class that I expect to pay you a visit and what I am interested in observing. In that way we will understand each other.

Looking forward to seeing some very good work, I am

Very truly yours

.....

Assistant County Superintendent.

A one-hour conference of all the teachers in a building was held immediately after school on the day when the visiting was completed. At this meeting immediate problems and difficulties were discussed.

Following the completion of visits in any one building the superintendent made a written report of his observations and suggestions. This report was sent out within a few days and was followed by a further conference either at the instance of the teacher or the superintendent. Samples of these reports are as follows:

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1. Supervision Report

H. B. Alberty, Assistant County Superintendent

January 26, 1923.

....., Parma H. S. Commercial Law

1. *The Lesson Plan:*
   A. *The Aim:* The aims are well stated. The pupils' aim, while less detailed than the teacher's aim, is nevertheless clear and definite. Should this aim be stated to the class in the assignment or should they be allowed to discover it in the supervised study period? If so, what checks might be used to make sure that the pupils have actually found the proper aims?
   B. *Subject Matter:* This is very general, but details are unnecessary unless the Subject Matter is very involved.
   C. *Method:* Possibly the "Method" might be more specific. For example, a few pivotal questions upon which the whole question of bailments turn, might help to see that the pupils really had accomplished the objectives set forth or developed in the assignment.
2. *The Assignment:*
   This was very specific. Again, one might raise the question: Should an assignment be motivated? Should objectives be set forth by the teacher or developed by the class?
3. *Directed Study:*
   The teacher called attention to some of the rules and fixed these by applying the lesson of "Atlanta's Race." If a few of these rules are discussed from time to time, it should aid materially in developing good study habits. These rules should then be applied specifically to the study and the results checked by the teacher.

2. Supervision Report

H. B. Alberty, Assistant County Superintendent

February 14, 1923.

....., Maple Hts. H. S. 8th Home Economics

1. *The Lesson Plan:*
   A. The plan is satisfactory from every point of view. The teachers' and pupils' aims are unusually well stated. The subject-matter and method are admirably worked out. This is one of the best lesson plans the writer has seen.
2. *General Comments:*
   A. The technique employed was very successful. The pupils were led to discover the next step without being told beforehand by the teacher. Reasons for doing things were especially well treated.
   B. The class was attentive and the pupils showed skill in carrying into effect the directions developed as a part of the project.
   C. The idea of grouping the various phases of attractive clothing into one project, seems a very good one.
   D. Without a doubt this work as it is being carried out is a credit to the school and to the community.
   E. The following material ought to be helpful in the department:
      Meat Charts—Wilson & Co., Union Stock Yards, Chicago, Illinois. (Gratis.)
      "The Homemakers Bulletin" Household Products Distributing Co., 7 West 22nd Street, New York City. (Gratis.)
      Posters on the Value of Milk, Etc., National Dairy Council, 910 Michigan Avenue, Chicago, Illinois. (Gratis.)
      "Longworthy Charts" U. S. Dept. Agriculture, Washington, D. C. ($1 00 per set.)

Not all reports are so complimentary as the two given above. The following is of a different type:

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3. Supervision Report

H. B. Alberty, Assistant County Superintendent

February 15, 1923.

....., Berea, H. S. 8-C Mathematics

This recitation was a study of some "short methods" of multiplying and dividing.

1. *Discipline:* Very good.
2. *Teacher's preparation:* Very good.
3. *Pupils' preparation:* Very poor.
4. *Economy of time:* Too much time was spent in passing out and calling attention to mistakes in test papers.
5. *Technique:* This was drill material. It should, therefore, be very rapid. The opposite was the case, it was slow, even though the exercises were easy and designed for sight work, without preparation. The previous assignment and supervised study should have cleared away the difficulties and prepared for the written problems.
6. *Assignment:* Very hastily made. Even though the problems were a radical departure, no explanation was given on them.
7. *Supervised Study:* No time given for this activity. In the writer's opinion, this section needs a great deal of directing in their study.

Has the plan been successful? Our only answer is, yes, far beyond our expectations. The results were at first electrical. Teachers awakened as from a sleep and bombarded their superintendents and principals for help and all found it necessary to get not only to the bottom of the questions but to actually make applications. It is our firm conviction that we are now getting and having used in our schools better teaching plans than have ever appeared in print anywhere. Of course not all are good but the surprise is that at least 50 per cent are acceptable, with another 40 per cent that are superior.

THE ADVANTAGES OF GEOGRAPHIC DISTRICTING IN THE SUPERVISION OF RURAL SCHOOLS

ELIZABETH K. RUCKER, RURAL SCHOOL SUPERVISOR OF DORCHESTER COUNTY, CAMBRIDGE, MARYLAND

In Maryland, a State in which geographic districting for the purpose of supervision is followed, there are usually about forty teachers under the direction of a helping teacher or supervisor. This person gives attention, not only to one subject, but to all, and also to such vital problems as the teachers have to solve.

Let us think of the average rural school, not a modern building in many cases, but all too frequently the box-car type which was built without regard for comfort or sanitation or even any consideration of present day classroom practices. Let us not forget that this poorly built and inadequately equipped building with its seven grades is at least seven times as complex and as difficult to classify as a room in a city school which has but one grade. The teacher is often young and without training, is many times inexperienced, and frequently is overworked and poorly paid, yet she must assume all responsibilities from principal down to janitorial duties. With this picture

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of actual conditions I want to consider a few of the advantages of assigning the supervisor to a geographical district, as we are working it out in Maryland.

Shortly after arriving in my district I went to visit a school in one of the more remote sections of my territory. On the day of my visit the school was closed, so I immediately hunted up the trustee. As is often the case, I found him to be the leading citizen of the community. After conversing with him for about a half hour, he said, "You seem a pretty nice sort, so I'm going to tell you what I've heard about you. Several people have remarked that they have got a lady ridin' around here now. She ain't doing nothin' but just drawing the county's money." I smiled and told him many people did not understand, but I was giving his people an opportunity to know what I was planning to do and the purpose of this visit was to arrange a meeting at his school. I felt confident the teacher would arrange a program with the children and I asked him to help get the crowd out. I emphasized the fact that I wanted to know the people and wanted them to know me. Many times a more intimate acquaintance changes the attitude of the community toward the school and its officials. We had a successful meeting and we have held many meetings of this kind. In some places I have found it advisable to spend a week, working with the teachers during the day and visiting with the patrons at night. I have always felt such efforts were amply repaid. The people come to have a stronger interest and are ready to support their schools. Some may feel that the education of the public is not the supervisor's business, but it is especially to the extent that the public's ignorance is a hindrance to her efforts. Both children and teachers are influenced by the sentiment of the community and it is impossible to get away from it.

Such activities prepare the way for the supervision which is made possible only when the confidence of the people has been won. It sometimes seems as if our wisest educators are attempting to force their plan of education upon the rural people just as the mother administers a dose of castor oil to her sick child. "Ask no questions, the taste is bad, but it is the thing for you, so open your mouth and swallow it without a word." It may be the best solution for our rural problems, but we cannot secure the coöperation of the rural people by any such talk. We cannot expect the best results, unless we take the time and have the patience to convince them that we are in earnest; that we know something about what we are attempting; and that we are not afraid to spend the effort necessary to accomplish our purposes. This is not the hardest task in the world, but it does require tact and careful planning. Rural people respond vigorously if they have been approached properly. They can be led, but they will not be driven. The first duty of the supervisor is to get acquainted with the people and the life of the people so she may more wisely plan her work of real supervision. She is laying the foundation stones for real service, so to speak.

Soon after becoming acquainted with the people of a district one can make suggestions as to how the unhygienic conditions about the building and the site may be modified in so far as it is possible without wrecking the plant

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and beginning anew. It is often possible to correct to a limited extent deficiences in lighting, heating, etc.; the water supply may come from a pure source; and more permanent steps may be taken toward beautifying the building both inside and outside and making the site more attractive.

We are pretty well agreed that the chief purpose of supervision is to *improve the instruction* imparted in the school. In order to accomplish this aim, the supervisor must have the coöperation of teacher, pupils, and patrons; with the assistance of the teacher she must adapt the course of study to the needs of the pupils; she must make use of the correlation and combinations of subjects in order to reduce the number of recitations; and she must provide some means of checking up on the results to be sure the method is working, to give both herself and teachers renewed confidence in their work, and to convince the public that they are getting what they have paid for with their tax levies.

1. *Securing coöperation*—The supervisor who is in charge of all the work in her district sees the rural school as a unit. She will consult what has been accomplished by those who have specialized in subject-matter, but to her teachers she interprets each subject as it is related to every other activity in her school. Such a supervisor is better able to estimate relative values and prevent her teachers from losing their poise in becoming too enthusiastic over some one subject. The teachers working with the same supervisor on these many problems form a closer mutual understanding which results in oneness of purpose toward a unified achievement. It seems inevitable that there would be more or less of a variance in the aims which would probably develop into discord when carrying them out, were two or more supervisors working with the same teacher. The untrained teacher is much more likely to carry out effectively the suggestions of one supervisor than she is to coördinate into a workable program the recommendations of several. Only the exceptional teacher would not be utterly overwhelmed and hopelessly confused in attempting to carry out the multiplicity of demands that would come from several supervisors. The supervisor's one greatest contribution to her teachers is to simplify their problems. Several supervisors will add complexity to what is already too complex a situation. One supervisor strives toward making the school a unit, which is sure to add to its efficiency.

2. *Adapting the course of study to the needs of the pupils*—Before the particular needs of the pupils can be met, they must be known. This requires much time and study. With the assistance of the teacher one supervisor may hope to secure the needed information. It seems almost impossible for a supervisor to obtain such information were she supervising but one subject. In order to get a fund of information which may be used advantageously, the child should be studied continuously while he is working and while he is playing as well as when he is studying his geography, reading or any other special subject, which under the most auspicious circumstances can arrest the attention of only a part of the child. Home conditions should be known. Without such a personal touch how is the supervisor to know whether the school work is reaching into the home or whether the school is

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meeting the home needs of the pupils. Pupils of the elementary schools are too immature to accept responsibilities from a number of persons visiting the school, hence it seems a course of study could be better adapted to the needs of the pupils by having one supervisor in charge instead of several.

3. *Improving the teaching process*—This may be most readily achieved through correlation of subjects and combination of classes. When there are a number of supervisors, each stressing her own particular subject, it is with difficulty that the pupils are led to grasp the interrelation of subjects. Each subject must end at the close of the period; the continuity is broken, which is not true in life. One of the most serious drawbacks in the rural schools has been the great number of recitations attempted each day. These recitations have been too short to be of very great value, so the combination of both classes and grades arose. With a different supervisor for different subjects in the curriculum the possibilities for combinations would diminish, not because the standards and methods of the supervisor of the subjects would be low, but her basis of organization in terms of the subject she was supervising demands isolation from other school activities. Enthusiasm for the subject might result in the improper distribution of such time as the rural teacher has. For example, a supervisor of penmanship in Minnesota recommended that rural teachers devote forty minutes each day to writing.

4. *Teaching results*—So much has been done with the standard tests especially in reading and arithmetic that we are apt to feel the results of teaching can be determined most accurately by their use. While the tests are a great help, we must safeguard their interference with the human element. Their use increases rather than decreases the importance of studying the classroom situation in its entirety. We arrive at fair judgments on the basis of general achievement rather than on accomplishment in any one subject.

The improvement of instruction is closely associated with the *administration of the system.* The arrangement of the daily program; the classification and grading of the pupils; and selection of a teaching staff present grave administrative problems.

1. *Making the daily program*—A good daily program doesn't just "happen." It is the result of much planning and careful thinking, which is based on intimate acquaintance with every phase of the teacher's work. A satisfactory daily program not only includes a place for every phase of the school experiences of the pupils, but it considers the whole as being a continuous process. The supervisor not only helps make a program, but she must lend every encouragement to see that it is followed in the daily practice of the school. Again, it would seem that one supervisor having entire charge of the schools would simplify this problem while more than one supervisor would likely add confusion to our present chaotic state.

2. *Classifying and grading pupils*—Where a supervisor is given entire supervision of her district, she is certain to become much more intimately acquainted with pupils, than any one of the several supervisors might become where each is supervisor of a special subject. Any disposition on her part to rank them in terms of subject-matter is being constantly counteracted by her relations with them in other situations. The supervisors of special

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subjects are being tempted on all occasions to stress subject-matter above all else. Doubtless the matter of securing a fair, just, and uniform classification and grading of the pupils where several supervisors were working in the same area would be a much more complex administrative problem, than in the case where one supervisor had the district under her control.

3. *Rating teachers*—Just as in the case of the pupils would it be with the rating of teachers. This is one of the most difficult tasks confronting the supervisor. There are no recognized standards. Training, education, growth, personality, conduct, general teaching ability, etc., have been and are still the dominant factors in forming such judgments. In fairness to the teacher she should be studied under various and sundry conditions. The district supervisor has an opportunity to do so which the subject supervisor could never have. Even when the latter had arrived at a fair estimate in her subject, it would not be related to the worth of the teacher in other situations. The supervisor of the district has the decided advantage of looking at the whole of the teacher's work in making up her score of a teacher's rating.

Supervision expensive—School administrators, teachers and taxpayers are asking whether it pays. The supervisors must yet convince these agencies that supervision is worth the price. Other things being equal, the system has the stronger appeal which comes most economically. The supervision of rural schools is very expensive. Geographical conditions make transportation difficult and costly. These expenses are multiplied by the number of visits made to the schools. Transportation from school to school over country roads is too difficult and expensive to justify frequent visits from the supervisor of a single subject, unless the advantages of such a type of supervision are outstanding. Such visits are wasteful of the supervisor's time and energy.

In brief then, the assignment of a supervisor to a geographical district has certain distinct advantages over the plan of assigning supervisors for one or more subjects in three ways: 1. The whole tone of the improvement of the instruction will be strengthened, simplified, and unified. 2. The administrative problems are not so numerous and complicated. 3. There are unquestioned economic gains to be secured. It is not implied that one supervisor for all subjects will always prove most helpful. Time and effort may convince those who doubt today, that the values received from supervision are worth much more than we are now willing to pay. Some future day may bring a readjustment. A change from the present district organization of our schools to larger units would undoubtedly demand changes in our methods of supervision. A denser school population in our present districts may necessitate more than one teacher in a school. A change in the plan of supervision might very well follow, but as long as rural living is what it is today in Maryland, we do feel that the geographical district for supervisory purposes is the most desirable. Just as long as one teacher must teach all subjects offered in our rural schools, her supervision can better be placed with one person. While the task of such a supervisor is a heavy one, it is no heavier than her teachers are meeting today in many places and with very little assistance.

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PRACTICAL STANDARDS FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF RURAL EDUCATION DEPARTMENTS IN NORMAL SCHOOLS AND TEACHERS COLLEGES

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Before one sets standards for an institution it is necessary to consider all the elements which affect that institution. It is necessary therefore to review briefly the elements affecting the educational aspects of teacher training.

At all times education has been the fundamental principle which promised to afford a solution of the much discussed "rural problem." Emphasis has shifted from time to time as to what educational shortage must be supplied and accordingly as to what social agency could best supply the need. To scan the rural life literature of any section for any considerable period will show how various institutions have come into ascendency only shortly to be supplanted by another. We find the agricultural extension department with its program for crop improvement and stock judging. The leaders of boys' and girls' clubs offer a program of conservation through canning projects. They also attempt to keep boys and girls on the farm by making better farms and better farmers through pig, calf, poultry, corn, tomato, and potato clubs. The county agent proposes a solution through schemes of publicity and coöperation. The community organizer would produce sociability through recreation, the outcome to be an organization which supposedly will provide for the satisfaction of all the life interests. The doctors, bankers, ministers, librarians, artists, educators, villagers, retail dealers, farmers, and agents of commercialized recreation are all to be united in one coöperative plan for community betterment. The educational leaders would modify the unit of taxation, provide consolidated schools and train teachers specifically for rural service. The economist would secure coöperative marketing on a large scale and thus supply the finances essential for the purchasing of life satisfactions. Valuable and necessary as each of these efforts is they cannot do the fundamentally constructive work of a carefully trained body of teachers. A certain amount of social intelligence is neccessary before any of these coöperative enterprises can yield their possible results to the full. This social intelligence is most effectively and economically developed through the cultural influences of good schools. The sooner we recognize this and make the public schools the primary educational agency, the sooner other social agencies will succeed in accomplishing their legitimate ends.

The reasons for mentioning the above in connection with this topic are:

(1) By way of excusing the State—supported teacher—preparing institutions and particularly the executives of these institutions for failing to recognize their responsibility of providing adequately prepared teachers for rural service. They might easily have thought that both the adults and the children of the open country were to be educated by supplementary agencies.

(2) The variety of attempts to provide for the various phases of rural life needs is suggestive of the objectives which educators would do well to

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consider. This consideration would help them determine which need it is the function of the school to supply.

(3) The importance of public education together with the need by other agencies of coöperation from the school to further their activities points to the necessity of providing teachers cognizant of the social needs and of the service agencies. Teachers should, therefore, be trained to carry forward skilfully the educational work for which the school is primarily responsible. At the same time they should have a consumer's knowledge of the work of other social agencies in order that they may utilize them for the advancement of the children's educational interests.

It is thus to be noted that a clear understanding of (1) the phase of service, (2) the specialized activities, and (3) the relationships to other existing social institutions are essential before the setting of standards can be begun. This is applicable to the preparation of workers in any field and particularly true in preparing teachers for rural service. It is evident that such an understanding has not guided in the preparation of teachers if the accusations against normal schools and their executives may be taken as an indication.

The following criticism is illustrative of the neglect of the rural service: (1) The normal schools fail to recognize their responsibility to prepare teachers for the rural service. (2) When attempts are made to prepare teachers for rural service, shorter periods of preparation and lower standards of scholarship are accepted. (3) Teachers have been prepared superficially, emphasis being placed upon activities which are not primarily the function of the school in the community; (e. g., leading a community band, directing community drama, putting on the agricultural fair, promoting the Grange activities, and the like). (4) The State-supported institution fails to return educational leadership to the rural communities in proportion to the amount of taxes received for the support of teacher-training institutions from these districts. (5) Failure to differentiate the preparation of teachers who do enter upon the rural service is common in practically all State-supported institutions.

My purpose in this paper is not so much an attempt to set standards as it is to point out, from a brief analysis of existing conditions, the type and quality of service which normal schools and teachers' colleges can render, and which they are under obligation to render the rural areas. Once the need is felt and the work of preparing these teachers is established under the direction of rural specialists, the standards will be forthcoming.

That many normal schools have dissipated the appropriations which States have set aside for the training of teachers for the public schools of the State is apparent. It is not uncommon to find teacher-training institutions offering courses for commercial stenographers, telegraphers, premedical and engineering courses, and what not.

The school is thereby weakened as a teacher-training institution in three ways: (1) It distributes funds over a wider range of courses. This tends to increase the number of classes and reduce the size of the class. A high-salaried mathematics teacher may be giving one fourth of his time to three

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students in a class in surveying or five students in higher mathematics, while classes pointed toward teaching are too large for effective work. The teachers of English, history, and science may be giving their time to liberal-arts courses in these subjects instead of to professional collegiate courses in children's literature, world history, and general science, which are essential in the preparation of teachers for the public schools. (2) It directs the teacher's attention away from the primary function of the school, which is the preparation of teachers. Instead of selecting and organizing his teaching materials toward this end he organizes them for the other professions—for example, law, engineering, medicine, and business. (3) The students who are preparing to teach, lose proportionately in professional idealism and technique when the work is thus organized. They are deprived of the professional influence which the State aimed to supply, because the executive and faculty were not true to the trust placed in their hands. They sought instead to do the work of the State university, a work for which the State had appropriated funds to another type of institution.

We need to observe these facts because of the excuse which is often given that we have no call for teachers in the rural field. If no effort is made to prepare teachers for any specific service it naturally follows that no calls will come. Again, should teachers, prepared as noted above, go into the public schools, as they sometimes do, they would be inadequately prepared and have little interest or skill. When we consider further that sixty per cent of the children are in the rural schools, that but eight per cent of the teachers go into rural service and but six per cent into one-room schools, we can well understand that "the tragedy of the public-school situation is the tragedy of the rural school." Not even the fact that most normal-school presidents have been city superintendents, or that State certification laws allow unprepared teachers to fill one-room schools can longer excuse any normal-school president from accepting responsibility for correcting this condition.

Let us see what service the normal school could render the rural areas at once by using the State's funds for developing on professional lines and still hold the rank of collegiate institutions.

The first consideration would be to give all students who are preparing to teach in villages and small towns preparation for their work. This is distinctly rural service, for when the mutual interrelationships of village and open country are established it will be done right there in the villages through educational leadership. Until the teacher-training institutions prepare principals and teachers who comprehend these social interrelationships and who are equipped to serve intelligently the two groups which meet in the classroom of the village school, this interrelationship will not be established. It has not yet been done by the efforts of urban missionaries and economic propagandists. It can be done by educating the children together in the public schools to be conscious of their common problems. The stage is set for this type of educational leadership in the village communities, for the farm boys and girls and the children of the village are studying the same lessons. The teacher-training institution must provide the educational leadership.

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Another field of service is the preparation of teachers for high-school teacher-training classes. Though this is considered a transitory service it is essential in many States and will be for some time to come, as the one-room rural schools will have to recruit their teachers from the lesser-prepared groups. This is necessary for three reasons: (1) The State schools have not furnished enough teachers to fill all teaching posts with adequately prepared teachers. They have been bidding for other types of students. (2) The rural schools, while operating under the district system, will find their funds inadequate to secure the services of adequately prepared teachers. (3) The social and professional isolation, the limited teaching equipment, and the complexity of the teaching situations are factors which will prohibit these districts from securing teachers that have teaching qualifications which permit them to enter other phases of the service.

These conditions will be changed with the tendency to provide larger taxing units, to grant State subsidies, to supply supervision and to consolidate schools. But the training of teachers in secondary schools will be necessary to provide teachers with specific training for one-room schools until the handicaps of these one-room schools are removed. This means that college graduates must be specifically prepared for this secondary service.

The rural supervisors compose a third group of workers which the teachers' colleges should provide and thereby create a demand for their services. Supervision is necessary for one and two-room schools, especially so while we have to depend upon teachers prepared either on the secondary level or without any professional preparation to fill these teaching posts.

The county superintendency will be a profession only when men and women are professionally prepared for this work. The argument that it is a political office should not keep teacher-preparing institutions from offering courses in administration and supervision designed to meet the needs of this fourth group. It is to be observed that the men and women usually elected to this office are village teachers from within the county. If the village teachers are trained as suggested above and courses in administration and supervision offered specially for county superintendents, we will soon develop a professionally trained group of county superintendents.

In those States where the certification laws allow only graduates of high schools with one or two years of preparation to teach in the schools of the State—rural as well as urban—a curriculum designed to meet the needs of a fifth group—the teachers of the one-room schools—should be provided on the collegiate level. In any case this group should be provided for on the collegiate level if there is any considerable number of teachers of collegiate rank entering the one-room school service. Otherwise this group could well be trained in secondary schools of the State under the supervision of the rural specialists in normal schools.

When these groups are provided, village teachers, teachers of high-school teacher-training classes, rural supervisors and county superintendents, and one-room teachers of one-room schools according to demand—the rural service group takes on proportions not always recognized by administrators of teacher-training institutions. This group is too large and the service alto-

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gether too important to be any longer neglected. It is only right that the previous neglect be pointed out to the rural taxpayers. They should be encouraged to demand recognition of the amount of taxes they pay and the number of children on the farms in need of well-prepared teachers.

The administrative aspect of the problem is threefold. It involves (1) the recognition of rural service as equal in importance to that of urban service, (2) the appropriation of funds to provide rural specialists, and (3) the essential differentiation of curricula, including practice teaching facilities for the adequate preparation of rural workers. This recognition of the importance of the rural service is fundamental to the other two. So long as rural courses are ignored, or merely tolerated, or placed on the secondary level, there will always be a stigma attached to the work which no rural specialist can overcome regardless of how favored he may be in personal qualities or how well prepared he may be for the work he is undertaking. The administrator must organize the curriculum on the collegiate basis and put it on a par as to general culture, scholarship standards, and technical skill, with that of every other curriculum. If the State provides temporarily for an abbreviated training on the collegiate level for rural teachers, the student should be aware that he is going out with partial preparation only, and the curriculum should be so arranged that he feels the shortage in his preparation. This is in opposition to the quite common notion that a shorter curriculum should superficially cover all the courses of the longer curriculum.

The necessity of employing rural specialists to conduct this work, the amount of curriculum differentiation necessary, the size of the groups to be served, and the phases of the service for which teachers are being prepared, all enter into the determination of the number of staff members. However, it is certain that at least two rural specialists should be employed. One should teach rural sociology and rural administration, and phases of rural school management, besides providing the practice facilities and carrying on the extension activities. The other should supervise the participation and practice of the rural group under the direction of the director of training, when in the grade training-school, and independently, when in the affiliated rural and consolidated schools.

When teachers for high-school teacher-training classes are being prepared, it is necessary to affiliate, for observation and practice, with high schools offering this training together with their affiliated one-room schools. It would be quite advisable for each teacher-training institution of the State to supervise all of the State-supported teacher-training activities within the section where it is located. They would thus be provided automatically with adequate facilities for observation, participation, and practice of every type. If the institution were adequately staffed by the State for such service, it would far surpass in efficiency the inspection generally employed by State departments of education.

In conclusion let me summarize the position I have taken in regard to standards toward which normal schools and teachers' colleges should aim:

1. The public school as a social institution must educate the children of the rural community. No supplementary educational agency can be intrusted with this responsibility.

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2. The teacher-training institutions must assume the responsibility of providing adequately prepared teachers for this important service. Educational leadership offers promise of directing the social adjustments in rural life.

3. Rural workers should be specifically prepared for the different phases of rural service—namely, village principalships, teaching positions, high-school teacher-training classes, rural supervisors, county superintendencies, and one-room schools.

4. Executives of State-supported teacher-training institutions have betrayed their trust and sought other activities for the institutions over which they were given charge. The responsibility for developing teacher-training institutions on professional lines rests with them.

5. The executives of state-supported institutions should be called to account for not recognizing a responsibility to the rural communities, especially when the farmers through taxation furnish a large portion of the funds appropriated for the support of these institutions.

6. In order that the rural community be served it is necessary (1) that the administrators recognize their responsibility to rural communities, (2) that the funds dissipated into other channels be used to employ rural specialists and provide facilities for observation and practice, and (3) that curriculum differentiation be made according to the needs of the service.

This is the only way to approach universal, democratic, and free educational opportunity. The inequalities which are today so flagrant, which are believed to be so ominous for the future, can by these means be greatly reduced.

NECESSITY OF THE COUNTY UNIT FOR THE EFFICIENT ADMINISTRATION OF RURAL SCHOOLS

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The superior advantages of the county over the township or district as a unit of rural school administration are generally conceded by recognized authority. To adopt the county unit is to provide the rural schools with an efficient system of administration such as that in use in the leading school cities. Its adoption means the application of a well-established business principle of organization and administration to a system of rural education.

By the term "county unit" is meant the unified control of all the schools in a county, exclusive of cities and possibly larger towns, by a board of five or seven members elected on a nonpartisan ticket. This board of education should locate and erect school houses; purchase school supplies; elect a county superintendent; appoint supervisors, principals, and teachers; levy a uniform school tax on all taxable property in the school county; and perform other duties analogous to those now performed by city school boards.

In attempting to show the necessity for the county unit for the efficient administration of rural schools, you will pardon, I hope, frequent references to my own State, Indiana, where the General Education Board has recently completed a thorough study of the schools, and recommended, among other things, the adoption of the county unit in lieu of the township system.

Indiana has had the township system since 1852. Its adoption at that early date was a most advanced step in the cause of public education, but

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on account of better means of transportation and communication, ever increasing demands upon the schools entailing ever increasing school costs, and ever increasing inequalities in taxable property between townships, the people are studying now with keen interest the advisability of adopting the county unit system. In discussing the necessity for the county unit system, I wish to review a few of the important reasons that are fundamental for the proper solution of the rural-school problem.

TAXATION

In maintaining a school system it is fundamental that adequate funds be provided. It is also important that the burden of taxation, in so far as possible, shall be distributed equitably. Public education is of such general interest that it involves a public responsibility that cannot be entrusted with best results to a small unit of territory. Since it is a problem of general interest it is natural that the burden of taxation in support of it should not bear too heavily upon one citizen as against another. Moreover, taxable property is so unevenly distributed that schools of uniform rank cannot be maintained unless the unit of taxation is larger than the township. And this is not all. Industrially the State is growing rapidly. Natural resources are being developed at an unusual rate. New fields of stone and coal and oil are contributing more and more to the industrial activities of the people. Railroads, interurbans, power, telephone, and telegraph lines are increasing both in number and extent. Wealth and property is becoming more and more unevenly distributed, so much so that the rate of taxation for school purposes between townships in the same county in Indiana varies from twenty cents to one dollar twenty five cents on each hundred dollars of taxables, and in some instances the variation is more marked. This is because the taxable property behind each child for school purposes ranges between $2500 to $20,000. In Indiana, 47 townships have a local school tax of less than $0.25 on each $100 of taxable property, while 37 have $1.25 to $1.50. Not infrequently the township with a minimum of taxable property and a high tax rate has the oldest, most poorly constructed and unsanitary school buildings.

With the county as the unit of taxation, the same tax rate would prevail throughout the county for all classes of property. Railroads, personal and corporate property, and real estate would pay the same rate, each class bearing its proportionate share of the cost of the schools. When the taxing units are small and, therefore, more numerous, tax rates on the same class of property are more varied. Our class of property in one taxing unit may have an unusually high rate as compared with the same class of property in another taxing unit. The report of the Indiana Education Commission shows that real estate in one township bears a tax rate of $.15 while in another township it bears $1.57, and there are all sorts of variations between these extremes. The same is true of other classes of property. Under the practice in this country of dividing school support between the State and the local unit of school administration, we can never do away altogether with the inequalities of school tax burdens on a particular class of property, or prevent one class

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of property from escaping its just burdens and another class from being overtaxed. Nevertheless, the marked inequalities in tax burdens should be remedied. It is a move in the right direction to adopt the county as the unit of taxation for school purposes. The rapid changes taking place in the industrial, agricultural, and social life of the State and Nation; the ever-increasing demands upon the school; the growing tendency for wealth to become more and more unequally distributed, make the selection of a better taxing unit imperative.

Since the need of public education is not so much a matter of local concern as it is a matter of general concern, the cost of maintaining the schools should be borne by the county and the State, so that all the schools may be uniformly good and property caused to bear a tax assessed on a more equitable basis. To follow a system of taxation based upon any unit smaller than the county will result in the impoverishment of some schools though the local tax rate may be high. It cannot be otherwise. Equal educational opportunities cannot be maintained without an approximate equalization of school costs and the means of providing adequate funds for all schools. The adoption of the county unit of school organization and administration will equalize the school tax rates between townships, will equalize the proportion of local school funds borne by each class of taxable property, and, most important of all, will more nearly equalize school opportunities.

Economy—Economy in spending money is as important as economy in saving money. In its truest sense, economy means proper spending and saving of both money and time, or anything else worth while. The term as applied to the school means a practical administration of available means to desirable ends; practical adjustment, organization, and administration of school affairs.

There are several ways in which economy would result from the adoption of the county unit:

A. Economy for the pupil—When the location of a school building is determined in whole or in part by arbitrary township lines rather than on the basis of centers of population, condition of roads, and other public conveniences, the folly of such a practice is visited upon the children in loss of time and disadvantage in getting to school. In Indiana, not infrequently high school pupils travel from four to six miles to get to their township high school, sometimes passing en route to school, a town or city commissioned high school, when, under the county unit system they could be more advantageously accommodated in the town or city school or in an adjacent township. The location of buildings upon any basis other than that of serving a considerable number to the best advantage, irrespective of township lines, entails not only a great inconvenience to the public, but a loss in time, and involves as well unnecessary transportation costs that assume large proportions. There is no available means of determining the saving in time and convenience to pupils that would come from the adoption of the county unit, but the saving in Indiana in transportation costs alone would be at the least calculation one fifth the total cost of transportation charges, which, for the year 1920-21, amounted to $2,404,034. This would mean a net saving of $480,805.

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B. Economy to teachers—It is well recognized that the district or township system is not as advantageous for school consolidation as the county. The smaller the school, the greater is the number of grades to the teacher, the more widely diversified must be her work. In the non-consolidated school the teacher must be constantly changing from one activity to another, not remaining with one thing long enough to develop skill. This means lost motion, misdirected energy, and unsatisfactory work. The successful business man, encountering sharp competition, recognized and adopted long ago the principle that diversification of individual tasks produces not only a decrease in production, but unsatisfactory results generally. Any administrative system that encourages consolidation naturally is economical in time and effort on the part of the teacher.

C. Economy for the county superintendent—The greater the number of administrative rural school units the more difficult it becomes for the county superintendent to serve the schools to the best advantage. He is required to work with a greater number of school trustees, dealing with them as heads of independent school units, which not only requires more of his time and energy than otherwise would be required, but frequently delays prompt execution of his plans and policies. If the plans of the county superintendent could be put into effect alike throughout the county, without the delays and hindrances growing out of a multiplicity of school administrative units, the execution of his plans would be more immediate and effective.

D. Savings in school costs—It will always cost more to maintain in the country school advantages equal to those in the city, mainly because the rural children are more sparsely located and must be transported in order that each teacher may be provided with the average teaching load. But aside from the transportation charges, it is costing more as a rule, to maintain the rural school as compared with the city school, as the following tables, taken from the report of the Indiana Education Commission, prove:

TOTAL CURRENT COST IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS AND HIGH SCHOOLS—1920-1921

	Cities	Towns	Townships	Average
Elementary schools	$54.28	$31.63	$60.55	$56.68
High schools	113.74	90.62	148.55	123.02

In computing the elementary and high school costs, expenditures for superintendents, teachers' institutes, and transportation were apportioned on the basis of elementary and high-school enrolment, and expenditures for supervisors and special teachers were distributed, one third to elementary schools and two thirds to high schools.

	Township		Town		City	
	Elementary schools	High schools	Elementary schools	High schools	Elementary schools	High schools
Maintenance	$32.14	$47.00	$11.96	$25.25	$15.69	$28.59
Instruction	28.41	101.55	29.67	65.37	38.59	85.15

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The Report of the Indiana Education Commission states:

The average current elementary school cost per pupil enrolled was in 1920-1921, $56.68; the average current high school cost per pupil enrolled was $123.02. While current expenditure per pupil enrolled in township elementary schools ($60.55) is higher than in city elementary schools ($54.28), the greatest difference is in the current cost of high schools, which is $148.55 per pupil enrolled in township high schools as compared with $113.74 in city high schools.

The maintenance cost in both rural elementary schools and rural high schools as compared to similar costs in towns and cities is very high. It is to be remembered, however, that into the maintenance cost of rural elementary schools ($32.14) and of high schools ($47.00), has gone the cost of transportation, which is equivalent to $8.76 per pupil of the entire rural school enrollment, and $35.51 per pupil actually transported. The instructional cost in elementary schools is low, being $28.41 in rural elementary schools, $29.67 in town elementary schools, and $38.59 in city elementary schools. But it must be remembered that the bulk of the teachers who receive the minimum wage of $800 are found in the rural elementary schools. In contrast the cost of rural high school instruction, $101.55, is exceedingly high, as compared to $65.37 in towns, and $85.15 in cities. This excessive cost is largely due to the great number of small rural high schools.

The high cost of all rural schools raises a serious financial problem. On the basis of what it now costs to maintain the poor rural schools, it might seem that the cost of providing uniformly good rural schools would be prohibitive. If it is not to prove prohibitive, a more economical organization must be effected, one-teacher schools must be consolidated, and both consolidated elementary schools and consolidated high schools must be made as large as possible.

If we take into account the difference in school costs between rural and city schools, the difference in the length of the term, amounting to from four to eight weeks, the experience and qualifications of rural and city teachers, the marked inequality of housing conditions, and the difference in achievements of rural pupils as compared with city children, the difference in school costs in rural schools as compared to city schools becomes more and more marked, so much so that it seems imperative that a more economical organization must be affected for the rural schools, such as that provided by the county unit system. More especially is this apparent when the achievements of pupils in the fundamental subjects in the rural and city schools are compared. In the recent report of the Indiana Education Commission, it was pointed out that fifth grade pupils in the elementary rural schools were approximately one year behind fifth grade pupils in the city schools and eighth grade pupils in rural schools were approximately one and three fourths years behind pupils in the eighth grade city schools. If it costs more per capita to maintain the rural schools, if the rural school term is not as long and the teaching staff not as well trained, if the housing conditions are not as good, and finally if the achievements of pupils are not so good as the achievements of pupils in the city schools, the rural school administrators are brought face to face with a problem which should command their immediate and searching study.

SOME SPECIFIC EXAMPLES IN COST REDUCTIONS

A. Trustees' salaries and expenses—The annual salaries of township trustees in Indiana approximate $1,000,000 and their office and traveling expenses are more than $100,000. These officials serve in a dual capacity.

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They have both civil and school duties to perform. By their own estimate, 56.5 per cent of the salaries they receive are chargeable to school business. Using the trustees estimate, a saving in salaries of $565,000 and an additional $100,000 could be effected, making a total annual saving of at least $665,000 which could be effected by the adoption of the county unit in Indiana, since the county unit bill now before the legislature does not provide any salaries for school board members, but only traveling expenses, not exceeding $100 each per annum.

B. Supplies, equipment, and maintenance—During the year 1921-1922, approximately $13,830,000 were expended in Indiana for school supplies and temporary improvements. Approximately $8,000,000 of this amount was expended for class-room and building supplies and fuel. Twenty per cent of this amount can be saved by centralizing purchasing power in the hands of the county board of education, *a net saving* of $1,600,000. The remainder, $5,830,000 was expended for temporary improvements, purchasing of school hacks and busses, and general repairs. Centralization of control of the purchasing and construction of these items will reduce the cost 10 per cent, effecting a net saving of $583,000. The net savings on supplies and equipment would total $2,183,000.

The difference in per capita cost of maintenance between rural and city schools, exclusive of transportation, is $7.84. There are 317,000 pupils attending rural and small town schools in Indiana. At this rate, there is expended in rural schools $2,484,000 more for maintenance than would be expended under the city rate. Our estimate of a saving of $2,183,000 as given above is, therefore, conservative.

C. Permanent improvements—Approximately $13,275,000 was expended in Indiana for permanent improvements during the year 1921-22. A more efficient administration of school-house construction and the elimination of the necessity of construction of a number of buildings which would be possible under the county unit plan, would effect an enormous saving. Five per cent is a conservative estimate—*a net saving of* $664,000.

D. Transportation—During the year 1921-22, $2,264,000 was expended in Indiana for transportation of pupils. The county unit would reduce the number of children transported, the distance over which the pupils are transported, and the number of roads which are traveled. The amount of savings cannot be determined, but it is believed it would be substantial.

E. Teachers' institutes—During the year 1921-22 the sum of $541,853 was paid Indiana teachers for attending township monthly institutes. Under the county unit plan, as provided by the bill now before the Indiana legislature, the township institute would be abolished and a substitute provided at an annual cost of approximately 50 per cent less than the present system. *a net saving of* $270,000.

TOTAL NET SAVINGS

Trustees' salaries and office expense	$665,000.00
Supplies and equipment	2,183,000.00
Permanent improvements	664,000.00
Teachers' institutes	270,000.00
Total saving, not including transportation	$3,782,000.00

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The foregoing is a very conservative estimate of the saving that might be effected in the State of Indiana, were the county unit of school administration adopted in lieu of the present township system. It is the thought of the speaker that considerably more could be saved.

In discussing this point, let it be understood that the effort is not so much to point out how a little money can be saved, to put the dollar above the child, but rather it is an effort to have the schools lead as they must in the practice of good government, efficient government, and economical government. Democracy, if it endures, must contend against waste. It must see to it that when a dollar is expended for education or anything else it will yield the highest possible returns. Upon no other basis can the school administrator proceed and hope to have schools sufficiently financed to meet the high standards that must be maintained.

SUPERVISION

One of the greatest weaknesses of the rural school system is a lack of competent supervision, lack of expert guidance. An annual perfunctory visit of thirty minutes by the county superintendent is next to no supervision. Supervision requires time, planning, and expert direction. It requires those who can diagnose educational ills and prescribe the proper cure.

Rarely can one find a school position which is more difficult or which offers more promise for genuine achievement for public good than that of the county superintendent of schools. The personnel of the teaching staff, the standard of scholarship in the ranks of rural teachers, the technic of instruction, the physical condition of the school plant, the public support the schools receive, the attitude of the public toward the schools, all depend upon the county superintendent, as upon no one else. If the right sort of leadership is not provided in this office, little may be expected.

Though the superintendent may meet these high standards he cannot bring about the needed results without a unit of organization and administration that will make his work and that of his associates most effective. Any unit of organization smaller than the county is not conducive to proper supervision. The township is too small and employs too few teachers to make the right kind of supervision practicable. Little more in the way of supervision can be expected so long as the district or township system prevails. Of all teachers, the rural teacher has greatest and most varied responsibilities. She is the one teacher that needs proper guidance, but too often she must shift for herself. If she fails, which is often the case, it is because she is thrown into responsible work and denied the expert help to which she is entitled and would receive in a city system or in a private position where satisfactory results are demanded. More than ever before the rural teacher needs guidance. Often she is without experience and young in years, and her problems are becoming more numerous because of the increased demands upon the country school. The lack of the expert guidance of which this rural teacher is in need is not so much the fault of the superintendent as it is

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the fault of the system. Be his qualifications ever so good, he has little time to supervise school-room work. With the county as the unit of organization and administration a sufficient number of supervisors could be engaged to make supervision practicable and effective. The need of a better supervision is one of the strongest arguments for the county unit system.

THE COUNTY UNIT

T. H. HARRIS, STATE SUPERINTENDENT OF EDUCATION
BATON ROUGE, LOUISIANA

Good schools, responding to public demands, frequently develop in the poorest of school systems. While this is true, all will agree that efficient school machinery is highly desirable and is helpful in securing and administering good schools. The county as the unit of public-school administration is receiving Nation-wide attention, and it is probably safe to say that the county unit plan of organization has the approval of the school forces of this country.

My selection to discuss the question upon this occasion was no doubt due to the fact that my State, Louisiana, has used the county unit plan for many years, and it seemed desirable, therefore, to those in charge of this program that I make a statement as to what the plan is and how it operates. Throughout the discussion I shall use the term "parish" instead of "county."

The machinery of the county unit system—Each parish has a small overlapping school board, the members of which are elected from districts for terms of six years. To escape numerous elections, all vacancies are filled by appointment by the governor. School board members are elected at the congressional elections when there is an absence of political issues. The result is that political factions usually manifest no interest in the election of school board members.

We prefer to elect the members of the school board from districts instead of from the parish "at large," as this eliminates the possibility of placing the control of the board in a few populous centers in the parish.

The board elects a general manager, or superintendent, for a term of four years, and fixes his salary. The State Board of Education prescribes the educational and professional standards that shall govern the parish superintendent. At present, these are college graduation and five years of successful teaching experience. The board further employs such assistant superintendents, supervisors, medical inspectors, nurses, club agents, clerks and bookkeepers as in its judgment are needed. The staff is responsible to the superintendent, and he, to the board.

The board may, if it desires, appoint local trustees for individual schools. In such cases, the board prescribes the duties of the trustees. Not many trustees are appointed, though some have been known to be useful.

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Powers and duties—The parish school board has complete control of all public schools of the parish, and this includes any cities, however, large or small, that may be located in the parish, subject, of course, to legislation and the rules and regulations of the State Board of Education. Some of the more important duties of the board are: It elects the teachers and fixes their salaries; adopts a budget of receipts and expenditures; determines the length of the school session; locates schools; consolidates schools; builds schoolhouses; buys all supplies; provides for the transportation of school children; approves high schools and other special schools, subject to the approval of the State Board; conducts special elections for the raising of school funds or the floating of school bonds; settles appealed questions of discipline, and performs such other acts as may be necessary in administering the affairs of the schools. The school board is, in short, the board of directors in charge of public education in the parish. The board's most important duty is to elect a superintendent, or general manager of the school system. The superintendent is the board's executive officer. He nominates all teachers, assistants, supervisors, clerks, and other employees are recommended by him; he prepares the budget and lays it before the board; he recommends policies for the adoption or rejection of the board; he advises on such matters as the location of schools and the consolidation of schools; he approves all schoolhouse plans, subject to the approval of the State Department; he prepares special school tax ordinances and takes the lead in special school tax elections; he supervises classroom instruction and conducts teachers' institutes; he reports to the parish board and to the State Board—in short, he is the agency through whom the board does its work. Frequently there are assistant superintendents, city superintendents, and other employees, but they are all subject to the orders of the superintendent. They report to him and are directed by him. There is but one head to the school system—namely, the parish board, and it functions through the superintendent.

System of finances—We have proceeded in Louisiana upon the theory that the wealth of the entire State should contribute as largely as possible to the support of the public schools, and that any additions to the State funds needed by the parishes should be raised on the parish-wide basis, except for building purposes.

A State tax of two and a half mills is distributed to the parishes on the basis of the school population. This tax is entirely too small—only about one fifth of the school funds. The State should carry at least one half of the school load. Our State tax possesses the virtue, however, of being a constitutional tax, which places it beyond the reach of legislatures.

The constitution makes available to each parish school board three mills on the parish assessment, as well as all poll taxes and certain other unimportant funds. The State tax of two and a half mills, the parish tax of three mills, and the poll taxes, represent our permanent school funds. Should these prove insufficient to meet the needs of the schools (and they usually do), special maintenance taxes may be voted up to a maximum of eight mills, and building bonds may be floated up to ten per cent of the assessment. The school board has control of all special elections and it may name the entire

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parish, or any part of the parish, as the special tax district. With but few exceptions, special maintenance taxes have been voted parish-wide, while building taxes have usually been confined to the communities needing the buildings.

I wish now to call attention to a few features of the parish unit scheme which appeal to us in Louisiana as being of vital importance.

Overlapping boards—The members of the parish board should be elected for long terms, and the terms of office of members should be overlapping. We believe that the overlapping feature is of great importance for the reasons that it prevents breaks in policies due to the induction into office of a new board bent upon sudden and unwise reforms; it makes sure that a majority of the members of the board are experienced in the administration of school affairs, and it enables the board and the professional staff to adopt plans extending into the future.

Cities not excluded from parish system—We believe in Louisiana that separate school machinery should not be set up for cities and incorporated towns, but that the parish school board and the parish superintendent should exercise the same jurisdiction over the city schools that they exercise over the country schools for two reasons; first, all children in the parish should as nearly as possible be given equal educational facilities, and this cannot be done unless the parish school system is organized upon the principle that the school funds shall be used to educate the children wherever they may be found, without regard to the wealth of the community in which the children may happen to live. If the city is rich and the country poor, some of the city's wealth should be used to educate the children in the country; and if the country has high assessments and the city, low assessments, some of the country's wealth should be used for the benefit of the city children. Education is not a city or country affair—every man in the parish is responsible for the instruction of every child in the parish, and in meeting that responsibility he should contribute to the burdens of education in proportion to his wealth. In the second place, needed uniformity, professional spirit, the supervision of classroom instruction, and business-like management are promoted under a system which provides for only one school management in the parish.

School funds should be parish-wide—We have usually found that the permanent, constitutional funds are inadequate to meet the needs of the schools and that additional special school funds must be provided. I wish to call attention to two essentials in this respect: No other governmental agency should have any control over school funds, either permanent or special, and all school funds for maintenance purposes, especially, whether constitutional or special, should be parish-wide.

We were hampered and held back for many years by being required to go to legislatures with hat in hand to beg for State school funds. Locally, if a special election were required for a bond issue or additional maintenance taxes, we were required to convince the police jury of the need and to induce that body to conduct the necessary election. The educational interests were served to good purpose when the State school funds and a reasonable parish

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school fund were placed in the constitution, and when the parish school board was placed in entire charge of the parish school system with all other departments of the government eliminated.

I think I need not argue for the principle of using the entire parish as the taxing unit for raising school funds. The question is settled when we agree that school funds should be sent where the children are, with no question as to where the funds come from. In past years, we raised all special maintenance funds in districts, and under that system I have known district A, blessed with many children but cursed with poverty, to pay fifty mills in special school taxes and then find it impossible to support a good school, while the adjoining district B, blessed with wealth but cursed with few children, paid a two-mill special tax and supported an excellent school. A reasonable parish-wide tax equalizes the educational burden and provides equally good schools for all children. With two or three exceptions, our parishes are now on the parish-wide basis. But the opportunity should exist to raise school funds in districts. It may happen that a parish-wide tax cannot be voted, and in that event, the intelligent, progressive portions of the parish that desire good schools and are willing to pay for them, should be permitted to vote such district taxes as may be needed.

The superintendent, the head of the school system—Under the parish unit plan of organiaztion, the superintendent becomes an officer of importance and value. He must possess ability or he will fail, and his failure will be recognized by all. A weak, inefficient superintendent cannot long command the respect and coöperation of the public, the teaching staff, the office force, and the school board.

With an able superintendent in office, advising the board and coöperating with all of the educational agencies, what are the results? Some of them are: Schools are wisely located; country schools are consolidated; transportation is provided where needed; school funds are raised; competent teachers are employed and placed where they are needed; supervision of classroom instruction is provided; all educational forces are united in advancing the best interests of the schools—in a word, responsibility for success or failure is fixed in *one* head. If the superintendent and the board are wise and active and provide good schools for all of the children, they are continued in office; but if they fail, the failure is chargeable to them, and they must make room for better men to administer the affairs of the schools.

Matters to avoid—1. The parish school officials should not undertake State functions, such as the making of courses of study, the certification of teachers, the adoption of textbooks, the final approval of high schools, and other special schools, fixing standards to govern teachers and superintendents, and the like.

The superintendent and the school board should not escape their responsibility to the children by delegating their authority to local committees. The parish school officials should courageously face their duties and fail or succeed in discharging them without being hampered by the bias, prejudice, or ignorance of individual communities. The superintendent, for instance, who permits a local committee to select teachers and direct their efforts is a

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time server and should not be in office, for he is failing in the discharge of his most important duty.

2. The parish school funds, if possible, should be raised on a parish-wide basis, and they should be used to provide equally good schools for all children in the parish. This contemplates that cities shall be included in the parish system of schools and that country teachers shall be as well qualified and as well paid as city teachers.

3. There should be no failure to provide adequate supervision of classroom instruction, and this is as essential in the city schools and the high schools as in the country elementary schools. Every child in the school system should spend every day of his school life in constructive learning, and this he may not do in the absence of wise supervising principals and superintendents.

The unity of the system should not be impaired by the employment of building supervisors, business managers, or city superintendents responsible to the board, and independent of the superintendent. The superintendent should be the executive head of the school system, and all other employees should reach the board through him. No job can be well done with two bosses in charge.

The board should escape the error of making a clerk of the superintendent. The people's money is too valuable, and the opportunities of children too priceless to justify the head of the school system in wasting his time doing work that a hundred-dollar clerk can do much better. The parish superintendent is the greatest agency in this country in educating the people—his time and talents should be utilized to the fullest possible extent in the discharge of important, constructive duties, and not in doing the work of a clerk.

Finally, the parish unit system is considered by us in Louisiana to be successful because: It places a small, experienced board in charge of education in the parish; it guarantees an able man in the office of superintendent; it eliminates politics largely in the selection of board members, and even more so in the selection of the superintendent; it makes easy the execution of such policies as the board and the superintendent may agree upon—they are unhampered by district or other boards or by elections to pass upon their policies; it separates school government from the other departments of government; it provides for one school fund which is used to equalize educational facilities; it forces the rich centers to help educate the children in the poor centers; it makes the parish superintendent the most important factor in the school system and charges him with the responsibility for the success or failure of the schools; it places the selection of teachers and the supervision of instruction in the hands of an educated, trained superintendent, instead of in the hands of local committees which should not be expected to do such work efficiently, and last, it gives the country children a chance. Their schools are consolidated; transportation is provided; competent teachers are selected for the country schools; high schools are organized; industrial courses are provided; good houses are erected; instruction is supervised—and all this without asking about the wealth of the school community.

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The duty of the board and its executive officer, the superintendent, is to provide the best possible school for *all* children, and in the discharge of that duty they are partial to neither city nor country—they treat them alike.

We are wedded to the parish unit system. It provides excellent school machinery. Any shortcomings that may be chargeable to us in educational achievement are due not to the system under which we work, but to a lack of funds, or wisdom, or both.

THE BEGINNINGS OF A COUNTY SCHOOL SYSTEM

CHARLES L. COON, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS
WILSON COUNTY, NORTH CAROLINA

School conditions in 1913—As late as 1913 Wilson County, North Carolina, with an area of 373 square miles had 48 small school districts and 51 schoolhouses. The schoolhouses in the 45 wholly country districts had one, two, three, or four rooms. Only three had more than two rooms. All those country schoolhouses were poor affairs, most of them uncomfortable and ill kept. The school buildings in the three independent districts were not model school homes by any means, though the school buildings in the town of Wilson were much better than those of any other district in the county.

At that time 15 of those small county districts levied a special school tax to extend the term beyond four months. We also had three independent districts which levied a special school tax to lengthen the legal term of four months; in all, only 18 districts out of 48 had more than 80 days of school in 365. Thus a large majority of our children could attend school only 80 days in the year, while some could attend 100 days, some could attend 120 days, some could attend 140 days, other 180 days, depending on the locality and the tax valuations. No attempt was being made at that time to give anything like an equal school term to all the children, or to offer equal elementary and high school opportunities to all, much less to attempt to provide equal physical equipment for all the children.

The 105 white teachers of the county in 1913 were being paid, on an average, about $300 a year. Most of those teachers were poorly trained. All the public school property of the county was worth less than $128,500. Out of a school enrolment of 7354 only 262 were being given any high-school training, and more than half of those high-school pupils attended the high school of the town of Wilson. Less than 55 out of every 100 white pupils enrolled attended school every day. The negro school average attendance was not nearly so high.

In 1913 Wilson County rated her property for taxation at $17,000,000. Her total school budget for all purposes was $67,919, which represented a tax rate of a little less than four mills on the dollar. And everybody who really thought seriously of the future welfare of the children said the schools were poor in every respect. It was extremely difficult for many teachers to secure good homes near their work.

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For eight years prior to 1913 the county superintendent of schools had to practice law in order to help him make a living. The town of Wilson at that time also had a superintendent of schools who was paid a meager salary, though it was about twice the salary paid the head of the country schools. On October 1, 1913, the part-time county superintendent of schools resigned. Some one then suggested that the office of county superintendent be added to the duties of the superintendent of the town of Wilson. The suggestion was accepted by the county board of education and the new administration began to function on October 1, 1913.

The campaign for better schools—It was, of course, impossible for one person effectively to supervise the work of 105 white and 45 negro teachers in 53 different white schools and 27 negro schools with a school term ranging from 80 to 180 days a year.

So the first problem which seemed necessary to solve was to make equal, or nearly equal, the school term of all the schools and to provide by consolidation for high-school instruction for all children who completed the elementary grades.

In 1901 the General Assembly of North Carolina had enacted a statute which permitted any small district to levy a special three-mill school tax to increase the school term beyond four months. In 1911 another statute was passed permitting a county to vote a three-mill tax to increase the school term beyond four months. This 1911 statute placed the distribution to the several schools of the three-mill special county tax money entirely in the discretion of the county board of education, and it also provided that any existing district special tax could be reduced by the amount of the county-wide special tax. It was thought wise by the board of education for Wilson County to adopt the county-wide plan of school taxation and to abandon the inefficient and inequitable district plan of taxation for schools beyond the four months term then legal. So a campaign was begun for a county-wide special three-mill tax to equalize the school term. On January 18, 1918, the qualified voters of the county by a two to one majority adopted the county-wide plan of school taxation.

During the four and more years during which this campaign for additional school support was conducted, sentiment was also crystallized for a better and a larger type of school. In February, 1918, therefore, the county board of education took the first steps to consolidate our schools, by making each one of our ten townships a school district. This meant the abandonment of 38 districts. But we still had our 50 small country schoolhouses for white children and no money with which to build the larger schools. Hence, another campaign had to be undertaken, if any effective school system was to result. Money must be found with which to build the consolidated schoolhouses. Here it must be remembered that our courts have always said that a schoolhouse is not a North Carolina necessity.

That meant that the people would have to vote again whether they would have anything but their small inefficient schoolhouses, even though the school term was increased to 160 days by virtue of the county-wide special tax. Then we began a school building campaign in the 10 consolidated school

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districts. From January, 1918, to the spring of 1922 our consolidated school districts or townships voted serial school building bonds amounting to $845,000. To that sum was added $255,000 borrowed from the State Loan Fund and $85,000 from school taxes. In all, about $1,185,000 has been put into the consolidated school buildings and teachers' homes during the four years ending September, 1922.

At the November election in 1918 North Carolina voted by an unprecedented majority to amend our State constitution so as to require a six months' school term instead of a four months' term. This change in our constitution made our three-mill county-wide tax much more effective, in that part of that tax could now be used for buildings and for school trucks with which to convey children to the consolidated schools, as well as for other urgent school needs.

Our present school conditions—Wilson County now has 17 modern schoolhouses for white children, 13 in the country. But we still have three poor buildings for white children and a number of indifferent and poorly-equipped buildings for negro children. At 12 of our school buildings we have good, modern homes for teachers. These homes have electric lights, baths, toilets, steam heat, and good furniture. We have six school buildings in which we are developing standard high schools. We have 11 other buildings in which we have from 4 to 6 teachers offering only the six elementary grades of school work. We have three buildings in which we are going to offer elementary and junior high-school work. We shall soon have a school system which will offer high-school instruction to all who complete the six grades elementary school and no high-school pupil will have to live away from home to get the high-school instructions. We have in operation 65 school trucks which carry 2200 children to school each day. We are now giving some high-school instruction to more than 850 children out of an enrolment of 10,162, though our complete consolidated school program is less than one year old. We are getting about 80 per cent of our white school enrolment in school every day. We now have a school budget of $402,252 instead of $67,919 as in 1913-14. We have 286 teachers instead of 150. We pay our 199 white teachers nearly $1000 each instead of $300 as we were doing in 1913-14. We have 289 class rooms instead of 161. We now have school property worth more than $1,231,080, instead of, as was the case, worth $128,500 nine years ago. We now have no one-room schools for white children. We had 28 in 1913-14. We now have $34 worth of school property for each inhabitant, which is considerably more school wealth than is possessed by any other one of our 100 counties. But we still have nearly three times our school wealth invested in automobiles!

Some comparative figures—The following table will give the definite things Wilson County has done in the last nine years to better its public schools:

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PROGRESS OF WILSON COUNTY SCHOOLS, 1914-1923

	1913-1914	1922-1923
Enrolment	7,354	10,162
White	4,136	5,870
Colored	3,218	4,292
High-school enrolment	262	850
Average attendance (white)	55	80
Length of school term (white)	103	165
Number of teachers	150	286
White	105	199
Colored	45	87
Salaries paid teachers	$39,214	$233,030
White	30,420	198,667
Colored	8,794	34,363
Number of school buildings	80	53
White	53	20
Colored	27	33
Number of classrooms	161	289
White	113	202
Colored	48	87
Number of one-room schools	49	18
White	28	0
Colored	21	18
Valuation of school property	$128,500	$1,231,080
White	102,000	1,165,080
Colored	26,500	66,000
School budget	67,919	402,252

Some general facts about Wilson County—Wilson County has 373 square miles and in 1920 had 36,813 people. It has five small villages and one town, Wilson, which has 10,602 people. The property of the county is assessed for taxation at $46,000,000. The per capita taxable wealth of the county is about $1300. Some 45,000,000 pounds of tobacco were sold this past season on the warehouse floors of the town of Wilson and brought something over $12,000,000. Besides, this county produces about 20,000 bales of cotton, as well as large crops of corn and potatoes. The average farm in Wilson County in 1920 was worth $7003. We have two railroads which traverse the county. We have 10 banks, one cotton mill, one wagon factory, one buggy factory, and a number of lumber and cotton oil mills. Wilson, however, is largely an agricultural and not an industrial county. We are somewhat given to wastefulness. For we bottle and sell around $380,000 worth of coca-cola and other soft drinks each year. We own $3,200,000 worth of automobiles, which is more than twice our school property wealth, and we spend a good deal of our time burning gasoline for pleasure. And we still throw away large sums each year on chewing gum, silk shirts, cigarettes, and other non-essentials. Our public roads need much

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improvement. But we hesitate to pay enough taxes to make them materially better.

Method of school administration—Every school has its own budget. The committee of each township district meets with the superintendent of schools in May and makes up the budget for the next school year. Then the chairman of each committee meets with the county board of education and the county budget is made up according to the needs of the several schools of each district. The interest charges for bonds and other borrowed money for the school buildings, the expense for the transportation of children, the salaries of teachers, and all other expenses of each school are put in the county school budget just as is done for the various schools in a city school system. We think we have made the beginning of an effective school system for an agricultural county. All the property of the county wherever situated now pays the same school tax; all the children have the same opportunity to get an education—and that is only fair and democratic.

THE COUNTY UNIT IN MONTANA

MAY TRUMPER, STATE SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION
HELENA, MONTANA

In 51 of the 54 counties of Montana schools are still administered under the old district system with its inherent inequalities in tax burdens and in educational opportunities for children. As a State, Montana contributes less to the support of her schools than any of her neighbors, furnishing only 6.6 per cent of all necessary funds. The county furnishes on an average 19.1 per cent and the remainder of the burden of school support, 71.2 per cent, practically rests upon the local district.

School district revenues are derived chiefly from three sources: (1) Apportionment of the income derived from investments of State permanent school funds and leases of school lands (this fund is distributed on the archaic school census basis; it has decreased recently owing to numerous delinquencies in payment of interest on farm loans in which large amounts of the permanent State fund are invested); (2) apportionment of funds derived from a county uniform 6 mill levy on all taxable property (this amount is also distributed on the census basis; it is steadily decreasing due to constantly lowering valuations of property); and (3) a special levy on all taxable property within the district. Other funds derived from fines, State gasoline tax, and other sources are so small as to be negligible in this discussion.

Montana is a new State. Some sections are sparsely settled and only partially developed. For these reasons striking extremes in valuation of taxable property behind each child are inevitable. They vary from $179 in some districts to over $90,000 in others. As a result the length of school terms varies from less than four months to nine months, and hundreds of children have no educational opportunities whatever. There is no legal limit to the tax that may be levied locally, if approved by a vote of the

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residents, and district levies this year vary from nothing to 64 mills. The people of Montana have shown their faith in the public schools by their willingness to vote upon themselves these enormous special levies. Our high rating in the Ayres Survey of 1920 was due largely to this circumstance. Small schools, common in sparsely settled sections, are costly. Some of the most heavily taxed districts, even with this burden, have been unable to maintain more than a four months term. On the other hand older and well developed communities are in many cases able to maintain long terms with low special levies.

It was to correct the unfairness of the old district system that the county unit law was passed in 1917. This law seeks to correct two evils; inequality in tax burdens, and inequality in educational opportunities. It is optional with the counties; that is, the question must be submitted to a vote of the electors of third class districts for favorable action before it can be adopted. Only third class districts, *i. e.*, those having a population of less than one thousand, are included in the Montana plan. Utah's experience with county unit indicates the wisdom of leaving the more populous villages and the cities to finance and manage their own schools. They are usually well able to do so. As long as they were included in the county unit in Utah, trustees were elected from the larger centers, which put the management of rural schools into the hands of men who did not appreciate the rural problem.

When the third class districts of a Montana county have voted in favor of county unit, the county is districted by the county commissioners into five large subdivisions, consisting of groups of sub-districts, for the purpose of appointing the first five county board members. The later members are elected by the voters of each subdivision or group of sub-districts. Sub-district trustees submit their budgets to the county board, who determine from them a uniform levy for all third class districts. After taxes are collected the county board meets to apportion funds to each district in accordance with its needs as presented in its budget previously adopted.

Local boards continue under the plan to elect their own teachers and other employees, issue all warrants, erect school buildings and purchase supplies. They must present a budget for their year's expenses to the county board of trustees instead of to the county commissioners, as provided in other counties. Since the county board of trustees has the power to raise or lower the budget, expenditures are better controlled than in counties without the county unit plan. The counties under the new system are the only counties in Montana which can show a comfortable balance in every district at the close of the last school year. This is due entirely to the superior management.

The Montana plan is so simple and its operation so direct that it is difficult to understand the origin of the opposition which it meets, except as one can trace it to that great disturbing factor in human happiness, selfishness. We should probably expect the individual or corporation which has had no special school levy, or a low one, to be disgruntled when its levy is increased to a uniform average which all must pay. We should probably not expect the school clerk or trustee who has been able illegally to issue to him-

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self warrants for excessive pay for services, oftentimes paying himself for attending trustees' meetings, to approve having the county board of trustees allow only reasonable amounts for legitimate services and to discontinue the practice of paying for attending trustee's meetings. Neither should we expect every one yet to have attained the high point of vision where he can look out over even his own county and see the necessity of giving every child a chance of at least an elementary education. There are still those who argue that we are attempting too much in education and that we cannot afford to educate every man's child.

The first county in Montana to vote to come under the provisions of the county unit law was Cascade which adopted the plan in 1917. The last year Cascade county was under the district system there were 2022 children enrolled in the schools included within the county unit. A fourth of these were enrolled in schools which were maintained for only six months or less. In addition to this short term record there were 167 children who had no opportunity to attend any school whatever. Last year every child in Cascade county was provided with nine months of school and in spite of the marked increase in prices, the cost was no greater than in 1917 under the old system with its inefficiency. The elimination of the old district system has also been a great financial saving to the county. Cascade county officials boast that $6000 is saved annually by the reduction in the number of assistants to county assessor, county clerk, and county treasurer.

Since 1917, two other counties, Chouteau and Carbon, have elected to adopt the county unit. In both of these counties there has been marked improvement in term length and in provision of school opportunities for all children.

In all three of these counties, there are individuals whose taxes have been raised who express themselves frankly as favoring the plan and commending the justice of it. There are those corporations paying increased taxes whose agents have agreed to the fairness of distributing funds from taxes where such funds are needed. They begin to see that, even if inequalities continue to exist because of differing abilities of children, certain opportunities over which children have no control should come reasonably near being equal. In these counties children are now taking eight grade examinations in districts which were never known before to have anyone complete the eighth grade. Schools have been closed temporarily because of the small number of children to attend them, and arrangements have been made for schooling in other districts. The buildings are not abandoned, and if larger numbers of children later appear in these districts the schools will be reopened. In every case parents have been consulted with but very few exceptions have agreed to the arrangements offered.

The longer terms now assured in the rural schools of the county unit attract an increased number of applicants for teaching positions. Even with the continued shortage of properly prepared teachers, a careful county superintendent is able to fill all positions with better trained teachers than heretofore. Thus the children in these schools, having longer terms and better teachers, are twice blessed.

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County unit has accomplished the two purposes for which it was designed. It has equalized educational opportunities as far as length of term is concerned and it has equalized the burden of taxation for schools between districts. But even if it should be adopted by every county of the State it could not equalize the burden between counties. There is almost as great variation between wealth of counties in Montana as there is between districts within a county. The reasons are the same in both instances.

It has been argued that State support without county unit would eliminate financial problems in rural districts. It is hardly probable that any State support will, at least in the beginning, furnish more than twenty or thirty per cent of the revenues needed. Such being the case, the county must continue to bear its present share of needed revenues. Probably we should aim to adjust our plan for school revenues so as to place about one third of the burden upon each, the State, county, and school district. Under such a plan a larger number of districts than now will need no special levy at all while districts with excessively high levies now will be able to lower their levies from 15 to 30 mills. Such levies would still be high in comparison with those in other favored districts. We might give more assistance than is needed in some districts and still leave others heavily burdened.

Another difficulty in the distribution of any form of State support in counties without the county unit plan so as to give most relief where it is really needed, lies in the great variations in business management which prevail in many districts. Without a county board especially qualified to pass upon school district budgets and empowered to regulate expenditures, there can be no just distribution of State funds. In considering how any form of State support can be justly administered so as to equalize advantages of children, one is struck by the absurdity of entrusting the financial management of our biggest public enterprise to from 27 men in our smallest county to over 500 in our largest county, with varying degrees of ability in managing their own affairs. What commercial concern would think of such absurd management of a business handling millions of dollars in the aggregate?

Some one suggests that county commissioners can scrutinize the budgets and effect better business management. They might do so in some counties if their time were not fully occupied with other responsibilities and if they would always be willing to risk the displeasure of communities by taking drastic action when it is needed. But just how a board chosen for other qualifications can resolve itself into an educational board to determine a just and discriminating salary schedule, and to decide how much shall be allowed for transportation in one district, how much in another, or why this family may have house rent paid if they move nearer to school and that one may not, why this family may be granted an allowance for horse feed and that one may not—just how a board of county commissioners can determine all of these things which must be settled before a district special levy may be justly fixed it is difficult to see. These are some of the responsibilities which county unit board members have and to which they are obliged to give constant and careful study. It is doubtful if county commissioners on the whole would have the time or the inclination to give attention to these important matters.

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County unit is not a panacea for all ills. Initiative, ambition, thrift, and like virtues cannot be grafted on to a people by legislation. But furnishing universal opportunity for at least an elementary education will start on the high road to intelligent citizenship many a boy and girl whose usefulness would otherwise ever be hampered by ignorance.

The greatness of this country is and will continue to be measured by the morality and intelligence of her citizenship. The citizens of tomorrow are today in school. Montana is giving 10,000 of her future citizens short terms of school. Conditions in rural sections of many other States are no better. In Montana and probably in other States, the very persons whom the county unit of administration for rural schools is designed to help are often deluded into believing they would be injured by giving up the archaic district system.

Only as the public is informed can we hope for progress in working out a more just educational system. Our progress must be a growth. The county unit plan should not be pushed more rapidly than the people can understand its changes. Every thinking citizen should assist in bringing about soon a better understanding of educational needs and educational ideals.

THE STANDARDIZATION OF CONSOLIDATED SCHOOLS

MACY CAMPBELL, STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE, CEDAR FALLS, IOWA

The standardization of consolidated schools has to do with setting the standard of educational privileges for one great group of the American people. This group lives in the open country and in the country towns of America. It forms the basic economic strata upon which all other economic strata in America rest. It provides a larger percentage of leaders in all lines of human activity, business, science, industry, transportation, politics, literature, education, and religion than any other group in our civilization. A wise National policy requires that this basic group, upon which the perpetuity of our civilization rests, be given nothing less than full equality of educational opportunity as compared with other groups. Stated briefly the present educational standard for this group should be a modern well-graded elementary school plus four years of standard high-school work.

The above standard for consolidated schools includes a teaching force which meets modern standards of teacher preparation. The well-graded elementary school should be manned by teachers who have had at least two years of professional preparation above graduation from a standard high school. In the four-year high school, teachers should be employed who have had at least four years of professional preparation above a standard high-school course. These teachers should be sufficiently well informed on the vital problems which affect rural life today, that they can enter into the life of the rural community which surrounds the school with a sympathetic understanding of its difficulties and of its aspirations. They should be able and disposed through native interests and through preparation to enter heartily and intelligently into the organized life of the rural community and to find true happiness in so doing.

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These standards for the consolidated school require the employment of a superintendent who is given time enough to really supervise the activities of the school. He must be competent to give professional aid and direction to trained teachers, to direct effectively the work of the bus drivers, to exercise general direction over the playground activities and the warm lunch at noon, to direct in a general way the agricultural activities of the school and to take leadership in developing the relations of the school to the rural community in which it has its setting. He must know farm people and believe in them and enter into the organized life of the country community with cordial good will.

The standard consolidated school must have a sufficiently large attendance to make possible a well-organized eight-year elementary school (seven years seems to be the standard in the South) plus a well-organized four-year high school, making twelve years (eleventh in the South) of standard modern school work. A considerable number of consolidated schools now prefer to divide the twelve years of work on the 6-3-3 plan, developing a distinct junior high school group. Others are organized on the 6-2-4 plan, emphasizing departmental work in the seventh and eighth grades.

The standard consolidated school must have financial support sufficient to provide a superintendent and teaching force having the qualifications specified above, to provide competent bus drivers and efficient motor vehicles, and to provide modern school building and modern equipment. This equipment includes laboratories, library, gymnasium, playground, and athletic field. It does not necessarily include a teacherage as 80 per cent of consolidated schools are located in country towns and the teachers often prefer to make their homes with private families. Neither does this equipment necessarily include an agricultural plot on the school grounds. Many consolidated schools are now getting the best results from their agricultural activities when the boys work out projects on their home farms in close coöperation with their fathers.

Do these standards seem too high for country community schools in America? They are the standards which the American people have set up for themselves. Because it is easier to bring the schools up to these standards in the cities than it is in the country, the people of the cities in America first developed for themselves well-organized and graded twelve-year schools employing trained teachers and expert supervision and housed in modern buildings with modern equipment. Such schools are now to be found in all cities throughout the length and breadth of the land. In all the American States where the consolidation of schools is well under way the people of country communities are setting up for themseves school standards equally as high. In a study which the writer made recently of outstandig consolidated schools in Ohio, Indiana, Minnesota, Iowa, South Dakota, Kansas, Colorado, Utah, California, Oklahoma, Louisiana, Alabama, and Virginia. country community schools were found in each State in which the people had set up for themselves the standards proposed here.

These advanced country communities are falling in line with a world movement to fix a high standard for the elementary and secondary education

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of all of the people. Utah has taken the lead among the American States by providing that the children and youth of that State must attend school until eighteen years of age. If the proposal before the legislature of California to enfranchise the high-school graduates of the State at eighteen years of age, should carry, it will have profound influence in bringing the schools of that State and other States up to the twelve-year standard. The ink was scarce dry on the armistice proclamation before the leaders of the new German republic began to search for means of bringing all German youth up to a high standard of elementary and secondary education. The Fischer bill which passed the English Parliament proposes to do the same thing for the youth of England. A prominent business man of Japan contends that what Japan needs is not more battleships, but more and better public schools which will give to the children of Japan an elementary and secondary education equivalent to that now being given the children of the great Nations of the world which will be Japan's leading competitors.

Any American consolidated school which does not provide full twelve years of standard elementary and secondary educational facilities must be considered as being still in the *embryo stage*. The controlling factors are transportation and financial support. As roads and motor vehicles improve it will become possible so to increase the size of the consolidated district in most country communities that it will include children enough and taxable values enough to permit of the organization and support of a modern twelve-year school. In many cases it will be necessary to consolidate several little weak consolidated or village independent districts into one large strong district. The tax laws of many agricultural States must be so revised that other forms of productive enterprises not having large investment in real property, shall carry their fair share of the total load of taxation for the State. Then it will be possible for the people of the State to provide all the children of country communities with full standard elementary and secondary school facilities.

We have faith that the American people will bring the education of this basic group up to the full twelve-year standard specified here. With constant improvements in transportation and financing, the way is clearing. The chief obstacle to be overcome now is a *state of mind* on the part of farm people themselves. This state of mind is giving way before modern progress.

Civilization is on the move again since the World War. It is taking on new forms in keeping with the advance that has been made in many conditions which surround human life. To no group of people in America will greater benefits finally accrue from the breaking of old conditions and reforming into new than to the farm group. The isolation which greatly hampered farm life in the past is fast disappearing. This breaking of the barriers that have impeded life in rural communities will enable the farm group to come up and advance with the forefront of civilization. The farmer of the future is to be fully abreast of the best practice in the Nation in the education of his children and in the conditions of home and community life which

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surround his family. He is to be as cultured, and as able to think for himself and to coöperate with his fellows as are the members of any group in modern civilization. The standard twelve-year consolidated school is the instrument through which this advance is to be brought about.

A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF INSTRUCTION IN CONSOLIDATED AND ONE-TEACHER SCHOOLS

JOHN M. FOOTE, CHAIRMAN, STATE SUPERVISOR OF RURAL AND ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS, BATON ROUGE, LOUISIANA

To the President and Members of the Rural School Department of the National Education Association:

Your committee, appointed to study and report on the Comparative Results of Instruction in Consolidated and One-teacher Schools, begs to submit herewith a report of its labors. We request that the report be received and the Committee discharged.

Respectfully submitted,

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Baton Rouge, Louisiana.

H. A. ALLAN,
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Introduction—Probably the most significant movement in rural education in recent years is that which establishes the consolidated school in the place of the one-teacher or small institution now commonly prevailing. The movement has experienced marked growth in all parts of the Nation. Thousands of small neighborhood schools have been abandoned, larger and more costly buildings have been constructed at local centers, and many thousands of children are transported daily to and from school at much inconvenience to both pupils and parents. Justification for the change has been based almost wholly upon the favorable administrative conditions prevailing in the centralized school. The broad assumption has been made and widely accepted that the results of elementary instruction in the large type of school are superior because of the well-known administrative differ-

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ences. After a discussion by this Department, in which the change from the small to the large type was freely approved, the point was made by some that justifications for such changes must finally rest on the measured educational products of the two schools. In accordance with this view the present committee was appointed and charged with the duty of studying and reporting on the results of instruction in the elementary grades of the consolidated and the one-teacher school.

The study was planned and organized in 1920; the field data were secured in the spring and assembled in the fall of 1921; the tabulations were made in 1922. Due recognition and appreciation are extended by the Committee to the State directors and local coöperators who gave so willingly their time and talent that the detailed field work might be successfully executed. Recognition is due the Louisiana State Department of Education for assuming the cost incident to this study. The Chairman acknowledges his indebtedness to Dr. Norman Frost and Dr. Shelton Phelps for valuable criticism and recommendations.

The details of the procedure, the tests applied, the large organization of co-workers, the directions, the field reports, the statistical work, and the numerous difficulties encountered can receive but brief mention in this report. However, all essential facts are a matter of record and available if necessary.

The question—The question for inquiry was stated as follows: *In which of the two outstanding types of rural schools, the consolidated and the one-teacher, are the results of instruction superior?* It was the sense of the committee that the study should center around one general question and further, that the data on which the answer depended should be gathered under carefully controlled conditions.

How determined—The results of instruction in the two types of schools have been compared by measuring the grade- and age-achievement of the pupils in the fundamental elementary subjects, reading, arithmetic, language, spelling, and handwriting. Comparison of two schools or systems is commonly based on grade-achievement only, but age-achievement is measured here because it is probably equally significant. It is well understood that all the results of instruction in the elementary school are not included in these five subjects; nor do the tests used measure all phases of these subjects. Obvious limitations would not permit a more elaborate testing program. It can be maintained, however, that the most fundamental results of instruction in the two types have been measured.

No effort was made to apply mental tests. The inquiry has proceeded upon the assumption that general intelligence in the two groups is similarly distributed. The assumption is based on the fact that schools of both types are reported from adjacent territory having the same character of population. Differences of native capacity that may exist between States or sections of the same State are in relatively equal proportions in two types of schools.

The tests—Before determining on the most serviceable tests that would meet the requirements of an extensive study the judgments of some twenty educators having intimate knowledge of the field of measurements were

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invited. A summary of their judgments aided in the selection of the following tests:

Reading: Monroe Standardized Silent Reading Tests
Arithmetic: Woody-McCall Mixed Fundamentals
Language: Trabue Language Scales, B and C
Spelling: The Iowa Spelling Scale
Handwriting: The Ayres Handwriting Scale, Gettysburg Edition

The schools—For the purposes of this study the two types of schools were defined as follows: (a) A consolidated school is that large type of school formed by the uniting of two or more districts, or serving two or more districts or areas, having either public or private transportation of pupils, employing a minimum of three elementary teachers, located in the open country or in a small village, and serving a population that is essentially rural. (b) A one-teacher school is that of the open country employing a single teacher and providing elementary education for the children of the district or area in which it is located.

Those coöperating were requested to secure data from representative stable schools of these two types located in the same county or State. Consolidation must have been effected three or more years for such schools to be included.

Securing the data—(a) With the assistance of the members of the general Committee the active interest of 19 leaders in as many States were secured. They took charge of the work in their respective States and were designated as *State directors*—(b) Each State director secured the assistance of a number of *local coöperators* who selected the schools, gave the tests, scored the papers, and made out the field reports.

Leaflets "A" and "B"—An eight-page folder, "Leaflet A, Directions for the Study," was prepared and published for the guidance of all taking part. It contained sufficient detailed directions to assure a very high degree of uniformity of procedure in selecting the schools, administering the tests, and making the field reports.

The field report used for each school participating, "Leaflet B," contained forms for reporting the complete test results by grades and ages, and a page of administrative facts.

Reliability of field work—The careful selection of capable State directors, the choosing of local coöperators best qualified to participate in an objective study of this nature, the use of uniform directions, and the use of uniform reporting blanks, are factors which contributed to the reliability of the field work and to the value of the results.

Scope of the study—The extent of this investigation is indicated by the summary given in Table 1. The facts need but little comment. Nineteen widely distributed States sent in reports ranging in number from 3 schools for Illinois to 71 for Iowa. The field data were gathered by 139 local coöperators. The number of pupils tested was 10,999 for the consolidated schools and 4653 for the one-teacher schools. The figures for the number of pupils are based on the reports for rate of reading. They vary with the several tests but not by any significant amount. This table should satisfy the

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important question of whether or not the data constitute a satisfactory sample of the general situation with reference to the instruction prevailing throughout the Nation in consolidated and one-teacher schools.

TABLE 1—SHOWING THE EXTENT OF THE STUDY

Number of States	19
Number of Consolidated Schools	135
Number of One-Teacher Schools	374
Number of State Directors	19
Number of Local Coöperators	139
Number of Pupils tested in Consolidated Schools	10999
Number of Pupils tested in One-Teacher Schools	4653

Age-grade distributions—Tables 2 and 3 present the age-grade distributions of the pupils in the two types of schools. Summaries are given with each table. These data seek to answer three significant questions that bear on the main problem. How do the two types of schools compare with respect to (1) the ages of their pupils? (2) their holding power? and (3) the rate of grade progress each year?

In each grade except the fourth the pupils in the one-teacher schools are slightly younger than are the pupils in the large type of school. When the several grade distributions of the two types are thrown together for general distributions the median age of the pupils in the small school is 11.93 years compared with 12.07 years for the consolidated school. This difference of .14 of one year is in favor of the one-teacher school. It is not a marked difference. Whether the two groups of pupils enter school at the same age is not known.

There is no marked difference in the holding power of the two types as is shown by the per cent of pupils in the corresponding grades. The loss is regular in the large school. There is a distinct loss from the fifth to the sixth grade in the small school. The percentages in the upper grades favor the large school by a small margin—that is, its holding power is somewhat greater in the latter grades.

The rate of grade progress of the pupils in the two groups is shown by the coefficients of regression derived from the data on ages. (The statistical method used is that given by Ayres in the *Journal of Education Research*, volume I, page 398.) It appears that the average child in the consolidated school goes forward .69 of a grade for each advancing year of age while the pupil of the small school progresses .67 of a grade for each year of age. This difference favors the consolidated school, but it is too small to be considered significant.

For the purposes of this study Tables 1 and 2 may be summarized by saying that the differences in the ages of the pupils, the holding power, and the rate of grade progress in the two types of schools are not great enough to show significant differences in the results of instruction.

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TABLE 2—SHOWING THE AGE-GRADE DISTRIBUTION OF PUPILS IN CONSOLIDATED SCHOOLS

Age	Grade						
	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	Total
7	54	....	..	....	....	....	54
8	533	85	....	....	....	....	618
9	663	547	84	....	....	....	1294
10	383	639	496	69	....	....	1587
11	327	399	588	446	58	....	1818
12	....	375	396	601	435	92	1899
13	....	....	394	424	559	381	1758
14	....	....	....	324	344	531	1199
15	....	....	....	....	260	349	609
16	....	....	....	....	....	163	163
Total	1960	2045	1958	1864	1656	1516	10999
Median	9.59	10.61	11.68	12.69	13.60	14.54	12.07
Quartile deviation	.88	.94	.97	.89	.87	.82	1.54
Per cent pupils in each grade	18	19	18	17	16	14	100

The coefficient of regression derived from the data on ages is .69—that is, the average rate of progress is .69 of a grade for each year of age.

TABLE 3—SHOWING THE AGE-GRADE DISTRIBUTION OF PUPILS IN ONE-TEACHER SCHOOLS

Age	Grade						
	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	Total
7	55	....	....	....	....	....	55
8	251	53	....	....	....	....	304
9	273	197	65	....	....	....	535
10	169	261	209	56	....	....	695
11	121	181	270	175	46	....	793
12	....	174	182	234	175	56	821
13	....	....	140	164	241	133	678
14	....	....	....	111	171	229	511
15	....	....	....	....	87	117	204
16	....	....	....	....	....	57	57
Total	869	866	866	740	720	592	4653
Median	9.47	10.70	11.59	12.59	13.58	14.47	11.93
Q	.90	.97	.93	.91	.85	.76	1.52
Per cent pupils in each grade	19	19	19	16	15	13	100

The coefficient of regression derived from the data on ages is .67. That is, the average rate of progress is .67 of a grade for each year of age.

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Grade-achievement—Table 4 shows the grade-achievement medians for the two types of schools for the subjects of rate and comprehension of reading, arithmetic, language, spelling, and rate and quality of handwriting. Read the table as follows: The median rate of reading for the consolidated schools is 47.5, the median rate for the one-teacher schools is 45.1, the difference is 2.4, and the probable error of the difference is plus and minus .88. These figures mean that there is an indicated difference between rate of reading in the third grade of 2.4 units as measured by the Monroe Standardized Silent Reading Test and that the measure of the reliability of this difference is plus and minus the probable error of .88. Read the remainder of the table in like manner.

The probable error (P. E.) of the difference between the two medians is interpreted to mean, according to the probability curve, that one half of the differences between the medians of successive samples of similar data would be included between the distances of 2.4 minus .88 and 2.4 plus .88, or between the points of 1,52 and 3.28 on the scale. The other half would be divided above and below these points. (P. E. was determined by Thorndike's formulæ, *Mental and Social Measurements,* p. 195.)

Whether or not this difference of 2.4 between the two types of schools in rate of reading for the third grade is significant may be judged by the following. (See Rugg's *Statistical Methods Applied to Education,* p. 231.) If the difference of the obtained medians is equal to the probable error of that difference the chances are even that the difference is a real one. If the difference of the medians is 2 x P. E., the chances are 4½ to 1 that the difference is real. If the difference is 3 x P. E., the chances are 21 to 1 that it is real. If the difference is 4 x P. E., the chances are 142 to 1 that the difference is real. Conservative practice in interpretation usually insists that the difference be four times the probable error before it is considered as real and significant. Applied to the third grade reading situation the difference of 2.4 is interpreted as not a real difference because it is less than three probable errors (2.4 divided by .88 equals 2.7). This agrees rather closely with the difference of 12 per cent found in Table 5 which converts the difference into part of a year's progress expressed in terms of percentage.

If the interpretation of the third-grade results is continued it will be observed that the difference of the medians for comprehension of reading is six times the probable error and must be interpreted as real and significant. The differences for arithmetic, language, and quality of handwriting are respectively eight, six, and six times their probable errors, and are, therefore, significant differences. The differences of the medians for spelling and rate of handwriting are very nearly four times their probable errors.

Since there are in the third grade four differences which are plainly real, since the P. E. of two others closely approach the limit of conservative practice in determining the reliability of differences, and since all differences are in the same direction, it would seem to be sound to conclude that there is a distinct difference in the results of instruction in the third grade in favor of the consolidated schools.

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By the same reasoning it would also appear to be correct to say that there is a distinct and significant difference in the results of instruction between the two types of schools in each of the succeeding grades.

TABLE 4—SHOWING THE MEDIAN GRADE-ACHIEVEMENT, THE DIFFERENCE, AND THE PROBABLE ERROR (P. E.) OF THE DIFFERENCE FOR THE TWO TYPES OF SCHOOLS

Subject	Grade					
	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII
Reading: Rate						
Consolidated	47.5	64.3	78.0	84.8	95.8	101 5
One-teacher	45.1	61.5	76.0	82.4	90.2	95 8
Difference	2.4	2.8	2.0	2.0	5.6	6.7
P. E.	.88	.86	1.04	1.33	1.28	1.52
Reading: Comp.						
Consolidated	6.3	10.8	14.5	17.4	21.0	23 6
One-teacher	5.2	9.6	13.9	16.4	19.8	21.7
Difference	1.1	1.2	.6	1.0	1.2	1.9
P. E.	.18	.22	.27	.32	.37	.40
Arithmetic:						
Consolidated	12.8	18.0	21.8	24.8	27.1	29 0
One-teacher	11.4	16.6	20.7	24.1	26.4	28.1
Difference	1.4	1.4	1.1	.7	.7	.9
P. E.	.16	.16	.16	.18	.16	.19
Language:						
Consolidated	8.3	10.3	11.7	12.9	13.6	14 4
One-teacher	7.7	9.9	11.0	12.2	13.5	14 2
Difference	.6	.4	.7	.7	.1	.2
P. E.	.10	.10	.10	.11	.11	.11
Spelling:						
Consolidated	86.5	82.4	72.0	72.9	65.9	65 4
One-teacher	83.9	76.6	68.0	66.5	62.3	56.5
Difference	2.6	5.8	4.0	5.5	3.6	8.9
P. E.	.70	.80	.96	1.06	1.14	1 25
Writing: Rate						
Consolidated	43.9	55.7	60.6	70.6	76.6	83.6
One-teacher	40.8	52.2	57.7	67.7	71.4	79 3
Difference	3.1	3.5	2.9	3.1	5.2	4 3
P. E.	.82	.77	.77	.77	.93	1 02
Writing: Quality						
Consolidated	37.3	39.8	45.7	50.5	54.7	58 2
One-teacher	35.3	39.8	43.7	47.6	52.4	57 2
Difference	2.8	.0	2.0	2.9	2.3	1 0
P. E.	.45	.48	.50	.58	.66	.78

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Difference in terms of yearly progress—It was concluded from Table 4 that there is a significant difference in the results of instruction in favor of the consolidated school. Attention is next directed to Table 5 which converts the differences between the two types of schools into terms of yearly progress. This is accomplished by presenting the grade standards for the several tests, the expected progress for one year, the difference between the medians, and the per cent that the difference is of the expected yearly progress. Read the table as follows: The standard for the third grade is 60 units in rate of reading as determined by the Monroe Reading Test, the expected progress is 20 units, the difference between the two types of schools is 2.4 units, and 12 per cent is that part of a year's progress represented by the difference of 2.4 units. The results for other grades and subjects are to be read in like manner. It will be noted that the great variations between the values of the several tests are eliminated by converting the differences into terms of percentage of a year's progress.

It will be remembered that the Monroe Reading Test is divided into two parts for the elementary grades, and that there are no standards for the second grade. It was necessary, therefore, to use an arbitrary process for determining the yearly progress for grades three and six. It was assumed that the difference in progress between the second and the third grade would be at least as much as the difference between the third and fourth grades, the next difference above, or twenty units. The same procedure was used in finding the progress of the sixth grade. As the other tests are uniform for the six grades and have second-grade standards no such procedure was necessary. The difference between the second and third-grade standards was taken as the measure of the yearly progress for the third grade, and so on for each succeeding grade.

Study of this table reveals the following conditions:

1. The difference in the annual progress is in favor of the consolidated schools in 41 of the 42 comparisons. The single exception is quality of handwriting for the fourth grade, and in this instance there is no difference whatever.

2. The median of the several grade medians is .27 per cent. This median is interpreted as meaning that half the grade differences, when expressed in terms of per cent of annual progress, are greater and half are less than this numerical value. It indicates that the consolidated school excels the one-teacher school by approximately that per cent of a year's work. That the difference is significant is beyond question.

3. The differences tend to increase as the grades advance. The differences are 20, 20, and 18 per cent respectively for the third, fourth, and fifth grades, and 37, 40, and 33 per cent respectively for the sixth, seventh, and eighth grades. Thus, the consolidated school is not only in the lead but there is evidence that the superiority increases in the upper grades. Is this fact significant?

Tables 2 and 3 show that the elimination of pupils is somewhat greater in the one-teacher than in the consolidated school. There is no way of determining the relative proficiency of the eliminants in the two schools.

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TABLE 5—SHOWING THE STANDARDS FOR EACH TEST BY GRADES, THE YEARLY PROGRESS IN TERMS OF THE STANDARDS, THE MEDIAN DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE TWO TYPES OF SCHOOLS, AND THE PER CENT THAT THE DIFFERENCE IS OF THE YEARLY PROGRESS

Subject	Grade						
	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	Median
Reading: Rate							
Standard	60	80	93	92	102	108	....
Yearly Progress	20	20	13	10	10	6	....
Difference	2.4	2.8	2.0	2.0	5.6	6.7	....
Per cent of Dif. of Y. P.	.12	.14	.15	.20	.56	1.11	.18
Reading: Comp.							
Standard	9.0	14.5	20.0	21.0	24.0	27.5	....
Yearly Progress	4.5	4.5	5.5	3.0	3.0	3.5	....
Difference	1.1	1.2	.6	1.0	1.2	1.9	....
Per cent of Dif. of Y. P.	.24	.27	.11	.33	.40	.54	.30
Arithmetic:							
Standard	12.8	18.0	21.8	24.8	27.1	29.0	....
Yearly Progress	6.8	5.2	3.8	3.0	2.3	1.9	....
Difference	.6	.4	.7	.7	.1	.2	....
Per cent of Dif. of Y. P.	.09	.08	.18	.23	.04	.11	.10
Language:							
Standard	6.0	8.0	9.6	11.0	12.3	13.3	....
Yearly Progress	3.0	2.0	1.6	1.4	1.3	1.0	....
Difference	.6	.4	.7	.7	.1	.2	....
Per cent of Dif. of Y. P.	.20	.20	.44	.50	.08	.20	.20
Spelling:							
Standard	73	73	73	73	73	73	....
Yearly Progress	23	23	23	15	15	15	....
Difference	2.6	5.8	4.0	5.5	3.6	8.9	....
Per cent of Dif. of Y. P.	.11	.25	.13	.37	.24	.59	.25
Writing: Rate							
Standard	48	56	65	72	80	90	....
Yearly Progress	7.0	8.0	9.0	7.0	8.0	10.0	....
Difference	3.1	3.5	2.9	3.1	5.2	4.3	....
Per cent of Dif. of Y. P.	.58	.44	.32	.44	.65	.43	.44
Writing: Quality							
Standard	47	50	55	59	64	70	....
Yearly Progress	3.0	3.0	5.0	4.0	5.0	6.0	....
Difference	2.0	.0	2.0	2.9	2.3	1.0	....
Per cent of Dif. of Y. P.	.67	.0	.40	.73	.46	.17	.43
Median of Yearly Progress	20	20	18	37	40	33	.275
Median of Grade Median	27	....	....	....	....	....	....

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However, if a consensus of opinion be permitted in a study of this nature, it is safe to say that there is a pronounced belief among school people acquainted with the conditions that there is a higher relationship between inefficiency and elimination in the one-teacher school than there is in the consolidated school. In other words, the one-teacher school retains a relatively larger number of its proficient pupils through the upper elementary grades, and should, if all other factors were equal, show superior results of instruction in the latter grades. But the reverse is true. If this judgment be valid, the differences in favor of the consolidated school assume greater significance.

Age-achievement—It is probably true that the age difference between the two types of schools is equally as significant a measure as is the grade difference. The field reports were arranged so that achievement was recorded by ages as well as by grades. It may be pointed out that age-achievement takes no account of the grade placement.

Read Table 6 as follows: Pupils seven years of age achieved a score of 62.5 units in rate of reading in the consolidated school, while those in the one-teacher school achieved a score of 36.5 units; the difference is 26.0, with a probable error of 5.2. If the difference is interpreted in the same manner as described above for the differences in grade-achievement it would appear that there is a marked difference in favor of the consolidated school in rate of reading for pupils seven years of age.

While less than half of the differences are 4 x P. E., the fact that 67 of the 70 differences are in the same direction furnishes cumulative evidence that the age differences are significant. The facts of this table confirm the interpretation of Table 4 given above.

Difference in terms of yearly progress—As the age differences between the two schools are so indefinite when expressed in terms of the different units of the several tests, they were converted into terms of yearly progress and are presented in Table 7. In the absence of any approved statistical method available for this purpose the following simple but arbitrary procedure was used. Each age difference was divided by the yearly or grade progress (given with the grade standards in Table 5) of the grade standard whose value was next below the larger of the two age results. The procedure is well illustrated in the case of language: The difference of 1.3 for age seven is divided by 2.0, the measure of the fourth-grade progress. (See Table 5.) The fourth-grade progress is taken as the divisor because the standard, 8.0, is the standard next below the larger of the two scores, 8.6, from which the difference is derived. The quotient of this division, .65, is interpreted as meaning that the seven-year-old pupils in the consolidated school are 65 per cent of a year farther advanced than are the pupils of the same age in the one-teacher school. In the same manner the eight-year-old pupils are found to be 20 per cent superior. The entire table is to be read in a similar way.

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TABLE 6—SHOWING THE MEDIAN AGE-ACHIEVEMENT, THE DIFFERENCE AND THE PROBABLE ERROR (P. E.) OF THE DIFFERENCE FOR THE TWO TYPES OF SCHOOLS

Subject	Age									
	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
Reading: Rate										
Consolidated ..	62.5	53.3	60.9	68.4	69.7	81.5	88.0	92.0	92.7	93.1
One-teacher	36.5	47.4	56.9	67.1	68.9	79.6	85.8	86.3	88.4	93.1
Difference	26.0	5.9	4.0	1.3	.8	1.9	2.2	5.7	4.3	0.0
P. E.	5.20	1.70	1.19	1.31	1.17	1.32	1.42	1.63	2.64	5.12
Reading: Comp. .										
Consolidated ..	6.9	7.6	9.5	11.7	12.9	16.4	18.3	20.0	20.0	20.0
One-teacher ...	4.1	5.8	7.9	11.5	12.3	15.4	17.8	19.3	18.8	17.8
Difference	2.8	1.8	1.6	.2	.6	1.0	.5	.7	1.2	2.2
P. E.	.91	.44	.28	.32	.32	.35	.37	.46	.57	1.10
Arithmetic:										
Consolidated ..	11.8	13.6	16.2	19.0	20.7	24.0	25.7	27.0	27.0	27.3
One-teacher ...	10.6	11.8	14.6	17.0	19.1	22.3	25.1	26.5	26.7	26.5
Difference	1.2	1.8	1.6	2.0	1.6	1.7	.6	.5	.3	.8
P. E.	.65	.32	.23	.22	.25	.22	.21	.22	.32	.56
Language:										
Consolidated ..	8.6	8.7	9.9	10.7	11.1	12.5	12.9	13.4	13.7	13.5
One-teacher ...	7.3	8.3	9.2	10.5	10.6	11.8	12.8	13.0	13.2	13.6
[1] Difference	1.3	.4	.7	.2	.5	.7	.1	.4	.5	−.1 [1]
P. E.	.37	.17	.13	.12	.12	.11	.10	.13	.17	.34
Spelling:										
Consolidated ..	92.1	88.4	86.5	81.4	78.0	72.9	66.9	64.0	58.2	61.6
One-teacher ...	90.0	82.1	81.3	77.1	72.4	72.2	64.5	54.0	50.9	45.9
Difference	2.1	6.3	5.2	4.3	5.6	.7	2.4	10.0	7.3	15.7
P. E.	1.93	1.04	.91	.95	.87	1.14	1.07	1.35	1.99	3.72
Writing: Rate										
Consolidated ..	41.3	43.3	47.7	54.7	69.6	79.8	73.0	78.5	80.8	80.8
One-teacher ...	37.3	40.3	52.7	53.8	59.1	68.8	70.6	72.3	72.2	84.0
[1] Difference	4.0	3.0	−5.0	.9	10.5	16.0	2.4	6.2	7.6	−3.2
P. E.	2.31	1.03	1.00	.92	.88	.86	.95	1.16	1.60	3.10
Writing: Quality										
Consolidated ..	34.1	36.5	38.4	41.6	45.5	48.8	52.5	54.4	55.5	58.0
One-teacher ...	33.5	35.6	37.9	41.1	42.5	46.9	50.3	52.7	53.1	54.1
Difference	.6	.9	.5	.5	3.0	1.9	2.2	1.7	2.4	3.9
P. E.	1.78	.74	.58	.55	.54	.58	.60	.87	1.18	2.45

[1] Differences in favor of the one-teacher school are marked with the minus sign.

For the purposes of this study Table 7 may be interpreted as follows:

1. The median measure of the median age-achievement differences is .33. It is interpreted as meaning that there is approximately 33 per cent of a

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year's difference in favor of the consolidated school when the yearly progress differences are expressed in a single numerical value.

TABLE 7—SHOWING THE RESULT OF CONVERTING THE AGE-ACHIEVEMENT DIFFERENCES INTO TERMS OF YEARLY PROGRESS

Subject	Age									
	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
Reading: Rate										
Difference	26.0	5.9	4.0	1.3	.8	1.9	2.2	5.7	4.3	.0
Per cent of yearly progress	1.30	.30	.20	.07	.04	.19	.22	.57	.43	....
Reading: Comp.										
Difference	2.8	1.8	1.6	.2	.6	1.0	.5	.7	1.2	2.2
Per cent of yearly progress	.62	.40	.36	.05	.13	.33	.17	.23	.40	.73
Arithmetic:										
Difference	1.2	1.8	1.6	2.0	1.6	1.7	.6	.5	.3	.8
Per cent of yearly progress	.17	.27	.24	.38	.31	.45	.20	.17	.13	.35
Language:										
Difference	1.3	.4	.7	.2	.5	.7	.1	.4	.5	−.1 [1]
Per cent of yearly progress	.65	.20	.43	.13	.36	.54	.08	.40	.50	−.10
Spelling:										
Difference	2.1	6.3	5.2	4.3	5.6	.7	2.4	10.0	7.3	15.7
Per cent of yearly progress	.09	.27	.24	.19	.20	.05	.16	.66	.49	1.04
Writing: Rate										
Difference	4.0	3.0	−5.0	.9	10.5	16.0	2.4	6.2	7.6	−3.2
Per cent of yearly progress	.57	.43	−.71	.13	1.16	2.30	.34	.88	.95	−.40
Writing: Quality										
Difference	.6	.9	.5	.5	3.0	1.9	2.2	1.7	2.4	3.9
Per cent of yearly progress	.20	.30	.17	.17	1.00	.63	.73	.56	.48	.78
Median per cent of yearly progress	.57	.30	.24	.13	.31	.45	.20	.56	.48	.35
Median of Medians	.33	...	....	...	....	....	...	....	...	....

[1] Differences favoring the one-teacher school are marked with the minus sign.

The single measure of 33 per cent and the per cents for each age tend to confirm strongly the differences in grade-achievement as reported in Table 5. The single measure of the age-differences is 33 per cent as compared

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with the single measure of the grade-differences of 27 per cent of a year's progress. This variation is due to the difference in the procedure used in deriving the two measures. Both are approximations—used because of the necessity of expressing differences in terms of some known unit. From these two measures it would be safe to conclude that the difference in the results of instruction in the two types of schools is between one fourth and one third of a year's progress.

2. The age-achievement differences tend to increase with the advancing ages. The increase is irregular but it is positive. It is evident, therefore, that the centralized school obtains superior results of instruction with the older pupils.

TABLE 8—SHOWING A COMPARISON OF SEVERAL IMPORTANT ADMINISTRATIVE CONDITIONS CONCERNING THE TWO GROUPS OF SCHOOLS

	Administrative Conditions	Consolidated	One-Teacher
1	Average number teachers employed per school	7.35	1
2	" " districts consolidated per school	6.11	....
3	" " pupils transported per school	91.	....
4	Per cent of enrolment transported	48.	....
5	Average area of territory served, sq. mi	44.3	8.6
6	" length of session, months	8.92	8.58
7	" number pupils enrolled per school	189.2	23.3
8	" " " " " teacher	25.7	23.3
9	" " years in the elementary course	7.9	7.9
10	" " " secondary work offered	3.7	....
11	" " grades per school having no pupils enrolled	....	2.2
12	(a) Per cent elementary teachers having training two years or more above high school	56	28
	(b) Per cent elementary teachers having training less than two years above high school	44	72
13	Per cent teachers having three or more years experience	64	68
14	Average tenure of service, years	2.55	1.67

Administrative conditions—The field report, Leaflet B, was so arranged that a few of the important administrative facts were recorded. Approximately three fourths of the schools in each group made the report as requested. These data have been summarized and are herewith presented in Table 8. Numbers 2, 3, 4, 10 and 11 of the fourteen items involve no comparison between the two schools; numbers 1, 5, and 7 make comparisons which do not bear so directly on the question at issue; however, all record facts of such significance that their inclusion in this report is fully warranted. It would be well to keep in mind that these data represent the better schools of both groups. It is more than probable that similar facts from all schools of the two groups would show figures less favorable. This statement in no way effects the validity of the comparisons made.

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Items 6, 8, 11, 12, 13, and 14 in the table justify the following comment:

1. The session of the consolidated school exceeds that of the one-teacher school by .34 of one month. This difference is not great enough to be considered an important factor in instruction.

2. The one-teacher school is favored by having an average of 2.4 pupils less per teacher than there are in the consolidated school. This difference is derived from the enrolment in both elementary and high-school grades in the consolidated school. Since the attendance per teacher in the secondary grades is usually much less than it is in the lower grades the difference, if confined to the elementary grades alone, would be greater than 2.4—probably double this number.

Whether a difference in enrolment of four or five pupils per teacher affects the results of instruction is unknown. It is reasonable to assume that other factors have much greater influence.

3. The qualifications of teachers in the centralized school are distinctly higher. In this group 56 per cent have training two or more years above high school graduation as compared with 28 per cent in the one-teacher group. We do not know the relationship between teacher-qualifications and the results of instruction, but it is commonly accepted that the better trained teacher obtains superior results in the classroom. To what extent does this variation in teacher-qualifications account for the difference in the results of instruction reported in Tables 5 and 8? The question is particularly significant in view of the pronounced belief that those with better education and training can and do obtain better classroom results.

4. The per cent of teachers having three or more years of experience is very nearly equal in the two groups of schools.

5. Teachers continue in service in the consolidated school .88 of one year longer than in the one-teacher school. The tenure in both types is very short.

6. Item number 11 records a significant fact about the one-teacher school that bears directly on instruction. An average of 2.2 grades have no pupils enrolled. This means that teachers in such schools have 2.2 total grades less than the total number in the elementary school. Instead of having all eight grades represented only 5.8 grades are enrolled on the average.

Summary—The preceding data and discoursive treatment seem to warrant the following conclusions:

1. The study has been sufficiently extensive in area, the number of schools, and the number of pupils to constitute a satisfactory sample or cross-section of instruction in the consolidated school and in the one-teacher school in the subjects tested.

2. Pupils in the one-teacher school are .14 of a year younger than are those in the consolidated school.

3. The holding power of the consolidated school is superior to that of the one-teacher school in the upper grades.

4. The rate of progress from grade to grade is nearly equal in the two schools; pupils advance about as rapidly in one type as in the other.

5. There is a significant difference in the results of instruction in each grade tested in favor of the consolidated school.

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6. When the grade-achievement differences are converted into terms of yearly progress, they range from 18 to 40 per cent of a year in favor of the large type of school, with a general median difference of 27 per cent.

7. The subject-achievement differences range from 10 to 44 per cent with a general median difference of 27.5 per cent. The greatest differences are found in rate and quality of handwriting; comprehension of reading takes next rank. The smallest difference is in arithmetic.

8. The grade-achievement differences increase from grade to grade. They are distinctly larger in the three upper than in the three lower grades.

9. The age-achievement differences are in favor of the consolidated school. They tend to confirm the grade-achievement comparisons.

10. When converted into terms of yearly progress the age-achievement differences range from 13 to 56 per cent of a year with a median of age medians of 33 per cent. While the per cents are somewhat greater, they are in general agreement with grade-achievement comparisons.

11. The age-achievement differences increase with the advancing ages.

12. Five of the fourteen administrative facts reported in Table 8 compare important conditions. Two favor each type of school by insignificant amounts. The fifth, qualifications of teachers, is decidedly in favor of the consolidated school.

Significant questions—The Committee feels warranted in closing this report with several significant questions.

1. Why is there such a small difference in the results of instruction between the two types of schools?

2. The most significant administrative difference herein reported is that of teacher qualifications. To what extent does this account for the instructional differences favoring the consolidated school?

3. Is the consolidated school realizing on its opportunities?

4. Have we not erected costly buildings, installed elaborate equipment, and set up extensive organizations, and *assumed* that they would produce superior classroom results?

5. Does not the study create a higher regard for what the one-teacher school is accomplishing?

6. The movement for consolidation contemplates the *abandonment* of the one-teacher school and the transportation of *all* the pupils to the central school. Would it be wise, in the light of the report, to recommend some modification of this program?

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

OAKLAND MEETING

C. G. Sargent, professor of rural education, of the Colorado Agricultural College, Fort Collins, Colorado, was the only officer of the department present and, therefore, had full charge of the program. In many respects, the four numbers provided for this meeting made one of the best programs that the department has held in a number of years.

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President Lory, of the Colorado Agricultural College, a recognized leader in the field of rural education throughout the United States, was at his best. His discussion of the topic A STATE PROGRAM IN RURAL EDUCATION was frequently applauded, and it was followed by an interesting and prolonged discussion. Many of those present pronounced it one of the finest addresses on rural education they had ever heard.

Professor O. J. Kern, of the University of California, presented a well-prepared and most interesting paper on THE ELEMENTS OF RURAL CIVILIZATION IN THE COURSE OF STUDY FOR RURAL SCHOOLS. This was thoroughly appreciated by the entire audience and we feel indebted to Professor Kern for his valuable contribution to the success of our meeting.

While Professor C. E. Rarick, of the State Teachers College, Hays, Kansas, could not be present, he sent a well-prepared paper which was read by Eva Holmes, county superintendent of Napa County, California and who also acted as Secretary *pro tem.* for the department. Mr. Rarick's paper dealt in a most intelligent way. with rural school conditions in the State of Kansas.

Mark Keppel, superintendent of Los Angeles County, California, gave a most interesting address on the subject of RURAL SCHOOL FINANCE. This is the first time that Mr. Keppel has appeared on the program of our department and he gave one of the finest discussions on ways and means of financing rural schools that we have heard in a long time. Mr. Keppel has thoroughly mastered the subject and knows how to present it in a forceful and attractive way. We hope that Mr. Keppel may be accorded a place in our program when the meeting is held in the eastern part of our country, for he has a message that will be of great value to the rural workers in all parts of the country.

It was the unanimous request of those present that all of the papers presented be printed and made available for distribution. In response to this request, the retiring president informed the audience that the papers would appear in the Volume of Proceedings of the National Education Association. Unfortunately, Mr. Keppel and President Lory gave their addresses extemporaneously and neither has as yet found time to reduce them to written form for printing. We are glad to include the addresses of Professor Kern and of Professor Rarick and have no hesitation in saying that both constitute real contributions to literature on rural education.

SELLING RURAL EDUCATION TO THE PUBLIC IN KANSAS[1]

C. E. RARICK, PROFESSOR RURAL EDUCATION, KANSAS STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE, HAYS, KANSAS

It could hardly be expected that a true son of Kansas could resist a temptation to boast of his commonwealth. So to make good on the proposition we will begin with a few facts concerning the Sunflower State.

Kansas claims the distinction of growing more wheat and more alfalfa than any other State in the Union. The total value of all the property in the State is $3,620,000,000. The per capita wealth of Kansas people compares favorably with that of other States. In population Kansas has at present slightly more than 1,750,000. During the last three decades the increase of population in Kansas, however, has not kept pace with the rest of the country. The total increase in Kansas in thirty years was 22.5 per cent as against a total National increase of 45.9 per cent. We folks in Kansas wish

[1] In the absence of the author, the paper was read by Eva Holmes, superintendent of Napa County schools, California.

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to attribute this slow growth in population to the fact that the State contains few large cities which have in recent years absorbed much of the increase in population. Let it be said, however, that Kansas is contributing her full share of the drift from the farms to the towns and cities of the country.

The population of Kansas is particularly homogeneous in character. Ninety-six and six tenths per cent of the population is white, 3.3 per cent colored, and the remaining 1.1 per cent Indian and other races. Of our total population only 6.25 per cent are foreign born, and these are well distributed over the State. There is not a county in Kansas where the foreign-born population runs as high as 15 per cent. Such foreign-born whites as are found in Kansas come principally from Germany, Mexico, and Sweden.

Sixty-five and one tenth per cent of Kansas people live in rural districts or in villages of 2500 people or less, and 49 out of every 100 of the entire population of the State actually reside upon its farms and till its soil. Of the total land area of the State 86.8 per cent is in farms of which over two thirds are improved, and 58 per cent of which are cultivated by the owners.

Kansas lays claim to a high percentage of literacy; only Iowa, Nebraska, Oregon, and Idaho outrank Kansas in this particular. The census report for 1920 shows that there were in Kansas 255,404 children 7 to 13 years of age of whom 241,531, or 94.5 per cent were in school. The same report shows that Kansas ranks fifth in the Union in the proportion of population 14 to 18 years of age attending secondary schools. The percentage of this age group in these States was as follows: California, 86.6 per cent; Nevada, 53.3 per cent; Washington, 50.6 per cent; Oregon, 49.9 per cent; Kansas, 43.3 per cent. The average for the entire country was 28.4 per cent. It is also shown that the enrolment in Kansas high schools increased from 16,409 in 1901 to 60,110 in 1920. These facts are a testimony of the real interest that the people of Kansas have in elementary and secondary schools.

In institutions of collegiate grade, Kansas also ranks high. During the year ending 1921 there were the following number of people in each State to each college-student resident in that State: Oregon 112, Iowa 128, Utah 137, Kansas and Nebraska each, 151. As indicating the drawing power of these higher institutions on their own students, Kansas also ranks high, taking ninth place, being exceeded by California, Oregon, Utah, Michigan, Nebraska, New York, Montana, and Ohio. Seventy-nine and two tenths per cent of the college students residing in Kansas remain in their own State for their college education; the average for all the States is 74.3 per cent.

The Russell Sage Foundation Report for 1920 ranked Kansas as twenty-seventh among the States in educational standing. This report may not in all particulars represent a true comparison among the States, but it is significant to Kansans of the exceedingly low rating that the schools of their State have. Thoughtful people in our commonwealth have known for some time that the type of school available to farm boys and girls was much below that given to village and city children.

Fifteen years ago Hon. E. T. Fairchild, then State superintendent of public instruction of Kansas in his biennial report said:

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The most pressing educational problem of today is the rural school. Our university, State agricultural college, and normal schools have attained a degree of excellence and efficiency unparalleled in the history of our State. The denominational institutions, the high schools, and even the village schools all report remarkable prosperity and increased activity. However, there is a phase of our school work that has not felt this forward impulse. I refer particularly to the rural school. It is the deliberate judgment of many of our best educators and closest observers that no such progress as we have above described is to be found in the common or country schools. While all eyes have been turned to the high school, to the college, and to the university, it is feared that the welfare of the rural school has been overlooked.

How like the voice of a prophet these words sound to those who know educational conditions in Kansas now. The facts heretofore given indicate that Kansas has made remarkable progress in her secondary schools and in her institutions of higher learning. While there are indications of growth in the rural schools of the State during this time, it is known without question that their progress is in no respect comparable to that of the graded schools of the city and the higher institutions of learning within the State.

So strongly had the conviction come to the people of Kansas that there was a fundamental injustice and inequality resulting from the widely different types of elementary schools offered in the State, that the legislature of 1921 enacted a concurrent resolution establishing a State School Code Commission, defining its functions and making an appropriation of funds for its use. Last year under the direction of that commission, there was made an extended study of the educational conditions of the State, particularly relating to the rural schools. So far as Kansas is concerned, that was the first attempt in an official way to compare the teaching results in the one-teacher schools with those of the graded schools of the same territory.

A study was made of the achievements of pupils in the elementary schools of different types in the State. In addition to this attention was also given to the education, experience, and salaries of the teachers in these schools, their tenure in the positions held, the number of pupils and daily classes taught, and the teaching facilities provided as represented by library and supplemental books.

The scope of the investigation was necessarily limited because the great size of the task made it impossible to examine any large portion of the elementary schools of the State. However, a fair representation of the several types of schools, comprising a total of more than 4000 pupils, found in 17 different counties, widely distributed over the State, would seem to make a fair basis for the comparison of results in these types of schools for the State as a whole. The tests were given in practically all of the schools during the sixty days prior to February 15, 1922. In this investigation there were included 132 schools with 4244 pupils.

In measuring the achievements of the children the same standard tests were used both in the one-teacher schools and also in the graded schools. The manner of giving the tests was as nearly identical as possible. The subjects used in the study were spelling, reading, arithmetic fundamentals, arithmetic reasoning, written composition, and handwriting. From the data secured by this means the following conclusions, in brief, are drawn:

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First. The pupils in the sixth grade of the graded schools spell as well or better on the average than do seventh grade pupils in the one-teacher school. The graded-school pupils are, quite obviously, about one school year ahead of pupils in the ungraded schools in the subject of spelling.

Second. The results in reading show that on the average the pupils in the graded schools are a full year in advance of the boys and girls in the one-teacher schools in that subject. In fact, the fifth-grade pupils in cities of the second class read as many paragraphs correctly on the average as do the seventh-grade pupils in the ungraded schools. Likewise the sixth-grade pupils in the former schools are nearly two years ahead of the sixth-grade pupils in the one-teacher schools. Not only do the pupils in the ungraded schools have a smaller score in number of paragraphs read correctly, but they also have a larger percentage of paragraphs read incorrectly in proportion to their own total paragraphs than do the pupils in the graded schools. This difference runs above 10 per cent in some grades. The meaning of these facts stated in another way is that in addition to reading slower, the pupils in one-teacher schools generally read more inaccurately.

Third. In measuring the ability of pupils to handle the fundamental operations of arithmetic, the following conclusions were reached. There was no grade in the one-teacher schools which averaged up to the third-grade standard in addition as required by the author of the test. The same may be said for the fourth grade in multiplication. On the average, the pupils in the ungraded schools are between one and two years behind the pupils in the graded schools in the fundamentals of arithmetic. When the degree of accuracy is taken into account the pupils in the ungraded schools did not reach an average of 50 per cent in addition for any of the school grades. The percentage of accuracy was uniformly lower for the one-teacher schools in all grades in each of the four operations than for the same grades in the graded schools, with only one lone exception, the fourth grade in division. The difference in some instances was more than 20 per cent between the two types of schools.

Fourth. In the arithmetic reasoning tests it was plainly evident that pupils in the graded schools showed the effect of better teaching in those schools with reference to reasoning on problems in arithmetic. Both correct principle and correct results counted in making the scores. In every instance the pupils of the graded schools showed superiority to those of the one-teacher schools, ranging from 3 per cent to more than 30 per cent.

Fifth. In written composition it was found that the pupils in cities of the third class had a higher average score in each of the six grades tested than do the ungraded school pupils. This difference was greater in the upper grades where it was found that the seventh grade in the one type of school averaged as high as the eighth grade in the other type of school. In the fourth and fifth grades the pupils in second-class city schools were a full year ahead of the pupils in one-teacher schools; in the sixth grade they were more than two years ahead in this subject.

Sixth. In handwriting the quality of writing of the children was measured by the handwriting used by them in the test in written composition. It was found that the pupils of the third class cities were more than a school grade ahead of the pupils in the one-teacher schools; the pupils in second-class cities were more than two school years in advance of the pupils in one-teacher schools in this subject.

In the measurement and comparison of pupil achievement in different types of schools, it was thought necessary to know how the several groups compared with reference to the ages of the pupils tested and how nearly alike was the distribution of pupils by grades in the several types of schools. In both of these particulars a marked similarity occurred, and in general it may be said that there were but slight differences in the four types of schools in both of these particulars.

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It would then be natural to presume that the length of the school year would be a big factor influencing the achievements of pupils. It might even seem that the great advantage of the graded schools was largely due to the longer school year of nine months. It can be clearly demonstrated, however, that this is not the chief nor, perhaps, an important factor in determining the differences in pupil achievement, which have been herein described and which disclose the inferiority of results in the one-teacher schools.

Of the 1232 pupils tested in the one-teacher schools, it happened that 334 were in schools having a seven month's term, 861 were in eight months' schools, and 37 were in nine months' schools. This fact permitted a comparison to determine how much better were the results secured in the eight than in the seven months' schools. The number in nine months' schools was too small to make possible a valid comparison. The evidence available shows rather conclusively that the eight months' schools are not generally superior in results secured, at least below the seventh grade, and in no grade is the difference so consistent as to be strongly convincing. The facts thus derived suggest that an additional month of poor teaching does not greatly improve the results secured in any of the subjects investigated. The inferior results which characterize the one-teacher school cannot be remedied by extending the annual school term one or two months. It is certainly reasonable to believe that a different *kind* of schooling is needed rather than more of the same kind. Any effective remedy for the serious shortcomings of the one-teacher school must include a re-organization of these schools, looking to larger school units, a reclassification of its pupils, and adequate supervision of instruction, which, next to a superior teacher and good organization, is the most important single factor in the improvement of teaching results.

It should be remembered that there were certain other facts closely related to the pupil achievements in these schools which were also carefully investigated. These include the tenure, experience, training, and salary of the teachers; the number of daily recitations and size of classes in these schools; and the adequacy of such educational provisions as supplementary books and library facilities.

It is generally recognized that nothing is more disruptive to school progress than the continual changing of teachers. Satisfactory teaching results are impossible where a brief tenure of service prevails. In this particular study, 66 of the one-teacher schools which reported on this item showed that 50 of the teachers were new in their positions for that year; 12 others had been in the position but one year; and only four of the 66 teachers had been in their positions more than a single year. The unstable teaching force thus resulting is certainly a menace to the educational progress of the pupils and undesirable as a business procedure.

Many of the teachers in one-teacher schools are each year replaced by inexperienced teachers. The facts showed that 33 out of 98 of these one-room schools reporting on this item had inexperienced teachers that year. The graded schools show but two inexperienced teachers out of fifty-one employed. From another source, covering the same point, and equally reliable, it was learned that 258 teachers out of 728 were inexperienced.

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In comparison to this situation in the one-teacher schools the same report showed for the graded schools that 23 only out of 458 were inexperienced. Seven out of every ten teachers in the schools investigated have no more than a high-school training. The situation is quite different for teachers in the graded schools; practically all of these teachers have received a full four-years' course of high-school training, and five out of every ten have received normal school or college training in addition thereto.

When we examine the salary for teachers in the elementary schools of Kansas additional cause for charges of discrimination are found. Women teachers in the one-teacher schools are paid on an average $678 per year, while women teaching in the graded schools receive $885 per year. The same comparison among the men shows $730 as against $1080. Insufficient training, inexperience, instability, and the cheapness of the teaching force have tended to cheapen the teaching results in the one-teacher schools.

The large number of classes per day which the teacher of the one-teacher school has to teach makes her task especially difficult from the standpoint of getting good teaching results. Only 32 per cent of the one-teacher schools investigated have less than thirty classes a day and 30 per cent of the number are loaded with 35 or more classes scheduled to be taught daily. There were several teachers of this group whose program called for more than 40 recitations daily.

Closely related to the large number of daily classes is the important question of the extremely small number of pupils in many of the grades in the one-teacher schools. Eighty-three of the 98 one-teacher schools have one or more grades in which there is only one pupil. Eighty-eight of these have one or more grades in which two pupils only are enrolled. In the grade schools of the same territory there was not reported a grade having less than five pupils in it and the teachers in these graded schools average less than half the number of daily classes per teacher that were reported for one-teacher schools. The educative contacts that come from group instruction are largely absent from the one-teacher schools and the expensive duplication resulting from such a school organization is not justified as a business proposition.

By the lack of such school provisions as adequate library and supplementary textbooks the teacher of the one-room school in Kansas is further handicapped. Only one in seven of these schools claim to have provided any supplementary textbooks for any grade; even the one school in seven had few such books. A majority of these one-teacher schools report that they have *some* library books, but six out of every ten have none for grades one and two. Almost as large a number have no library books for the third and fourth grades. From three to four out of every ten of these schools we find provided with less than a dozen library books of any sort for grades five to eight. Further evidence that the one-teacher schools of Kansas are not so well prepared to offer efficient instruction as are the better-equipped graded schools.

There is another fact, somewhat startling in its significance, which was secured from another source, but is reliable. An investigation over the entire

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area of 15 counties, well distributed over the State, showed that only 58.67 per cent of the school census of the one-teacher schools were enrolled in the schools of that type. For the same area in the graded schools, the showing was 86.91 per cent of their school census enrolled in their own schools. From the foregoing facts we are forced to these conclusions:

First, that the pupil achievements in the graded schools of Kansas are much superior to the results secured in the one-teacher school. *Second,* that the differences between the achievements of pupils attending the seven months' and the eight months' schools of the one-teacher type are so slight as to indicate that there is not much advantage in the additional month of that kind of schooling. *Third,* that the boys and girls in one-teacher schools are getting a very inferior kind of instruction from inexperienced, poorly prepared and poorly paid teachers. *Fourth,* that the excessive number of daily classes to be taught, and the absence of essential teaching facilities, operate to rob the children in such schools of fair and reasonable educational opportunities. *Fifth,* that the facts show that the parents of the children of the one-teacher school districts of Kansas are recognizing the inefficiency and injustice that such a system brings, for approximately one third of them move out of the one-teacher school district to educate their children. *Sixth,* that the one-teacher school system as an instrument of instruction has outlived its usefulness, stands impeached in every essential detail of its operation and is totally unworthy of a place in the educational system of any energetic, fair-minded commonwealth.

If the foregoing facts in all their details, and with their emphatic vividness will not persuade a community to attempt something better, eventually at least, we have little hopes for that particular community. But I am happy to relate that central and western Kansas, particularly, are recognizing the need and are apparently coming to believe that a new type of rural education will satisfy that need. They are actually buying for the farm children of their territory an educational opportunity that is the equal of that offered children anywhere.

Since July, 1919, when the real work of reconstruction was begun, wonderful progress has been made. A hasty survey reveals that in this time more than 70 school projects have been successfully launched. The types of these schools range all the way from the small consolidated school to the larger consolidated schools with wonderful equipment and buildings and serving the educational needs of several hundred farm children. The consolidated school at Manning, Scott County, serves a small community, replacing three one-teacher school districts and operates two motor busses. The school plant there has a valuation of $25,000. This school represents the smaller type of consolidated schools in central and western Kansas.

In the county adjacent to Scott County, that is, Finney County, there is located the big consolidated school of Holcomb. This is a school that serves the needs of what was formerly eight schools; it is operating 12 motor busses; has a school plant valued at $250,000, and is modern in every respect; and serves the real needs of Kansas farm boys and girls. The school plant at Holcomb has an ultimate capacity of 1200. It now has an enrolment of

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605 grade and high-school pupils, with a faculty of seventeen teachers. The plant consists of seven buildings and an athletic field, and a first-class farm of twelve acres, with an irrigation plant, apple and cherry orchards, a six-acre alfalfa field and plats for agricultural experiments.

The main building houses the intermediate department and the junior and senior high schools. It contains 17 classrooms, including shop, agriculture, household science and art, music and drawing departments, a commodious study hall, three offices, four dressing-rooms (two of which are equipped with shower baths) and an auditorium-gymnasium. The primary department is located in a pleasant, six-room modern building nearby.

The teachers' home is a modern twenty-room building built of brick with tile roof, containing thirteen bedrooms and two cheerful homelike living-rooms, a dining-room, and kitchen. This is under the care of a matron who prepares the meals. Of the other three residence buildings on the grounds, one is the home of the superintendent, one of the agriculture instructor, and the other for the janitor. In addition to these there is a brick garage large enough to hold sixteen auto busses.

A number of praiseworthy projects of a cultural and religious nature are carried on at the school or with its assistance. Community sings are held twice a month; the community choir meets at the school for the preparation of music to be used in the services of the Community Church and Sunday School, having a membership of 248, of different sects, all worshipping together. Musical appreciation, aided by victrolas, is begun in the first grade. Operettas and cantatas are given with talent from the community.

The school maintains a splendid lecture course, and possesses the only motion-picture equipment in the community, thus controlling this popular source of information and entertainment to a great extent.

No, Kansas is not yet fully awake. In fact, she has only just begun to yawn a bit. When she does really sit up and take notice of the possibilities that modern rural education brings to farm boys and girls, we may expect to hear of wonderful accomplishments. Kansas never does things in a half-way manner She can move rapidly when the need is urgent. The time will soon be auspicious. When that moment fully comes you will find Kansas buying a type of rural education that will be worthy both of her traditions and of her ambitions.

THE ELEMENTS OF RURAL CIVILIZATION IN THE COURSE OF STUDY FOR COUNTRY SCHOOLS

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By "country school" is meant that rural institution which is supposed to meet the primary educational needs of a *farm* population. For the first time the Bureau of Census distinguishes between "farm" population and "rural" population. A recent bulletin issued by the Bureau of Census gives the total farm population in 1920 to be 31,614,269. These are dwellers on

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farms, the tillers of the soil, and may be called our agrarian democracy. Of this farm population of 31,614,269 a total of 15,962,176 was 20 years old or under. Since education and organization represent the two methods by which our agrarian democracy must maintain its status, the character of these two movements becomes highly significant.

This farm population of 31,614,269 is, of course, the larger part of our rural population of 51,406,017. This may be termed our rural democracy in contrast to our urban democracy of 54,304,603 which lives in cities and incorporated places of 2500 and over. Expressed in percentages "farm" population is 29.9 per cent of total population of the United States; rural population 48.6 per cent; and urban population 51.4 per cent.

Rural population, the whole, is 20,000,000 greater than farm population, the part. It would be interesting to know how much these 20,000,000 non-farm dwellers of our rural population have in common with the 31,614,269 farm-dwellers of our rural population. How far can they travel the same road educationally and socially? How much have they in common in rural economics? Can these two elements work together in the development of such institutions as school and church, which will really meet the needs of the larger community life in an ever expanding rural democracy?

Farm population and food production—The chief significance of farm population and its fundamental relation to our National welfare has been its ability to feed the Nation. Production of food and raw materials do not constitute agrarian democracy's sole mission, to be sure, but this must ever remain its chief task. Lincoln's words relating to food production, spoken in 1859, now read like a prophecy. "Ere long," he said, "the most valuable of all arts will be the art of deriving a comfortable subsistence from the smallest area of soil. No community whose every member possesses this art can ever be the victim of oppression in any form. Such a community will be alike independent of crowned kings, money kings, and land kings." It was well for the democracy of the world that the agrarian democracy of America, born since Lincoln died, was fairly efficient in this "most valuable of arts," the art of productive agriculture. As soon as our country actively entered the world-wide contest, advice, entreaties, warnings and proclamations from all sorts of sources urged the farmer to win the war. "Food will win the war" became the slogan, often, of those who had nothing to do with the actual winning of the food.

It was a fine spirit manifested by the great leaders of our industrial democracy in mobilizing to the support of our government. These men brought to the solution of many difficult problems keen minds trained by long years in specific lines of business. Many of our agricultural colleges send their graduates back to the farm for leadership and service in agriculture. These leaders have been growing corn, beef, alfalfa, fruit, and the like, and developing schools, homes, churches, and rural interests in general. If the farmer in the furrow constituted the second line of defense, then it would seem that sound principles of military tactics would demand that actual farmers form a part of the home board of strategy. Agricultural leaders, trained men, both as result of academic training in a college of agri-

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culture and long years of experience in the successful management of a well-ordered farm, should be qualified to give counsel on some of the complex problems relating to the production, regulation and price-fixing of the commodity so necessary in the winning of the war. Surely our farm population merits representation in councils to make a world safe for democracy and to make a safe democracy for the world.

Two agencies in reconstruction—It was stated above that education and organization may be regarded as the two forces for the development of a satisfactory rural civilization. The possibilities of the improvement of plant and animal life; the better organization of the work of the farm to secure more time for recreation; the exercise of leadership in the reconstruction of community life, are all tasks of the highest order. Agrarian democracy, our farm population, has a twofold work—namely, to put the great business of farming on a scientific basis and to give a richer content to the human or social values in agriculture. Economic success is the first essential to an attractive life. There is scant satisfaction in listening to the songs of birds, inhaling the odor of clover blossoms, or watching the glory of the sunset, where there is an indifferent financial reward for long days of toil. On the economic side of agriculture, aside from the improvement in the technique of farm operations, agrarian democracy must learn the great lesson of coöperation and organization. If it is considered necessary and just for labor to organize and to secure legislation to protect its rights and to promote its welfare, why should it be considered unethical or inexpedient for farmers to do the same?

However, a farmer is more than a producer. There are man yields as well as crop yields. People, rural folk, are the most interesting things in the open country. To evolve the attractive country life is the great task of reconstruction for rural democracy. Through education in the rural school there must come for farm youth that spiritualizing and socializing contact with rural environment that will emphasize the worth of agriculture as a mode of life. In an academic way most farmers concede that the farmer and his family are of more concern that the farm and its products. But in this, as in many other things, there is a wide difference between theory and practice. There is a growing feeling that the cost of production of farm youth is too low in a few vital essentials to fit them for active citizenship in a wholesome country life. First, there should be substantial recognition of the truth that boys and girls on the farm are an asset, not a charge wholly, and of sufficient economic importance to be admitted into a kind of junior partnership relation. Second, there must be a richer social content in the lives of farm folk. Opportunity for high-school training must be provided. The adolescent age is the critical age of farm youth. There is needed the steadying influence of a good wholesome secondary school.

Education for country life—The educational system for the American farmer may be represented graphically by the pyramid. At the apex is the college of agriculture, the institution of higher learning and training in the technique and science of the Nation's fundamental industry. At the base is the country school, the primary educational institution for the farmer, where

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the great mass of farm youth gets its only training so far as formal education is concerned. The connecting link between the apex and the base is the distinctively rural high school, the consolidated school, the truly American rural folk school slowly rising into National consciousness.

The country school is in direct contact with the farming population. To take it out of contact and control of its constituency is to commit a pedagogical and social blunder, the evil consequences of which only succeeding centuries can measure. We do not strengthen a democracy by taking away from that democracy all opportunity to participate in its affairs. We will not strengthen agrarian democracy's interest in its education by taking away from it all responsibility for the rural school. Such a procedure will hasten the exodus from the farm. The strong vigorous families of this generation will move away. The process will be repeated in succeeding generations. The rural race will deteriorate because of the inferior stock left behind. There will result degenerate rural life with American serfdom, worse than modern tenantry, a people tied to the soil with " established heredity of trade or calling " as Rome established in a vain effort to get the farms of Italy cultivated.

More attention must be given to the candles of learning, burning very feebly some of them, in thousands of country schools. There is not universal intellectual gloom and stagnation at the base of our educational pyramid, but conditions are far from satisfactory. In many cases, it is true, the life on the farm is giving a very valuable training to many farm youths. But some of us know from experience how more vital and significant the vocational training given by the farm would have been if the country school had furnished at the same time the intellectual stimulus and spiritual contact with a rural environment. Some of us were literally soul-starved in the midst of plenty.

It has remained for the oldest farmers' organization in the United States to declare what education for country life is. The National Grange appointed a special committee on agricultural reconstruction. The committee made its report at the fifty-second annual session of the National Grange at Syracuse, New York, November 13-22, 1918. Among other things this special committee said: " Our system of rural education should not neglect environment as a basis of education. Urban standards should not become guides of rural systems of education. Unless teachers themselves breathe the atmosphere of a country life environment, they cannot sense sympathetically the basic facts that mean country contentment and satisfaction. Neither can they instil into the minds of country children those important things that mean the fullest enrichment of country life. We therefore demand a system of education that will direct the farm youth toward the farm, and not away from the farm."

Course of study for the country school—Let it be emphasized, once for all, that in our reconstruction of the course of study for the country school we shall not throw overboard all the best of the old nor take on all that is attractive of the new. Let it be emphasized, also, that the one-teacher country school has its limitations. Some things, many things in fact, in country life education will be done with better skill and with better results in a consoli-

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dated school. But in the rural elementary school, tradition and a course of study for professional life shall no longer dominate.

A school should reflect, in its course of study, some of the principal elements of the environment in which it is placed. The social and economic needs of a farm population of 31,614,269 people living wholly outside of cities or incorporated places demand some modification of the course of study to admit the elements of a rural civilization. Since the farm is the economic unit and the farm home the social unit of an agricultural civilization, some material relating to the farm and some material relating to the farm home, must be included in the course of training for farm youth. This will enrich country life and encourage social and industrial efficiency.

A brief statement of the units of such a course must be accepted here instead of a detailed outline. The following classification is arbitrary and may not be logical. Perhaps it has the merit of simplicity. The following are the five units: (1) *Language unit,* reading spelling, writing, language lessons, literature; (2) *mathematics unit,* numbers, arithmetic; (3) *social science unit*, geography, history, civics, art, music; (4) *natural science unit*, physiology and hygiene; and (5) *country life unit,* elements of rural civilization.

By elimination, substitution, and the proper correlation, the traditional subjects as given in the first four units above can be made more effective in training and will not lose their cultural and disciplinary values if more closely related to rural life. This fact should be kept in mind in discussing the training of the American farmer—namely, that he is a man and a citizen as well as a cultivator of the soil. Hence, he has intellectual hungers and spiritual longings as well as vocational needs. The subject matter, then entering into his education, should include the best of the world's civilization, music, literature, history, art, as well as the fundamentals of an agricultural civilization. Country-life education includes rural education as well as agricultural education.

Character of the country life unit—Various terms are used to characterize the material of the country life unit in the course of study for the country school. The name is not so important after all, perhaps. Something of agriculture and home-making are urged by all. So far as the farm is concerned this material is designated "elements of agriculture," "elementary agriculture," "agricultural nature study," and "nature study agriculture." The material for study in connection with the rural home is also variously termed "domestic science," "household art and economy," and "home making." To cover all this material perhaps the term "elements of a rural civilization" is suitable. For life on the farm in rural society means more, or could mean more, than simply tilling the soil and housekeeping. In class discussion one day as to the proper term to describe the material of this country life unit, one student said his church called it "the gospel of the land."

The country life unit has four main divisions—namely, human needs, interest, and activities in rural life; plant studies throughout the year; animal studies throughout the year; and soil studies and the phenomena of the inorganic world. Each of these divisions has enough material for a volume

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The first division is broad enough to include the elements of rural health, rural recreation, rural architecture, rural landscape art, and all those activities that mean the socialization of rural community life. Under the last three divisions we have material for a course in agricultural nature study.

With reference to instruction in soil, plant, and animal life in the one-teacher country school, too many farmers, and educators as well, confuse specialized agricultural production for the adult and scientific agricultural education for the child. Also, too many teachers confuse the *art* of agriculture with the *science* of agriculture. There is plenty of room for many farmers to improve on the art side of their vocation, but they will not learn this from a city high-school girl teaching her first school in the country. This is not the field of operation for such a teacher.

Again, a brief word as to subject matter and method. Because there is to be " something of agriculture and home making " in the rural course of study, this does not mean that the country school is to become a technical vocational school; a sort of transplanted European peasant school with a narrow curriculum, one not " open at the top." Such a school will make it impossible for farm youth to enter a high school. A university course for farm youth who aspire to it then becomes an impossibility. America's equality of educational opportunity is thus gone. This is the danger as the passing of time increasingly emphasizes the production of food. European systems of rural education keep farm youth on the farm. But the American farmer has a different social status from that of the European peasant.

As to method. Vocational training in agriculture (somewhat in the 7th and the 8th grades of the country school, and more in the consolidated rural high school) will appeal to the boy reared on the farm more strongly if it comes to him as an improvement project first rather than as simply an economic project to determine amount of gain or loss. The reverse perhaps will be the procedure for the city boy studying agriculture for the first time. This does not imply that the farm boy does not need to increase his skill in production and therefore there is no need of the productive project of exercise worked out at home under the direction of the school. There is vast room for improvement in production. But agricultural production is not necessarily agricultural education.

The average farm-bred boy is already " fed up " on plowing and cultivating and husking. A vocational course in farming with the sole object of growing more bushels to the acre does make the strongest appeal to the farm-bred boy. But his interest may be challenged to grow *better* corn by selection and improvement of environment. In the end more corn will be raised.

The country school can and should furnish intellectual stimulus to farm youth. Some of us have been enthusiastic over agricultural education, expecting to see the entire problem of productive agriculture solved in a few cropping seasons by boys and girls in the elementary school, and that elementary school the rural school with all its handicaps. So strong was our faith in the efficacy of a legislative enactment that we passed laws compelling

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the subject to be taught without any provision for the training of teachers to teach it.

In the writer's judgment there should be a minimum of vocational training in the technique of agriculture in the rural elementary school because the school cannot teach this successfully to boys and girls of the elementary school age, and because country boys and girls in daily contact with productive agriculture have acquired a background of experience which no teacher can supply through the medium of the school. What these boys and girls need is that spiritualizing and socializing contact with their environment as will emphasize the worth of agriculture as a mode of life. This the country school may furnish, in a measure, if it has the right kind of teacher and a vitalized course of study. With this sympathetic contact with environment as a background, technical training in the art of agriculture will come in a higher school or by actual experience on a farm or both.

The work of the rural school—Of course the rural teacher should be trained for her work. But the special training needed is not that of vocational agriculture. It is rather in the field of rural sociology. The units in a course of training to prepare a teacher for the work of training farm youth should be somewhat as follows: (1) Through mastery of the subject matter of the curriculum of the elementary school with such supplementary material of an historical and sociological character as will properly emphasize the values of subject matter and of the rural school as a community institution; (2) principles and methods of education; (3) elements of a country life civilization and rural leadership; and (4) practice teaching under expert supervision in an ungraded school situated in a rural environment.

The above units are comprehensive and include all the cultural and vocational material necessary to train a person for service as a teacher in a country school. However, units 3 and 4 mentioned above, should be given in the teachers' college for then the students are more mature and educational facilities are better. There is a vast difference in the point of view and method of treatment of agricultural nature study in the first or second year of the high school from that in the senior year of the teachers' college. Also rural leadership implies a study of rural sociology and the teachers' college is a better place for this than in the high school.

But present teachers may do much. We may assume that some of the science instruction during the four years' course for the high-school graduate (country teacher) has stuck. Enough, let us hope, of the physics, chemistry, and biology to enable him to understand some of the simple but extremely significant scientific principles of agriculture, such as are contained in an elementary textbook on soil, plant, and animal life, or in the bulletins issued from the experiment station, which bulletins the average adult farmer cannot intelligently read because his early education never taught him to think in terms of nitrogen, protein, carbohydrates, nutritive ratio, and the like. The science instruction this country teacher received in his high-school course, together with the most valuable literature and helps now available, should enable him to work over some of this material and make it available as mental food for farmers' children. He should be the medium for transforming scien-

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tific information into educative material in the training of farm youth. The average farmer, and farm child as well, needs mental stimulus along with his labor; intellectual food that will challenge his reasoning powers and cause him to think as he follows the furrow.

The laboratory and the experiment plot have a place, to be sure, in any sane scheme of agricultural education. But for the rural elementary school this does not mean the university equipment nor method. Farm youth are constantly submerged in one vast laboratory of out-of-doors and in daily contact with practice of one kind or another on the farm. Good teaching in the country school will challenge the interest of boys and girls with mental stimulus along the science of plant and animal improvement and soil conservation. Observation, information, investigation with the home improvement project are all needed. But if we wait till all rural teachers are trained in the technique of agriculture before we give any instruction in the science of agriculture we shall wait in vain.

The rural teacher's first and chief business in a community is to teach school, to "keep school" in the best sense of that term. To keep it ever in her best thought and to keep it and its interests prominently in the thought and affections of farming people. The country school is the one rural institution charged with the high mission of educating rural youth. There should be a regular place on the daily program of recitation and study for this country life material. It should be taught with the same skill and motive as are taught reading, arithmetic, or geography. Farm youth need to be inspired with faith and hope in the life of the countryside. This means educational training in terms of their environment.

But how much are farmers willing to pay for such service? The National Grange resolution quoted above states, "Unless teachers themselves breathe the atmosphere of a country life environment, they cannot sense sympathetically the basic facts that mean country life contentment and satisfaction." A minimum annual salary of $1500 for the properly qualified teacher who must "breathe the atmosphere" will very materially strengthen the sense that means "country contentment and satisfaction." This living annual salary of $1500 for services rendered in full is tangible sympathy for the teacher in her work of using "rural environment as a basis of education" of farm youth. It is more than sympathy. It is simple justice.

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Department of School Administration

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

OFFICERS

President—IRA B. BUSH.....Charleston, West Virginia
Secretary—WILLIAM C. BRUCE, Secretary, The Bruce Publishing Company, Milwaukee, Wisconsin

Owing to the absence of President Ira B. Bush, the meeting was called to order by William C. Bruce, who on motion of Reuben W. Jones which was unanimously carried, was elected chairman.

The first speaker was Professor Fred C. Ayer, of the University of Washington, Seattle, Washington, who read a paper on "What Does Modern School Board Organization Imply?" He was followed by Reuben W. Jones, secretary of the Board of Education, Seattle, Washington, who spoke on "Present Day Secretarial School Board Service."

After the reading of the two papers the discussion centered upon the question of administrative authority. Mr. Jones, himself a school board secretary, yielded to the thought that the superintendent should be recognized as the administrative head responsible to the board of education, and that under this plan the secretary comes under the superintendent's jurisdiction.

After appointing a nominating committee, consisting of Reuben W. Jones, Seattle, Washington; E. H. Whitney, Portland, Oregon; and Dr. Charles Evans, Oklahoma City, Oklahoma; with instructions to report on the following day, the meeting adjourned.

The second session was opened by an address by John J. Donovan, on "California School Architecture" followed by a paper on "The Later Phases in School Architecture," by Frank Irving Cooper, of Boston. An extended discussion followed.

The committee on nominations reported the selection of the following officers for the ensuing year: *President,* Dr. Charles Evans, president, Board of Education, Oklahoma City, Oklahoma; *secretary,* William C. Bruce, editor, *American School Board Journal,* Milwaukee, Wisconsin. The acceptance of the report and the election of officers was carried unanimously. Adjournment followed.

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Department of Science Instruction

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

OFFICERS

President—LESLIE O. JOHNSON, Head of Science Department, High School..New Haven, Conn.
Secretary—ARTHUR H. FRENCH, Head of Science Department, Francis W. Parker School .....San Diego, Calif.

FIRST SESSION—TUESDAY AFTERNOON, JULY 3, 1923

The first meeting of the Department of Science Instruction was convened at 2.15 o'clock by Secretary Arthur H. French, presiding in the absence of both Leslie O. Johnson, the president, and Allen C. Hutchinson, the vice-president. C. W. Gray, head of the Chemistry Department of the Hollywood High School, Hollywood, California, was appointed secretary *pro tem.* by Chairman French. The acting secretary read a message of welcome from Mr. Johnson in which were outlined the principle aims of the Science Department during the past year. The chairman added a few words outlining the difficulties faced, the work accomplished, and the intent and purpose of the program arrangement.

The principal speaker of the day was Dr. Robert A. Millikan, recently of the University of Chicago, and present head of the California Institute of Technology. Dr. Millikan speaking on the general theme of SCIENCE AND HUMAN AFFAIRS delivered a challenge to administrators of education. Several features of the paper met with considerable comment. Following this inspiring paper came that of Percy E. Rowell, THE RÔLE OF SCIENCE IN EDUCATION, and the reading by Nell C. Curtis, formerly connected with Teachers College, and a member of the Summer Session Faculty at the University of California in 1923, of Otis W. Caldwell's report, FACTS WHICH LED TO THE PROPOSAL OF A SIX YEARS' SCIENCE PROGRAM. A valuable suggestion from Dr. Caldwell for action by the Science Department was set aside until the business session of the Department. Dr. William E. Ritter closed the general meeting of the day with a paper on the topic, WHY TEACH SCIENCE AT ALL. An interesting angle was presented.

The meeting then adjourned for sessions of discussion. Dr. Edna W. Bailey led the group of biology teachers, Percy E. Rowell, the group of general science teachers, and C. W. Gray, the group of chemistry teachers, together with the teachers of physics, in the absence of B. W. Howard, of the Pasadena High School, Pasadena, California. Much interest was shown in the sectional meetings for discussion, as the plan was in the nature of an experiment. The success of these meetings was so pronounced as to occasion regret that more time was not available, especially since the first part of the general meeting had run over the allotted time. The encouragement is for the continuation of the discussion group plan. The meeting of the first day adjourned with the closing of the group sessions.

SECOND SESSION—THURSDAY AFTERNOON, JULY 5, 1923

The meeting was called to order by Chairman French at 2.15 o'clock. Before proceeding with the program of the day, a Nominating Committee was appointed, with instructions to report recommendations in nomination of officers of the Department of Science Instruction for the year 1923-24. The committee named was Miss

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Pearson, department of biology, Pasadena High School, Pasadena, California, (chairman); C. W. Gray, department of chemistry, Hollywood High School, Hollywood, California; and Edna W. Bailey, University High School, Oakland, California.

Edwin R. Snyder presented the first paper of the day, SCIENCE AS A COMMON HIGH SCHOOL STUDY, in which he presented the viewpoint of an administrator of education, rather than that of a scientist or teacher of science. Dr. Joel H. Hildebrand, of the department of chemistry, University of California, followed with an interesting presentation of THE RELATION BETWEEN SECONDARY AND COLLEGE SCIENCE. The issues raised were worthy of much discussion. Dr. Edna W. Bailey then supplied a plan for WHAT MAY BE DONE TO PROVIDE A FOUR YEARS' SCIENCE COURSE IN THE SMALL HIGH SCHOOL. Her program was closely linked with Dr. Caldwell's six-year plan. The paper then led to the introduction of Dr. Ritter, who was called upon to discuss science service, outline its purpose, functions, etc. The meeting adjourned for a brief recess.

Upon reconvening the meeting, Chairman French called upon Agnes S. Winn for a few words to the assembly. Miss Winn graciously accepted and outlined in brief her view of the work of the various departments of the National Education Association, and in particular of the Department of Science Instruction, and its problems, ideals, and accomplishments.

The report of the Nominating Committee was then called. The names turned in were W. L. Eikenberry, East Stroudsburg, Pennsylvania, for president; Thomas J. McCormack, Principal, La Salle-Peru Township High School, La Salle, Illinois, for vice-president; and Arthur H. French, past secretary, for reelection. By informal vote the nominations of the committee were accepted and Mr. Eikenberry, Mr. McCormack, and Mr. French elected to serve the year 1923-24.

The business session closed with a motion, carried, to appoint an Arrangements and Resolutions Committee, of five members, to consider details for next year's meeting, and at that time to present recommendations for constructive action by the Department.

The sectional meetings were even more successful than the day preceding. Total attendance, over 125 daily.

ARTHUR H. FRENCH, *Secretary.*

WORD OF GREETING FROM THE PRESIDENT OF THE DEPARTMENT

Members of the Science Section—I regret that I am forced to send this note rather than talk to you personally. First, I wish to thank all the speakers and group leaders that have helped arrange our program. It is a pleasure to realize that this program has on its list so many well-known scientists and teachers. I feel deeply indebted to them for the giving of their time and energy to these meetings.

In arranging our program we have tried to remember that this is a Science Department (not chemistry, physics, biology, or general science). We have requested our speakers to bear this in mind as well. The discussion for the individual sciences has been left for the group meetings, which are an innovation this year. We hope that you will attend as many meetings as possible.

I wish to thank those teachers who returned our questionnaires. I hope that next year's officers will be able to follow up this work. There is much available data on these questionnaires not yet compiled, but I hope to have it in shape for a future meeting. This year these questionnaires were used for three purposes only: (1) To obtain a list of science members for the

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National Education Association, (2) to guide us in the choice of topics for discussion, and (3) to obtain suggestions for speakers.

I should like to call attention to the fact—perhaps unnecessary for this section of the country—that it is through the efforts of the science teachers that the reorganization of the C. E. E. B. requirements in science, especially chemistry and physics, may be accomplished. It is also probably unnecessary to inform you that the Educational Section of the American Chemical Society has a correlation committee at work now. It would be a fine thing I think if our section might have one too. There is already a revision committee at work on the chemistry syllabus of the C. E. E. B. Prof. P. T. Walden, Yale University, is chairman, and I am certain that he will be glad to receive any suggestions you may have.

In closing I wish to thank the members of the Department for the great honor conferred upon me in making me its president for the past year. My only hope is that whoever is chosen for next year may have as energetic and as faithful a secretary to assist him as I have had in Mr. French. It is my desire that he act as president during these meetings.

Yours in the best spirit of science,

LESLIE O. JOHNSON, *President.*

NEW HAVEN, CONN.,
JUNE 21, 1923.

SCIENCE AND HUMAN AFFAIRS—ABSTRACT

ROBERT A. MILLIKAN, PRESIDENT, CALIFORNIA INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY, PASADENA, CALIFORNIA

America need not blush for our accomplishment in the matter of making outstanding improvements in the methods of science instruction within the classroom—that is, in that part of the program which the individual teacher has under his control. The so-called laboratory and demonstration method by which the pupil comes into direct first-hand contact with the phenomenon itself, instead of with a mere written description of it, is quite largely an American achievement. Europe is now rather copying us than the reverse in this matter, as she may well do. The weakness in our American situation in science lies in the organization of our high-school curriculum, in the fact that the average pupil who goes through the high school receives such a pitifully small amount of instruction in science—something which the science teacher alone is powerless to remedy. But before I go to the remedy let me first try to answer the question why the average person, man or woman, needs much more science than he gets now in the high school, and particularly more of the mathematical and physical sciences. I shall arrange my answer under four heads.

1. *Its direct utility*—If a young man goes into medicine or into any branch of biology he very soon finds that physics is a prerequisite, for the laws of physics rule in the world of life. If he goes in for engineering he must master the principles of physics before he can even make a start. If he

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wishes to be a lawyer the discipline which he gets in careful, objective reasoning and in solving knotty problems in physics is admitted on all hands to be the best possible preparation for the law which he can get. If he plans to be a salesman the product which he sells will nowadays, in nine cases out of ten, be one which involves the principles of physics for its preparation, and which demands a considerable knowledge of these principles by one who would intelligently and successfully market it. Even if one's life is to be spent in the duties of the home, these duties have so changed and expanded within a quarter-century with the introduction of new mechanical, thermal, electrical, and optical appliances that one can scarcely do housekeeping today without a considerable knowledge of the principles of mechanics, of heat, of electricity, of sound, and of light, which are precisely the categories involved in every modern course in physics.

Physics is today, therefore, universally recognized as the most fundamental of the sciences, the one which touches life most closely and most basically, the one which it is most important to know something about if a choice is to be made between the sciences.

2. *Its disciplinary value*—The study of the mathematical and physical sciences is almost unique in the opportunity which it gives to the teacher to break away entirely from the memorizing textbook method, and to begin to show his pupils, first, how to observe carefully and dispassionately, and, second, how to reason intelligently from cause to effect. It is difficult to overestimate the importance in the development of a human being of giving him an opportunity somewhere to get the habit of suspending his judgment until he has the facts fully before him, and then of finding the consequences or meaning of these facts altogether without reference to pre-conceptions of any kind. It is the chief glory of physics that it forces the student in at least one field of his acivity into habits of mental honesty. One who has had much of that discipline can scarcely be quite as ready to fool himself with specious arguments or to replace a reason by an excuse as one who has not. For one can scarcely form the habit of absolute honesty and rigid objectiveness in one department of his life without carrying over to some extent, at least, these same qualities into the other domains of his activity. From my point of view there is no training in objective, analytical thinking, nor in honesty and soundness of judgment, which is comparable to the training furnished by the physical sciences.

Again, one of the greatest contributions of science to life is the discovery that progress is in general made by the evolutionary process. Einstein does not replace Newton; he merely supplements him. There are no revolutions in science. In so far as Newtonian mechanics was a body of experimental facts it is eternally true. The whole of Newton is incorporated in Einstein. Let the revolutionary reformer ponder well that fact.

Again life presents to each of us one continuous succession of problems to be solved. The art of living is the art of problem-solving. But it is the *mathematical* and *physical sciences* which furnish the best training in that art—which lend themselves best to the problem method of instruction. It is also in these subjects that the problem method has been most fully developed.

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Every section in every good text in physics concludes with its series of problems. If these problems are skillfully set no recitations from the textbook are necessary in a course in physics, other than such as are involved in the solution in class of problems. If a pupil can solve the problems in physics he has attained to a mastery of the subject. If he cannot solve them, assuming only that the problems have been suitably set, he has no fundamental grip on the subject. A course in physics when treated at its best has but two main elements: first, the direct observation of nature in both class and laboratory, combined with a discussion of the meaning of the things observed, and second, the independent solution of problems by the pupils for the sake of driving home and putting to practical use the principles discovered. In the whole gamut of possible studies there is no discipline in straight thinking like the discipline which the sciences give.

3. *The social value of the scientific method*—The supreme question which the present generation faces is, Can we make democracy work, not merely for America, but for the world? *Can we replace bullets by ballots?* That question is being asked more searchingly and more fearfully today than it was twenty years ago. The answer to it is to be given by the young men and women whom we are training in our schools today. If an affirmative answer is found at all it will be because the nations of the earth, including our own, learn to take a more rational, a more objective, a more scientific attitude toward life and all its problems than any of them have as yet learned to take. It is literally true that a good many individuals are still in the jungle so far as their method of meeting life's problems, so far as the mainsprings of their conduct are concerned. For in the jungle ignorance and prejudice and impulse and emotion must determine conduct, and so long as that is the case none other save the law of the jungle is possible. It is because of the scientific method and what it has done already that scientists dare to hope that the law of the jungle can ultimately be displaced by the law of reason, not only in our domestic affairs but in our international ones as well. It is because of it that scientists in general believe that human life may be indefinitely enriched and human happiness enormously multiplied.

4. *The need in science of the American public school*—The foregoing points of view have been held and expressed by hundreds of thoughtful men from Herbert Spencer down, but the American public-school system has not yet succeeded in placing the teaching of science in the public schools in a position which realizes for the pupil the full advantages which should accrue from his course in science. Indeed the crying need of the whole American people today is for better training in scientific methods of thought and a broader knowledge of scientific principles. If we had these we should be less a people of fads and cults and isms, less a prey to fakirs, mountebanks, and demogogues of all kinds. . . . .

If, then, there is at present too little training in science in our schools, what is the remedy? The one which I would suggest is contained in the report of a committee of the Science Club [1] apointed to consider the content

[1] Science Club, Annie Louise Macleod, chairman, Department of Chemistry, Vassar College, Poughkeepsie, N. Y.

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of a three-year course in science for preparatory schools. This report recommends a continuous three-year course, for students who wish to take it, in physics, chemistry, and biology, these three sciences being taught in parallel through the whole of the last three years of the high-school course, the first year involving two hours per week in biology, two in physics, and one in chemistry; the second, one in biology, two in physics, and two in chemistry; and the third year, two in biology, one in physics, and two in chemistry. The texts used would be those now available, so that no fundamental reconstruction of the courses in the individual sciences would be necessary. The committee summarizes the advantages of such a plan as follows:[1]

a. Most students who took science at all would have a continuous, systematic, progressive three-year course in the fundamentals of sciences. Students might of course drop out after one or two years, but would do so with the knowledge that they had not completed their scientific education.

b. Pupils would begin both the physical and biological sciences near the beginning of their high-school course at the age when their minds are most alert and eager for such work.

c. The utterly ridiculous situation of the most fundamental of the sciences, physics, being pushed off to the last year of the high school would be at an end, and this change would not be made at the expense of biology, but greatly to its advantage.

d. The physical and biological studies would supplement each other through three years of the pupil's growth, thus gaining for all of them the very great advantage of a "time-exposure." Incidentally all the advantages now claimed for general science, such as the breaking down of the "water-tight" partitions between the sciences, would be gained without the loss of a year of time and without the necessity of a reconstruction of courses in the individual sciences.

e. The advantage to mathematics of being taught to students who were having or had had enough of physics to make its concrete imagery available for the mathematics course would be very great.

f. The days of tabloid science in American secondary schools would be at an end and one of the chief evils of American education in science, *i. e.*, lack of any intelligent organization, would have been corrected.

The foregoing program is one which the individual science teacher is powerless to carry out. If anything is done in this direction it will be by those who are responsible for the organization of the curriculum in our secondary schools.

[1] See also *School and Society*, Vol. 3, p. 162, 1916.

THE RÔLE OF SCIENCE IN EDUCATION—ABSTRACT

PERCY E. ROWELL, HEAD OF INDUSTRIAL SCIENCE DEPARTMENT
TECHNICAL HIGH SCHOOL, OAKLAND, CALIFORNIA

The science teacher must aid science in establishing its rôle in education. Unfortunately, too much of our work in the schools, and especially in the grades below the high school, is to a great extent disconnected and unorganized. Courses tend to become a series of facts—dates, names, methods, and explanations only slightly related to one another. Science, if it plays its rôle well in such schools may serve as an organizing agent.

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No science course is worthy of the name of science unless it be taught through the use of a laboratory. In our endeavor to produce rich and varied courses we have established the textbook habit, not emphasizing the fact that the real and direct truth lies only in the thing and not in that which represents the thing—the textbook.

This direct approach to the truth is not the only value of the laboratory as educational means. The opportunities which it offers for motor activity should not be ignored. The fine correlation between mind and muscle, especially in connection with the acquisition of the whole truth, must serve, as can no other factor in education, to develop the whole pupil in a harmonious manner.

Science work may, if properly handled, become the most effective single factor in a child's education in producing an open-mindedness. Prejudices, preconceived ideas and narrowness of mind in general can not long endure in the presence of the scientific spirit. In addition to the search for the whole truth the attempt is always made in science to generalize truths as a matter of mental economy. The close relationship between cause and effect, the interdependence of the forces of nature, the usefulness of every part of science, and its many applications to matters of daily and vital interest lead easily to the development of the moral sense and a more complete social consciousness.

The rôle which science may play in education is three-fold: It has a child's part in the grades, an adolescent's part in the high school, while in the college and university it shows its true character and becomes the great leader and master.

The rôle of science in the grades is to give immediate benefit and pleasure. Naturally, it would be impossible to create an appreciation of science in the grades without preparing in the best possible way for the science of the high school, but the actual preparation, in the narrow sense, should not be considered at all. There is so much material of daily value in science, so much that may make life fuller and happier at once, that the rôle of science in the grades is certainly a child's rôle. Science should introduce the child to the world of phenomena around him and open the doors to the possibilities of a larger self.

The course of study in the grades should consist of the phenomena of the environment, the science of daily life, the science of common things. It should begin when school begins and never end; it should be one of the great divisions of the curriculum. The methods of teaching must necessarily change from year to year and vary also within the different classes and sections of classes. Nevertheless, the chief guiding factor in the science work should be to produce those most desirable traits and characteristics which have been mentioned—openmindedness, the scientific attitude of mind, the harmonious education of the whole child to fit him to take his place in a civilized world.

In the high school, the child is beginning to prepare for life, to earn a living and become an independent economic unit. Science, then, should here play the part of a guide for the adolescent; should stimulate those who may

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be suited for college work to strive to understand a more advanced rôle; but chiefly should science endeavor to interest the larger group of pupils who must become ready for life at the end of high school. No matter what the work of the pupil may be, whereby he expects to earn a living, it will be accomplished better if he has had a proper amount of science, and science of the right kind. If science is to function to the highest degree in modern life it must function through the large mass of people. Better for the world that a thousand persons know a moderate amount of science than that a few know a great deal while the thousand know nothing. There will always be the few who know the great deal; we must see that the thousand know as much as possible. So the plea is made for complete courses of science in the high school—not preparatory courses in which much of the material can not function except with the acquisition of further knowledge of science, but courses which, although limited in scope, are suited to the needs of the high-school pupils, and are ends in themselves, complete and satisfying to the individuals and to society.

In a narrower sense science has a preparatory rôle to play. Industry demands skilled workers because we demand a high type of industrial work. To the skilled worker we owe a large share of our enjoyment of modern life, its conveniences, and its pleasures. Industrial science courses are needed that industry may reach to still higher levels. These industrial science courses must be chiefly concerned with the applications of science to the various industries. Under no circumstances can industrial science courses, limited by their very applications, rich and varied as they are, be college-preparatory courses.

The student has been used to science playing the rôle of a friendly guide, stimulating friend and helpful assistant; now in college science plays the rôle of the master, kind but exacting. Gone are the days of childhood methods; now comes man's work. Yet even in college science plays a double rôle—research and applied, investigation and engineering. Nevertheless it is the same science, for there never was an investigation in science, with positive results, which did not soon have practical applications. The value of research in science lies in the fact that the results are practical; the research laboratory is the forerunner of the industry; let us not be prone to belittle the efforts of those engaged in research merely because their personal aims do not happen to be the practical applications of science.

The measure of the value of the rôle of science in the various divisions of school life must be in the subjective changes which take place in the pupils—a change the hardest to evaluate. The cost of science courses should not be measured by the actual expenditure of money and energy required to present them in an efficient manner, but credit must be given these courses for the changes which take place in the pupils, changes which are of benefit to them in their other studies. Educationally there should be a great economy in teaching science, since teaching in all the other subjects will become easier than without science, and there will tend to be less repetition. Pedagogically there is a great saving because of the opportunities for better teaching. Habits of thought are established which are readily carried over into other studies.

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Financially, then, the question is not concerned with the actual cost of the science courses, but is related to the total cost of all the curriculum, including science, as compared with the total cost of the curriculum without science.

CONSIDERATIONS WHICH LED TO THE PROPOSAL OF A SIX-YEAR SCIENCE SEQUENCE

OTIS W. CALDWELL, THE LINCOLN SCHOOL OF TEACHERS COLLEGE
COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

The report of the National Commission on Reorganization of courses in science for secondary schools was published in 1920, as Bulletin 26 of the U. S. Bureau of Education. The report is the work of 47 science teachers representing all geographic parts of the country, all science subjects and includes those who have given much attention to the use of science in education. The chairman of the Science Department of the National Education Association has asked that an outline be prepared regarding the factors which led to the development of the science sequence which are recommended in the report. It is not possible in short space to discuss all the factors, but the outstanding ones will be presented. It is assumed that science teachers now generally have in mind the various sequences recommended in the report referred to, since the report has been distributed in tens of thousands, and has been discussed in meetings of science teachers throughout the whole country.

Possibly the most potent single factor operating to direct attention to the reorganization of science courses, is the fact that educated people some years ago began to realize the inconsistency *between living in a scientific age,* and *not having much living science* in the educational programs of pupils in school. Science won the plaudits of "the common man" many years ago. Science had grown into many special sciences, each with large returns to the welfare of men. Science had enlisted the interests of many capable students; it had begun to supply interesting interpretations of everyday problems; it had laid the foundations for the practical sciences of agriculture, horticulture, gardening, engineering, household arts, and the industries; it had established the methods of research for many important lines of human endeavor; it had opened a new kind of nature vision for the almost extinct naturalist of old, and had begun to create a new generation of naturalists; magazines and books about meaningful science began to appear, and people wished for more of them.

During this great growth of science in research and in affairs, science in the schools had changed but slowly. Indeed, the very necessary development of highly refined science in research was accepted as the guide and standard of the science to be taught in the schools. There thus arose the anomalous situation of a hitherto unprecedented and worthy development of science in research, which was closely accompanied by and probably the cause of a proportionate reduction of acomplishment of results through science instruction

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in the schools. This condition was one of the factors held in mind and needing to be changed by those who sought to develop an improved science sequence in the schools.

A second factor relates to the unrelated content, methods, and objectives of the different science courses of twenty years ago. If physics, chemistry, botany, zoology, physiography, human physiology, and other science subjects were all offered in a given school system as sometimes occurred, students could take any of these courses without reference to whether they had taken any other science courses. It was not uncommon, and the situation exists today in some schools, where the pupils who compose a class in physics may come from three of the four high-school years, some having had three years of work in science, some having had no previous work in science, and some having had but one year of high-school work in any high-school subjects other than science. The absurdity of such a situation is shown by imagining the same kind of composition of classes in English, Latin, or mathematics. Those subjects are recognized as having a cumulative and sequential development in which certain topics are contributed to by other precedent topics. Obviously our various high-school sciences have not reached the point of yearly and successive relationships shown by the subjects named above. Possibly they may not prosper best by such intimate interrelationships. Surely studying one year of science should help in a second year's work, and some kinds of science topics are foundational to other types of science topics. If this is true definite recognition should be made of it, and sequential relationships should be used and developed as far as experience and experiment may justify.

Another factor arose through the experimentation of many science teachers, in various parts of the country. These teachers were dissatisfied with the earlier years of high-school work. They set themselves the task of developing introductory courses which would be more interesting and more instructive to pupils in the early high-school years. These teachers were working independently and in different ways, but their purposes were similar.

Naturally some of these teachers used one high-school subject as the basis of their course, others used another course. Almost every science subject which was known in the high schools appeared in one place or another as the basis of the introductory course. Sometimes the introductory course was used as a sort of preparation for the later and more rigid course in the same subject. Usually it was desired to give a good introductory course without regard to what would follow.

The rediscovery and adoption of a fundamental principle in the psychology of science teaching proved to be one of the most potent factors in laying the foundation for the courses in the science sequence. Due to the influence upon school courses of study of the able scientific research of renowned scientists, the secondary school courses had come to consist of extreme refinements and details which could not be grasped by any but exceptional students. When we begin our science studies, it is easy to see large units of science and

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to understand their major uses in modern life. If our studies are continued, they result in more and more details being learned. These details help to improve our first large notions of the science units, and help in appreciation of their significance to men. If our refinements in study are continued long enough we may even become scholarly, possibly productive research workers in some of the topics, or in some special branch of scientific study.

Such a psychological foundation is that upon which the science sequence is based. The broad topical courses are first general science, then the biological sciences; the more specialized course—chemistry and physics—coming later and presupposing the foundation in point of view, interest, and knowledge which are gained in the early courses.

It so happens that the materials of the foundational course are not made new, as has sometimes been supposed. They come from courses which were already being used in one or another system of schools. A little reflection will show that twenty years ago, the earliest high-school years included short courses in several science subjects: physiology, physiography, hygiene, elementary physics, occasionally biology. The topically organized introductory course now in common use was composed of the significant elements of all these brief courses in the special sciences. And, by using the topical basis of organization, the general course thus found a true basis for including the various desirable elements of the several previously proposed special introductory courses. Of infinitely more importance, however, is the fact that the topical plan of organization provided a truly psychological basis for teaching in the introductory science course. The success of the general course is evidence of its effectiveness. More pupils now study general science than studied all the special sciences in high schools before general science was introduced. And, the increased interest in the special sciences is shown by the fact that more pupils are studying the special sciences than before general science was introduced.

Success of the introductory course is one of the factors in establishing a sequence of science subjects. Probably the most important single factor in organization of the science sequence exists in the fact that the sequence really works in schools where it has been tried. Indeed it was developed through trial, not as the too common office-made device. There are now thousands of high schools using the plan of sequence as outlined in the U. S. Bureau of Education, Bulletin 26, 1920. The plan there recommended and now so widely in use was reported and formulated by a committee of 47 science teachers. This committee represented all parts of the United States, and all high-school science subjects. The committee studied the experiments then under way in various part of the country, and held sectional and National conferences over a period of seven years. Its report represents practice and combined judgment, not personal opinion. No member of the committee of 47 regards the report as wholly satisfactory, but it is agreed that the sequences recommended and the types of course content and methods set forth are those most useful in the present stage of evolution of secondary science instruction. Still further advances will be necessary quite

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soon, and it would not be out of point to have another committee continue the study with the hope of having a revised report, say ten years after the appearance of Bulletin 26. There are progressive teachers who are already in advance of many of the detailed recommendations of the National Commission on Reorganization of Secondary Science. Some authorized group should study the actual classroom procedures in such progressive science work, with the expectation of giving all teachers the benefit of serious experimentation.

WHY TEACH SCIENCE AT ALL?—ABSTRACT

WILLIAM E. RITTER, DIRECTOR, SCRIPPS INSTITUTION FOR BIOLOGICAL RESEARCH, LA JOLLA, CALIFORNIA, AND PRESIDENT OF SCIENCE SERVICE, WASHINGTON, D. C.

The right answer to the question of why we teach science must be part and parcel of the right answer to the question of why we teach any subject whatever. My reply to this question is that the reason is the same, only stronger, as that for which we ourselves learn anything. And the reason why we ourselves learn is off the same piece as the reason why we eat. We strive for food in order to live, and we strive for knowledge in order to live *better* than we could live on food alone. And we teach our children not only that they may live better than they could were we merely to feed them, but that they may live better than we ourselves live. There is no better test of the ideals and competency of people than what they desire their children to be and what they do to help them be what it is desired they should be.

We have heard much latterly about humanizing all sorts of things. Particularly insistent has been the demand that natural science and industry should be made more human—more humane. That these two forces, which have secured to man of the present age material benefits, the magnitude and perfection of which no previous age has seen anything remotely comparable, are not contributing to the aggregate of human welfare and happiness at all commensurately with their real ability thus to contribute, is surely gaining recognition even though less rapidly than some would wish.

With the demand for the enlarged human usefulness not only of science and industry, but of all man's special activities, I am in hearty accord. What I would fix the attention of investigators and teachers of science upon is the fact, demonstrable, I believe, that such humanization, to be thorough-going must rest upon a clearer perception than has yet been reached of the nature of the bond between life and knowledge. That the operations involved in getting and using knowledge, send their roots down to the very deepest processes of life itself is a truth that is being revealed little at a time by researches upon living nature, all of which go to show that in all situations of our waking lives we are beset by vastly more stimuli to which we ought not to respond than stimuli to which we ought to respond. Or, stating the

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matter still more trenchantly, during all our active lives, there are very many more possibilities of doing the wrong thing than the right thing.

So far as concerns genetic endowment for responding to stimuli we are not much better off when at the summit of life efficiency than on the day we are born. Indeed in one respect we are worse off—in respect, namely, to the number of stimuli to which we are subject. The broader the scope of our normal activity the greater the total number of contacts, and consequently the more extensive and complex the number of stimuli from which we must select those to which we will respond and eliminate those to which we will not respond. And greatly important is it to notice that always, as to a considerable number of the stimuli to which we are subject, response would mean disaster even to the death.

The significance of mind and intelligence in the world, and concomitantly, of learning and teaching, can be fully grasped only when seen as means not merely of realizing the lofty ideals of life but of saving life. The intellect of man is the salvation of man *as man,* in contrast to his salvation as brute animal.

And knowledge is the pilot-house equipment—charts, compass, sextant, steering-gear, directions for navigation—that enables us to be indeed captains of our souls. By it are we able to bring our craft to one port of destination after another, holding a safe course all the time among the numberless chances of going wrong, even into shipwreck.

Knowledge is not power. Of itself it is utterly inert, passive. One may know the multiplication table, including the twelves, so that he may say it backward as well as forward, without applying even so much as the twos to coming safely through any life-or-death situation.

All the actual powers of life belong to the realm of emotion—passion. The muscles and glands, and not the brain, are what do the real work of life. The brain has no power of moving even itself, to say nothing of moving other objects.

So my summing up is in my opening words: Our reason for acquiring knowledge is only an extension of our reason for acquiring food. We acquire food and eat in order to live at all. We acquire knowledge and use it in order to live more effectively, more securely, more loftily, more happily than we could live on food alone.

Similarly our reason for teaching the young is only an extension of our reason for feeding them. We feed them in order that their bodies may utilize the food for the maintenance of life and for bodily development. And we teach them in order that their spirits may utilize knowledge for the maintenance and development of their spiritual lives. The most anxious, best intentioned, wisest parent or teacher in the world can no more substitute her own spirit for the children's spirits by teaching them than she can substitute her own for the children's bodies by feeding them.

When we come to see the real nature of the problem of knowledge, it looms before us more vast than ever. And concomitantly, the importance of the distinction between common and scientific knowledge, great though it is from a technological standpoint, fades almost to nothingness from the

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standpoint of the total interests of human life at its best, and as one grand whole.

Research in science is the most refined and highest form of life-saving and life-promoting manual labor; and teaching science is the most refined, most deeply vital form of help given the young to enable them to profit most by the fruits of such labor, and to use most successfully their own powers to the same ends for which such labor is performed.

RELATION BETWEEN COLLEGE AND SECONDARY SCHOOL SCIENCE

JOEL H. HILDEBRAND, DEPARTMENT OF CHEMISTRY, UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA, BERKELEY, CALIFORNIA

For a long time the high-school curriculum was dominated by college-entrance requirements. With the large increase, however, in the number of high-school students who do not expect to go to college, it has been reasonable for those interested in the improvement of secondary-school instruction to re-examine and remodel their courses, in order to serve best the needs of the majority of their pupils. This has brought about a declaration of independence from domination by the college to such an extent that it is now often assumed that the two purposes are distinct, and that a course of study designed to prepare for college is necessarily unsuited for ordinary high-school use. It has even been asserted by a group of eminent schoolmen, in whose deliberations the voice of the college was practically absent, that the college should be satisfied with whatever preparation the high school sees fit to give. It is particularly gratifying, therefore, that you have invited a university man to discuss before you the relationship between science in the secondary school and in the college. It is doubtless characteristic of those interested in science to be more openminded and to mistrust that the truth is necessarily in accord with natural prejudice.

The primary aim of any science teacher, whether in school or college, is to teach science. I say science, not a science, for science is a method, a point of view, a way of ascertaining truth. It can be applied to yield results in one field or another, in chemistry, in physics, in biology, but it is far more important for the student to get some understanding of the method than to memorize a lot of its results. Good instruction in carpentry, for example, would certainly consist in teaching the apprentice how a good carpenter works, and in securing sufficient practice on his part to develop skill in the use of the tools of the trade. The instructor would not present a chair to his pupil and say to him, "See, here is something a carpenter has made for you, take it and sit in it. Consider how important chairs are for the welfare of mankind and what part this plays in the government of a democracy." This sounds quite absurd, does it not, and yet are we not all of us guilty of a certain amount of such teaching of science? We say, "Here is a textbook of chem-

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istry, it was written by an authority upon the subject, take it and study the first 20 pages. These pages include a discussion of water and we will devote especial attention to the problem of a city water supply because this has to do with government and you must all be trained to become good citizens."

It requires no great familiarity with science to recognize in such teaching little relation to the scientific spirit and method. The teacher whose tests call for the mere reproduction of facts, definitions and proofs handed down from the seat of authority is not teaching science, and I doubt whether the substitution of so-called problems in citizenship for training in scientific thinking will give rise to more enlightened citizens, or indeed, whether it is altogether honest to fail to teach science in a course given in the name of science.

Among the famous "Cardinal Principles" in secondary education I find mention of such excellent aims as the training of body and of character, training for citizenship, the development of power of appreciation, but I find no mention of training the mind, the thing for which higher schools were first established. We hear it said that the mind cannot be trained in any general sense. Strange, indeed, that the character, the body, the sense of beauty can all be trained, but not the mind. Such a conclusion could not be reached by a scientist, for he knows that the method of science is more or less general, that the principles of experimentation, of observation, and of induction are not limited in their application, and that in spite of the supposed impossibility of transfer from one field to another there exist numerous examples of scientists, such as Pasteur and Helmholtz, who have ranged at will from one field of science to another. I can hardly believe that anyone present, unless here by mistake, fails to recognize in science a set of tools wherewith all sorts of things may be constructed, and all sorts of problems solved, so that a pupil trained in their use receives an element of education of very general significance.

There is surely no element of education which is of more importance. Although we live in a generation which would be quite unwilling to dispense with the results of science, the great majority of the people are highly unscientific in their thinking. A high grade newspaper in an educated community finds readers for a regular feature upon astrology; people buy patent medicines because of a testimonial from some alleged user who got well after taking the remedy; young ladies choose a variety of facial paint by reason of the attached name of some screen beauty; political parties win votes by the aid of platforms that have nothing to do with an expert and truthful analysis of governmental problems; people buy newspapers that cater to their prejudices rather than present the facts impartially; oil companies are able to sell oil and gasoline upon the basis of slogans like "more miles to the gallon" and "resists heat," but they need give no actual physical data in support of their claims; even university professors who teach the "humanities" have given us little scientific material upon the nature of man and his social experience such as would serve in planning for his future.

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Illustrations such as the above might be multiplied by the hundred. They indicate the need for scientific thinking on the part of the high-school graduate no less than the graduate of the university. We who are teaching in institutions of the respective classes should make a united attack, should we not, upon the ignorance, superstition, and prejudice which controls so much of human conduct? We are the prophets of the new order, and we have a unique opportunity to improve the condition of humanity.

There is no important difference, is there, between high school and college students in the need for clear thinking? Is it necessary to plan different courses for students who do and do not expect to enter college? I, for one, see no reason for such an opinion. To set out upon different paths in this regard means injustice to at least one group of pupils. Both groups need all possible practice in planning and performing experiments, and I wish to emphasize the planning—in observing accurately, not what the book and the teacher say they ought to see, but what they actually do see; and in drawing correct conclusions from their observations. All of this calls for the most skillful kind of teaching by teachers who have had far more education than is given by acquaintance with the current educational opinions, teachers who are interested in science with a contagious enthusiasm, who themselves keep some contact with the advance in science. Both high school and university students have a right to be taught by instructors who are vitally interested in the subject and in science, and it is a tragic fact that they often fail, in both places, to find such teachers.

Because I advocate an aim in the teaching of science that transcends the subject matter, I would not leave the impression that the aim is likely to be achieved apart from some particular discipline. A course in general science *might* be one of the most valuable in the entire curriculum, but those I have visited have usually impressed me as utterly failing to give any idea of what science is or how its results are achieved. I find the pupils usually reciting encyclopedic scraps of information. To teach general science one should have a good knowledge of physics, chemistry, and biology, with a university training in one of them achieved with distinction.

The best training, I think, is usually given in a course in some definite branch of science, especially those like physics and chemistry, that have got beyond the stage of mere classification and have a large body of theory. Nature study develops observation and appreciation and adds infinitely to the joy of living, but nature study alone does not offer the foundation for later scientific training and thinking that can be given through such subjects as those first named.

You say, perhaps, are you not neglecting the subject matter, necessary to pass college entrance examinations, on the one hand, or to understand the phenomena of every-day life, on the other? I reply, first, that plenty of subject matter will belong with the training in scientific method as wood goes with carpentry, and that it sticks much better, in my experience, because it is related to general theories, principles or points of view. I reply, second, that no particular set of facts, among the myriads that might be studied, are

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of unique importance. I have no particular difficulty in getting my students to learn sufficient facts. I hand them out, as a sort of side line. The difficulty comes when I ask them to plan an experiment that would enable them to decide whether iodine or ferric chloride, in certain concentrations, is the stronger oxidizing agent; or when I ask what conclusions can be drawn from the kinetic theory concerning the presence of a second gas upon the solubility of the first. They easily learn that sulphur is yellow, but they are mystified when I ask them to solve problems by logical process without the bookish formula. They get into trouble because they cannot understand the English language and give answers that do not apply to the questions asked. Drill and discipline of the sort necessary to overcome these difficulties would be of great value, would it not, to any student whose responsibilities in life will require clear, independent thinking based upon the accurate use of language?

Some, again, may say, "But what about training the student who does not go to college for his vocation in life, for this is one of the cardinal principles of secondary school practice." Very well, if you are seeking to train your students for useful occupations, what would you do, introduce courses in haircutting, plumbing, baking? These are useful and important vocations. But how many of your students will follow in after life the vocation learned at school? Even university graduates, in very large proportions, make their living by vocations which were not their subjects of major study in college.

The student of agriculture becomes a merchant. What has the university done for him in teaching him how apples are packed for shipment? It has wasted his time, has it not? What has the high-school teacher done for the student in chemistry if he requires him to learn the details of sugar refining? The student probably will never work in a sugar refinery, and if he does, the refinery will quickly teach him more about sugar refining than the high-school teacher can ever hope to find out.

On the other hand, the student who learns all he can about the principles of chemistry has something that can be applied in a hundred different vocations, something his employer cannot teach him, and something that will, to a greater or less extent, improve his mental operations in general. Is not this the best sort of vocational training? I think it is the kind of training needed by all high-school graduates, whether they go to college or not.

I have been interested in the widespread use of the so-called project method, which indicated that you regard it as filling the needs of the average high-school pupil. I see no need here for division between us, for, properly done, I am sure it can provide excellent preparation for later college work. In our department extensive use is made of the privilege of under-graduate research by those students whose capacity and interest justifies the opportunity. This is the project method, if you like the term.

I would add only one word of caution, to choose "projects" which have possibilities of real development for the student, and to inject into them enough hard problems to test the mettle of the student. Remember that

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the things the students plan for themselves, their games, and stunts, are not made interesting by being made easy, nor is the road to interest in science the road of mental indolence. That is the idea of a played-out adult mind, not the mind of an adolescent.

The students whom I like to have you send into my class, and whom, I am glad to say, many of you do send in considerable numbers, are interested in science, are able to think and speak accurately, and are able to make some use of the scientific method. I could name some high-school teachers who are brilliantly successful in training such pupils for college work. I am not aware, either, that they teach with a different aim those pupils who do not intend to go to college. I leave it to you to judge whether these latter pupils have suffered in any way.

Am I asking for a college preparation which differs from the standard? If I am, I sincerely hope you will ignore the standard in all good conscience. Am I asking for a college preparation which is unsuited for the pupil who does not go to college? Is it a preparation different from that which is your own ideal? These questions I cannot answer for you. But if your answer is "No," then I believe that the relation between college and secondary school science can be one of happy and growing coöperation in a task that has immense possibilities for human happiness and welfare. We can, if we will, teach so that our pupils will go forth better fitted to discern the truth and with greater love for it, and moreover, we can together perform the inestimable service to mankind of saving for scientific careers those choice minds that now and then come into our classes and who are capable, if not lost into more selfish vocations, of piercing the mists of ignorance that lie about us so that mankind may follow after them towards its salvation.

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Department of Secondary Education

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

OAKLAND MEETING

OFFICERS

President—E. E. CRAWFORD, Principal Idaho Falls High School.....Idaho Falls, Idaho
Vice-President—R. R. COOK, Topeka High School.....Topeka, Kansas
Secretary—FANNIE W. MCLEAN, Vice-Principal, Berkeley High School....Berkeley, California

FIRST SESSION—MONDAY AFTERNOON, JULY 2, 1923

The Department of Secondary Education of the National Education Association opened its sessions on Monday afternoon, July 2, at two o'clock, in the Civil Service Room, City Hall, San Francisco. In the absence of both the president and the vice-president, Fannie W. McLean, the secretary presided. The following program was presented:

THE PRESENT OBJECTIVES OF SECONDARY EDUCATION—C. E. Rugh, Department of Education, University of California.

HIGH SCHOOL LIBRARIES—Crystal Harford, University High School, Oakland, California.

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION AND ITS RELATION TO SECONDARY SCHOOLS—E. R. Snyder, Commissioner of Vocational Education, Sacramento, California.

Dr. C. H. Judd, Director, School of Education, University of Chicago, was to have given an address on "The Place of the Social Sciences in the Curriculum of the High Schools," but was prevented from attending by committee business in Oakland.

SECOND SESSION—THURSDAY AFTERNOON, JULY 5, 1923

Fannie W. McLean, Presiding

THE PROBLEM OF INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES IN STUDENTS AND SCHOOL COUNSELING—Virgil E. Dickson, Director of Research and Guidance, Public Schools of Oakland and Berkeley, California.

SECONDARY SCHOOL COUNSELING BASED ON SCIENTIFIC TESTS—C. L. Biedenbach, Principal, Berkeley High School, Berkeley, California.

THE SOCIAL LIFE OF THE HIGH SCHOOL AND SOME OF ITS PROBLEMS—Harriet Hayes, Dean of Girls, University High School, Oakland, California.

REORGANIZATION OF ATHLETICS IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS—Herbert R. Stolz, M. D., State Commissioner of Physical Education, Sacramento, California.

BUSINESS MEETING

At the business session officers were elected for the ensuing year as follows: *President*, C. L. Biedenbach, Principal, Berkeley High School, Berkeley, California; *Vice-President*, Mary Harris, Central High School, Minneapolis, Minnesota; and *Secretary*, Lillian Johnson, Lincoln High School, Seattle, Washington.

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THIRD SESSION—FRIDAY AFTERNOON, JULY 6, 1923

JOINT SESSION WITH CALIFORNIA HIGH SCHOOL TEACHERS ASSOCIATION

Mr. H. M. Rebok, Presiding

This session was held in conjunction with the California High School Teachers Association, and the program consisted of reports from members of the Committee of Fifteen of that Association. The President of the California High School Teachers Association, H. M. Rebok, superintendent of schools, Santa Monica, California, presided at this session. The following program was presented:

SOME ASPECTS OF SECONDARY EDUCATION IN CALIFORNIA—C. E. Rugh, Professor of Education, University of California, Berkeley, California, Acting Chairman of Committee of Fifteen.

UNIT TEACHING COSTS IN CALIFORNIA HIGH SCHOOLS—Robert J. Teall, Principal, High School, Madera, California.

EDUCATIONAL IMPLICATIONS OF THE SOCIAL PROGRAM OF THE HIGH SCHOOL—Sarah M. Sturtevant, Associate in Education, University of California, Berkeley, California.

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION IN CALIFORNIA—E. A. Lee, Acting Director, Division of Vocational Education, University of California, Berkeley, California.

At Monday's meeting, July 2, Dr. E. R. Snyder, Commissioner of Vocational Education, Sacramento, California, delivered an address on "Vocational Education and Its Relation to Secondary Schools." He said in substance: "Vocational education cannot be considered in the category of school subjects in general. The great problem is how to keep all schooling from being merely school subject work.

"The greatest school development in industry has come in the last fifty years. Development in modern industry in this century is greater than in all time put together, both in the production of raw material, and of foodstuffs, and in the manufacture of these and their transportation. The recent development in industry runs parallel with the development of the modern higher institution of learning into a new kind of vocational school. Modern engineering and modern industry have developed hand in hand.

"There are certain vocations taught in high schools where apprenticeship has entirely disappeared. Can the secondary school do for vocational education for the skilled craftsmen and foremen what the college and university does for the engineer? There are certain limitations as to what vocational education can do in a secondary school. Conditions should be more like industry in order to turn out better work. The problem of vocational education in its relation to secondary education is larger than the problem of training a man for a job.

"Education for citizenship consists in training an individual for his work and for his social contacts. So education for a vocation and education for social life are the two fundamental aims in the new kind of education in secondary schools. The contribution of man to civilization is through his education and social contacts. Every subject in school should contribute to one or the other of these things. The whole problem of secondary education needs reconstruction. The curriculum of the high school keeps on repeating itself, regardless of its needs."

Professor C. E. Rugh, Department of Education, University of California, Berkeley, California, delivered an address on "The Present Objectives of Secondary Education." He said in substance: "Consciousness is the ability and disposition of the whole organization to act now in the interest of the future. Objectives are visions of consequences that determine present deliberations, and bring deliberation to an end by according an adequate standpoint for overt action. Objectives are obtained through habits, knowledge, and aptitudes. Every subject in secondary schools should be a subject in biography. Every subject should make an opening for biography."

Miss Crystal Harford, University High School, Oakland, California, spoke as follows on "High School Libraries":

"I am not a librarian, only a high-school teacher. This talk is in the nature of an appreciation for effective aid and help rendered by the library.

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"The library is to the school what the hearthside is to the home. The contrast between libraries in the school of twenty years ago and the library in the school of today is great. The old library had but a single table, with a few books around the walls, the room was very small. The library of today is altogether different. The main entrance of one of the new schools opens in front of the library doors. The library has many windows, some opening one side into the open air court, with doors connecting with the study halls.

"If the children have proper training in the school library, it helps to the development of their use of their leisure time. There is an apparent apathy and lack of interest in the library displayed by teachers. The teachers should try to attract students to the library. Students after enjoying the library often become eager collectors. The city and county libraries together with the school libraries are doing great work through coöperation."

Dr. Herbert R. Stolz, M. D., State Commissioner of Physical Education, Sacramento, California, gave a most vital and interesting address on "Reorganization of Athletics in Secondary Schools." He said in substance: "We feel that although the word physical education is not an ideal word, we are trying to do away with the difference between physical education and athletics. So long as there is a difference made between someone to coach teams and someone to meet the law we are not going 'to get the bear.'

"School people in general and citizens in general recognize that if you ask the outstanding criticism of athletics now conducted, it comes back. 'The few have the benefit if there is benefit, and the many do not.' Principals and many teachers face the problem of social activities with earnestness.

"To state definitely a program of education in the community is to recognize the social advertising value of athletics. Doing a thing when the decision is hard is character.

"Principals should have the understanding with school boards and physical directors, that the director is there to lead and train boys and he is going to be judged by the health and social adjustment instead of the success of a winning coach.

"You can get a tradition of loyalty in school which is effective in all phases of education, if the older boys feel that they are interested in what the school does three or four years from now. They will help the younger boys by taking the leadership. (Here was given an elaborate plan of interschool athletics—how the points are divided between the schools and classes.)

"Unfortunately, in the case of athletics, sometimes we would sacrifice social objectives and health objectives for community objectives of interest."

Friday's meeting, July 6, was a joint session with the California High School Teachers Association, and was given over to addresses from members to the California Committee of Fifteen. Miss Sarah M. Sturtevant, associate in education, University of California, Berkeley, California, spoke on "Educational Implications of the Social Program of the High School." Professor C. E. Rugh in speaking on "Secondary Education in California" said: "There are four base lines on which to construct education: The subject to be taught; the nature and needs; the size; ability of the individual learning. The subjects taught in the junior high school afford an opportunity for children to find themselves. The best junior high school offers sciences, foreign languages, and pre-vocational work of all kinds. It has been shown that 100 per cent take English one year, and 90 per cent two years; 37 per cent take mathematics; 47 take science, and 45 per cent take Latin. It is found that there is no study of vocational opportunities on the part of school or children. 53 per cent follow professions; 10 per cent Greek; 6 per cent homes; 1 per cent transportation, as life service. On a school day 29.2 per cent of time is spent in school; 35 per cent of time is unapportioned. During the week 16.4 per cent of time is spent in school; 7 per cent at home; 34.4 in sleep; 40.8 per cent is unaccounted for."

Robert J. Teall, Principal, High School, Madera, California, in speaking of "Unit Teaching Costs in California High Schools" said: "Unit costs depend to an important extent on the size of classes, and in small high schools small classes

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are probably inevitable. But part of the difficulty of the small high school arises from the fact that its curriculum is often organized in imitation of those of larger schools and is not well adapted to local needs.

"For example, commercial subjects occupy an important place in the majority of these small rural high schools. The median percentage of the teaching budget devoted to commercial instruction in these schools is 22 per cent, about twice as high a percentage as appears in high schools of any other size. Numerous classes in commercial branches in small high schools enrol but from one to five students. Economy and good administration suggest the elimination of some of this instruction, or at least the offering of such classes only in alternate years.

"The chief hope for a reduction of credit unit costs for teachers' salaries then seems to lie: (1) In the reduction in certain subjects of the number of recitation periods per week per credit unit; (2) in certain increases in size of classes, or the elimination of very small classes; (3) in some instances in the increase of number of classes per teacher per week above the number previously considered the maximum desirable."

E. A. Lee, acting director, Division of Vocational Education, University of California, Berkeley, California, told of vocational education in California:

"The work life of an individual is almost as important as the married life of an individual. A man lives with his work as many hours as he lives with his wife, and many of the same problems will arise in both cases. No one who thinks seriously wishes to escape the obligation of work. No one who thinks seriously wishes to exclude a teaching of the fundamental necessities and responsibility of work from the curriculum of the high school. It is such a fundamentally sound thing that secondary educators should give attention and study in an intelligent way to this matter of training for life work.

"In the secondary school lies the responsibility of preparation for life work in the real sense of the word. When you talk of preparation for life you are talking about preparation for living in the real sense. Preparation will be for a full day. The full day of a man and any woman is spent at work and the full day of women is spent in that greatest of institutions—the home. We are commencing to put into our school programs training for the home and training for life work."

SCHOOL COUNSELING AND THE PROBLEM OF INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

VIRGIL E. DICKSON, DIRECTOR, BUREAU OF RESEARCH AND GUIDANCE IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF OAKLAND AND BERKELEY, CALIFORNIA

Since this is a secondary school section, I take it for granted that the people here assembled will be more interested in having my discussion center mainly on the high-school problems. I shall, therefore, confine my remarks to the field involved in the junior high school and the senior high school, although much of what is said about individual differences and about counseling in these schools would apply equally well to other sections of the school system.

The problems due to individual differences are facing you in the high school today as never before. Changing conceptions of the need for education and the purpose of education are bringing more pupils into the secondary schools. These conceptions have so taken hold of public opinion that our laws in many States force hundreds of children into high school who otherwise would drop out of school altogether. Now in California the law

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requires every pupil to attend school until he is eighteen years of age, provided he may elect to attend part-time school between the ages of sixteen and eighteen years. Many other States have similar laws. This has brought to our schools many pupils who are not adapted to the work our high schools have formerly offered.

The standard high-school curriculum was built for a select group of pupils, for pupils with a high degree of mental power. In past years the pupils who did not readily adapt themselves to the learning processes required in classroom work were eliminated before they ever reached the high school. Even now less than 50 per cent of the public-school children in America never reach the high school. But in the future, theoretically at least, all of our pupils will reach the junior high school, and nearly all the senior high school. What problem does this place on our shoulders? These schools are supported by public taxation because our public conception is that every child has a right to an education until he is sixteen or eighteen years old—an education that will best fit him for his duties as a citizen. The duties of citizenship vary as widely as the capacities, interests, and destinies of the people who compose it.

One argument behind the junior high school movement, which is growing rapidly in most States of the Union, is that the life interests, and aptitudes of pupils begin to show wide variations at about the age of twelve, and that we should, therefore, give some opportunity for election of different courses suited to the differing interests and ambitions beginning in the seventh grade. I might say, parenthetically, that my own opinion is that these differences are almost, if not quite, as apparent in the first grade as in the seventh, but this is not the time or the place for that discussion.

The fact is that our junior high schools offer a certain amount of election of courses and this election gradually increases as we go up through high school and college and university. How shall this election be made? Can we expect pupils of adolescent age to choose wisely in a labyrinth of electives? Mingle if you will among boys and girls in any large high school where specific guidance is not given in classification and on enrolment day listen to the remarks of boys and girls about choosing courses. "Don't take that course, it's too hard." "This course is a snap." "Old Jones is a fright! Don't take anything with him." "Come on, take this course with me." Many times choices are made not on the pupil's real interest or fitness for the course, but on the reputation of the course for difficulty, the reputation of the teacher, personal chumship with another pupil, or some other equally unsatisfactory reason.

Even a casual observation should convince anyone that a careful program of counseling should be planned so that every pupil may have expert and conscientious advice in his educational life.

In the schools of Oakland and Berkeley we have chosen what we call "school counselors" to lead in this important work. We find some objection to the term "vocational counselor" because it signifies to many people something which I believe we are not able to do. To counsel immature boys and girls to fit themselves for this particular "vocation" or that seems to me

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to be fraught with danger. I know no counselors on whose shoulders I am willing to place such responsibility for classes of high-school or junior high-school boys and girls.

I admit that you may come back with the rejoinder that behind any true school counseling must be the vocational objective. The duty of the counselor is to guide each child into the best possible use of the time he has to spend in school. This of course involves the most thoughtful analysis of the possibilities and probabilities of both the school life and after school life of the pupil. Since a rose by some other name may be just as sweet, we may call this "vocational counseling" or "school counseling" as each neighborhood prefers. I merely give this discussion to explain what we mean by counseling and to show why we use the term "school counselor."

Few pupils in early adolescence absolutely know or even think they know what vocation they intend to follow in life. Specific vocational counseling is therefore apt to be wide of the mark. There are, however, numbers of things in the school lives of high-school boys and girls upon which counsel and advice are sorely needed. Explanations of courses, their purposes, and requirements, words of encouragement or caution from an adult with broad experiences and training, expert analysis of probabilities of success or failure of a pupil based upon his past record, his interests, his habits and his apparent ability, advice as to various school, home, or social activities—these are illustrative of the fields in which pupils need help that can be given by a properly chosen counselor.

Some will argue that such duties rest upon every teacher. I quickly agree. But I have found by study that gross maladjustments which a trained counselor will quickly discover in numbers in almost any large high school have escaped the notice of a corps of well-trained teachers. The average high-school teacher is a specialist in his field and it is not reasonable to expect him to keep himself also familiar with the diverse activities of the school and community in such a manner as to enable him to be a good counselor to pupils of such varying interests and needs as now present themselves to high schools. Theoretically we might wish all our teachers to have such powers, but actually we know they do not, and we are dealing with facts and not theories.

Many high schools have what is called advisory groups, each teacher being responsible for a given number of pupils. Observation will quickly show that many pupils suffer seriously under such a plan. In my opinion, our raw material furnishes altogether too complex a problem for this system.

Every high school needs a person broadminded, scientifically trained, widely experienced, and personally adapted to deal kindly but frankly with boys and girls, men and women. Such a person should head the counseling program—should be responsible for seeing that every boy and girl in every department of the school is studied as fully as time permits, to know if each is living up to what may be reasonably expected of him.

Such a program does not lessen the responsibility of each teacher to know his own pupils and to give them the best of his own expert advice. By experience, we have found that the plan actually inspires greater interest and

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greater accuracy in the advisory work of all teachers. The discovery of some gross misfit problem by the school counselor has caused many a teacher to say, "I shall take pains to see that never again shall such a misfit condition be found among pupils in my classes, at least unless I am fully aware of the problem and have done my best to rectify it."

What I wish to make clear is that the plan of school counseling as we have it in operation in our schools does not, as some have thought it would, cause high-school teachers to relax their efforts to know and counsel their pupils, but on the contrary inspires them to greater efforts and greater accuracy in such matters.

I am discussing this question today not as a theoretical problem but from the basis of experience. For five years we have been developing such a counseling program in the Oakland and Berkeley public schools. Our scheme involves a counseler in every school—elementary, junior high, and high school. At present we have such a counselor either on full time or part time in all except a few of the elementary schools. The need for such work in the elementary grades is almost, if not quite, as imperative as it is in the upper schools, but that is outside the realm of discussion with you today.

One outstanding feature of our counselors is the programming of all pupils who are being promoted from a lower to an upper school. For example, our schools just closed a few days ago, but during the last four months approximately 3000 pupils contemplating promotion into junior high or senior high school have been studying, under the direction of a counselor, what the upper school has to offer. The counselor has had personal conference (sometimes several conferences) with each pupil and often with his parents. The high-school program of each child has been made out, has been signed by the parent of the child and by the school counselor and is now in the high school which the child will enter this fall ($2\frac{1}{2}$ months hence). These children are classified now and will start a regular program in high school on the first day of the term. But the important thing is that this program is not the result of snap judgment amid the excitement of enrolment day and the confusion incident upon entering a new and strange school. The program is the result of weeks, if not of months, of careful study and conference between the child, his parents, and the school counselor and teachers who know the child best. Needless to say the high-school counselors have their share in helping to shape this program so that the high school can adjust itself to the needs of the pupils who will come to it.

Just a brief warning I feel is in place here. Counseling does not mean arbitrary dictation. The counselor who demands that a pupil do this or refuses opportunity for reasonable trial when the pupil or pupil and parent sincerely desire a trial is ordinarily making a mistake. Democracy of opportunity demands that each may have his chance to prove himself. If the counselor frankly expresses his opinion—better in writing in cases of disagreement—and then kindly waits for time, light will settle either upon the counselor (we have often seen this happen) or upon the pupil and parent. In either event time has developed greater power for the future and usually the gain is much greater than the loss. Again, counseling too often takes

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the rôle of working only with failures or with disciplinary and other problem cases. These are the hardest to counsel, and from such we get the minimum results in proportion to time and energy spent. The time for counsel is before the individual gets into trouble. A real counseling program will usually anticipate trouble and prevent it from developing.

On the other hand, the counsel that pays most dividends reaches those pupils who are most capable—those who will gain much from a mere suggestion—often those who are considered satisfactory by all teachers but who are really capable of doing much better. A counselor's chief duty is dealing with "the misfit," but let us remmember that "the misfit" is anyone who is not measuring up in a reasonable way to his capacity. Let us not permit counseling to deteriorate into petty dealing with problems of discipline and failure. I do not by this minimize the importance of discipline and failure. Counseling that is worthy of the name must be preventive and constructive—preventive of waste and constructive of power.

Permit me in closing to say not boastfully but frankly that our counseling program has the hearty coöperation of teachers, principals, supervisors, administrative and executive officers and patrons of the school. It is the result of gradual growth and reaches nowhere except where it is wanted. It represents the coöperative thought and planning of many teachers, principals and administrative officers. I trust that Mr. Biedenbach, principal of the Berkeley High School, who follows me on this program will tell you something of the manner of development of the counseling program as well as of the work being done in his school.

In summary the main points I would leave with you are: (1) The increasing diversity of abilities and interests among our secondary pupils, coupled with an elective program offered by the schools, demands careful counsel and guidance. (2) This school counseling should be led by a person especially trained and especially qualified for such work. (3) Such a school counseling program has been tried out and the verdict of all concerned is that "it works."

SECONDARY SCHOOL COUNSELING BASED ON SCIENTIFIC TESTS

C. L. BIEDENBACH, PRINCIPAL, BERKELEY HIGH SCHOOL
BERKELEY, CALIFORNIA

Not so many years ago students attended high school in order to get a literary training to fit themselves to take up college work in preparation for one of the learned professions. The sciences were also pursued as part of the necessary development of an educated man. In time it became evident that a higher education was necessary for those, also, who intended to pursue other lines of work. Business obtained the first hearing and as a result commercial courses were introduced. Then vocational schools were started and gradually as the number of children attending high school grew, the diversity of their needs made it necessary to provide as many different courses as

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possible in each school. Thus developed the high schools in which every student is supposed to be able to find the particular work most suited to his needs. An American comprehensive high school of today, therefore, has all kinds of courses from Greek and Latin, the historical standbys of the traditional classical education, through the sciences, art, music, home economics, commercial, and all kinds of industrial subjects.

When a community has established a high school of this type, however, it has not done its entire duty by its children. Not only must the necessary means be provided for obtaining an education, but an effort must be made to determine the education best suited to the individual students. It is true that the pupils do not show pronounced aptitudes early in life, and it is also true that parents frequently make mistakes in their choice of a life's occupation for their children. But these facts make it all the more important that careful attention should be given to this problem by an outside agency coöperating with the child and the home.

The school should provide a means through which a careful study can be made of every pupil, so that as much may be known about him as possible. His mental, physical, and moral condition, his environment, his inclinations, his aptitudes, and the possibility of his carrying to a successful conclusion any scheme of life that may be determined upon should be ascertained as correctly as possible and when these factors operating in his life are determined then he should be carefully advised and helped to make the most of himself. This counseling is not intended to make children dependent upon outside support. On the contrary, its result should be to make them self-dependent and independent by placing them in positions where they can work to the best advantage.

We all believe that the same course in any school is not good for all students. We also believe that all students, even though they may be adapted to the same kind of school work, are not competent to derive benefit from a given course if they are held up to the same standard of achievement that other students are. But a vague impression that there is something wrong with a customary method of procedure is of little value either to teachers or to students. In order to make reform we must know facts. It is necessary that scientific investigations be made that exact facts be ascertained, and then that definite action be taken in order to improve the conditions which have been found inadequate or faulty.

The Department of Research and Guidance of the Berkeley schools has been at work on problems concerning the studies pursued by our high-school pupils for several years. There is now a school counselor in each junior high school and a counselor with a staff of assistants in the senior high school. It is the business of these officials to know the needs of each pupil. This information is obtained by skillful questioning, by observation of school habits and successes, by intelligence tests and by conferences with parents and teachers.

In the senior high school important studies have been made. Of the 623 students of an entering class that were examined 40 were inferior; 120

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slightly below average; 155 were average; 170 were slightly above average; 125 were superior; and 13 were very superior.

A study of the beginning students of two years, shows that in general intelligence they rate: Very superior (A) 30; superior (B) 171; slightly above average (C) 245; average (D) 246; slightly below average (E) 175; inferior (F) 69; very inferior 0. The average chronological age of the very superior is 13 years 9 months, running up to 16 years and 8 months for the inferior. Ninety per cent of the very superior are pedagogically accelerated, as against only 3 per cent of the inferior. None of the very superior are pedagogically retarded where nearly 84 per cent of the inferior are. The type of course taken at the high school by the very superior shows 96½ per cent for the academic and 3½ per cent for shop work; by the inferior 49 per cent, academic; 35 per cent, commercial; and 16 per cent, shop work.

Of the entire student body, there are very inferior, 0 per cent; inferior, 5 per cent; slightly below average, 16½ per cent; average, 27.9 per cent; slightly above average, 29.4 per cent; superior, 18.3 per cent; very superior, 2.9 per cent.

These are sufficient illustrations to show the wide variation in the student material assembled in any high school. Surely it is folly to allow these students to drift into any of the courses offered in the high school which happen to appeal to them and to assume that they can in this way obtain the preparation which is best suited to their life career. They surely need expert direction at this time in their lives, if ever.

In the Berkeley Senior High School we recognize our responsibility in this matter and are making an earnest effort to meet it. A student's schedule is no longer a matter of chance. In every junior high school there is a school counselor whose business it is to know the pupils—their physical and mental ability, their home environment, their life plans in so far as these are matured, and their capacity for carrying them out. In order to give information a bulletin, prepared in the senior high school, which gives full information concerning the courses of study and the various activities of the high school, is handed each pupil several months before he finishes his junior high school course. This he studies with the aid and advice of his parents, teachers, and junior high school counselor. Then after several weeks of family deliberation a schedule of studies for the first term of the senior high school is made out. The school counselors at the senior high school work in coöperation with the counselors in the junior high schools and thus are well acquainted with the needs of these students when they change to the new school.

Present economic conditions and the advancing of the compulsory education age are keeping many students in the high school who a few years ago would not have attended. Naturally many of these students are not adapted to the kind of academic work that has been taught in high schools for generations. Many also are not equal to the standard of work expected in regular vocational and commercial courses. These students have to be provided for in courses whose content is simpler than that of the regular courses. If these young people are required to attend school it is the duty of the school to give

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them work which will be attractive and within their comprehension and which will help to develop them to the limit of their capacity.

Meeting so many diverse needs naturally increases the difficulties of the problem of high-school education materially. It is not enough to arrange a course of study for the students when entering the high school but their progress must be carefully watched as they go on. Failure to keep up with the course or unfitness for any kind of work undertaken should be known as soon as possible and appropriate changes should be made.

In our Berkeley schools, because of the location here of the University of California, many pupils plan to go to college after leaving high school who find that this intention is unwise or impossible to carry out for various reasons. It is especially important in such cases that these students having already started upon a definite career, be not allowed to flounder about until completely adrift but that they receive skilful and unbiased advice as to the best method of changing into another course.

No high school should pretend to prepare all of its students for the university. It is the best thing in the world for those students who are not fitted for university work that they should find out this fact early in their lives. There is no disgrace in not going to college, but it is a decided misfortune to make great efforts and sacrifices to go only to find out that one is unfitted for the career to which a university education would naturally lead, and to have lost the years spent in futile effort which might otherwise have lead to productive work in some other career; and it is a still greater misfortune to go to college merely for the social or athletic activities which prevail there. It is true that these by-products of college life are attractive and that they may be beneficial for those who are carrying their college studies successfully. But to those who have not unusual mental ability the social activities of college become all-absorbing and make of life a chaos. It is difficult for a young man or woman whose time has been devoted to these non-productive activities to find his footing when his college career is suddenly ended.

After all, the fundamental purpose of education is moral development, and no successful character can be built upon a false foundation. The student who is holding on to some career or study for which he is not fitted by the devious methods often employed to give the appearance of success is temporarily deceiving himself as well as the world and will soon find himself in a position where he can neither advance nor return. Successful lives are built only by finding out early in life what one is best fitted for and following out that career with all the energy and determination which one possesses. This is the ideal which the school should constantly hold up before its students and which should be made attractive by providing the work and the activities which tend to develop all latent abilities to their utmost but do not discourage by making it appear to be right to attempt that which is unattainable.

There are many students in the high school who should not be candidates for the present-day standard high school diploma. So long as the high-school diploma means satisfactory completion of a certain number of units of work whose content is definitely adjusted to a special type of mentality, there will be many students who cannot attain it. The same is true of the requirements

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for recommendation to college. These requirements are higher than those for high-school graduation, since a better rating in subjects is expected than that which is sufficient for promotion. It is not right that all the students in high school should be expected to attain these standards nor should they be expected to keep up the rate of progress of those who easily make these grades. The high school should provide work which is suited to their capacity. Naturally, on the other hand, these students cannot expect to receive the reward for work implied in a high-school diploma, or a recommendation to the university. But since they are entitled to some recognition for a finished course, it is reasonable that they should be awarded a certificate stating specifically the amount of work accomplished and the degree of efficiency attained. It is probable that in time such certificates will take the place of diplomas for all students.

I have been outlining a rather ambitious program for any school to carry out. In a large school no one person can carry the whole burden of counseling, and in the present financial condition of the high schools of the United States, it is not possible to employ the necessary number of expert counselors. This naturally raises the question of how to meet the needs of the situation without materially increasing the teaching force already employed. In Berkeley the question has been discussed by members of the senior high school faculty for some time and we have decided upon a course which we feel confident will bring good results. Heretofore the members of the faculty have acted as advisers to groups of twenty-five or thirty students and have carried the responsibility for their success in lessons and conduct. This has put a great burden upon the teachers in addition to their regular work as instructors. Many of the teachers have not enjoyed this part of their work so much as the teaching. On the other hand, some teachers are by nature interested in this more intimate relation with their students. To teachers who do not care for advisory work this becomes an excessive burden. In order that this work may be given the more expert attention which it requires the teachers as a whole have been relieved from a part of their advisory duties and these responsibilities have been transferred to a few who in turn have been relieved of some of their teaching, their classes being taken by the other teachers. In this way it is expected that the work of all the teachers will be more congenial.

This policy will be carried out during the coming semester to the extent of adding four teachers to the counseling staff. These teachers act as teaching-counselors, giving part of their time to classroom instruction, and the rest to counseling. In this way a special counselor has been assigned to the low tenth grade, one to the high tenth, one to the low eleventh and another to the high eleventh. It is hoped that by the end of the coming year two more teachers can be thus assigned so that each half-year class will have a special adviser, thus making a staff of one school counselor with six teaching assistants. When this plan is in complete operation it should be possible for the home and the school to be in close communication, consulting whenever necessary to the end that every student may be doing the work that will best prepare him for that for which he is fitted. With the continual studies that

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are now being made of the physical and mental capacity of our young people and with the knowledge of home and school influences which this closer contact gives it ought to be possible to know long before the date of graduation whether a student should attempt to continue his studies further, or whether he should go immediately into some line of productive activity. There should not be so many disappointments which come as the result of misdirected effort.

An ideal high school would be one in which every student would attend classes during a certain definite number of years, would carry on work exactly suited to his capacity, and at the completion of his course receive an accurate statement of his accomplishments, which would introduce him naturally and easily without any period of helpless indecision to the next stage of his progress, whatever that might be.

A change so radical as this idea would require in any present-day high school, whose practices have become fixed by tradition and outside regulations, cannot be brought about safely all at once. The best that we can hope for is that each institution shall be aware of its shortcomings, shall be keenly eager to remedy them and always ready to take advantage of every opportunity to make improvements. All changes in policy or method should be adopted only after careful deliberation and with the sole intention of rendering better and better service to the children and the community.

THE SOCIAL LIFE OF THE HIGH-SCHOOL AND SOME OF ITS PROBLEMS

HARRIET HAYES, DEAN OF GIRLS, UNIVERSITY HIGH SCHOOL
OAKLAND, CALIFORNIA

America has always believed that her safety depends on an educated citizenry. She would have her young men strong, well trained, resourceful. Her young women must be self-reliant, wholesome, competent in whatever field of activity they enter. And she calls upon her schools to produce such young men and women. As educators we are expected not only to produce citizens who shall have mastered certain subjects, but to somehow train them so that they justify America's pride in her youth, and contribute character and a trained intelligence toward the solving of her problems.

Now all this is not set down formally in any curriculum. It is something that we feel rather than what we have been instructed to do. It comes to us with every parent who calls at the school to talk over the work and welfare of his child. And it is the pressure of this great desire that has brought into being what has been called the "social program," or even the "social curriculum."

Teachers are becoming more and more social workers in the true sense of the word. A questionnaire filled out by teachers in charge of clubs and other outside activities in our own high school revealed the fact that several of them spent an average of two hours daily on these activities—all of this

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work in addition, of course, to a full teaching program. There is no formal recognition of such work as this, and it is almost always voluntarily assumed. The service rendered is offered because all of us are conscious that America has made us responsible for the education of her children, and education is only partly a matter of books and subjects. It includes social contacts, an opportunity *to play* with one's fellows as well as *to study* with them. Not the least valuable lesson taught by the war was that people learn to work together by playing together. Petty social barriers give way before larger, more truly social recreation projects. Subjects can be learned in correspondence courses and by tutoring, but the social contacts of the public high school give a preparation for citizenship that is incomparable.

We are so often asked in one way or another to justify the social activities in our schools. Puzzled parents cannot understand why there should be such a multiplicity of clubs and plays and dances and athletic activities. They have not realized the value of these agencies in protecting their children. In a day when commercial amusement organizations are offering on every hand the most alluring, easy, passive pleasures—when hotels, restaurants, and amusement parks offer springy, jazzy music, and insinuate with it an artificial and cheap sophistication, it is time that more wholesome pleasures, within the reach of all and without ulterior motive, be offered to our boys and girls.

It is idle to pretend that the American home takes care of the social life of its children. It does not. And money has nothing to do with it. The wealthy patrons of expensive private schools are as helpless before the problem of keeping in touch with their children as the humblest of our people. The automobile, with all its sinister possibilities, has greatly complicated the problem.

A freedom unimagined twenty-five years ago has come—the gift of the new century—and our problem as educators is not to attempt to dam it up with frail restriction and prohibitions; the only thing we can do is to train—train patiently, carefully, as skilfully as we may for a right use of freedom, for higher standards, for wiser choices.

This work cannot be done in the classroom nor can it be left to chance. It must be accomplished by steady, purposeful social engineering. There is immense possibility of waste in this field, and feverish activity throughout a school is as bad as stagnation. A halting, hesitating program is almost worse than none at all, for situations so often get beyond control and work serious havoc. In this connection are those clubs started for some worthy purpose by an enthusiastic group of kindred spirits and which so often develop into exclusive little societies and undemocratic ideals.

Clubs of this kind, once firmly entrenched, are among the most difficult of our problems. They are based on such a fundamental human instinct. There are always people who can do their best work, and many who can work only, when associated with congenial people. They refuse to be drawn into large or miscellaneous groups and resent any obvious pressure to such an end. If the social program is carefully planned this tendency can be made use of in various legitimate ways, such as committee service. After all there is no

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reason why friends should not work together. Disagreeable tasks are not half so onerous if the labor is shared by people with whom one can work without irritation. It is only when snobbish exclusiveness manifests itself and tries to exert influence that it must be broken.

Social cliques may and should be converted into helpful allies. When they show vicious anti-social tendencies they must somehow be combated and shorn of power. But I am convinced that the method used must be that of substitution and friendly reasonableness, never that of antagonistic sharpness. Whenever an administrative officer sets his (or her) jaw and announces, "It must be, because I say so," he minimizes seriously his chance to work out an effective social program in his school. For social progress must rest upon hearty coöperation of the whole group. If individuals will not come into the work—or play—with the ideal spirit, let us take them on a compromise basis, and watch for a chance to improve their attitude.

To be truly democratic and efficient, a social program must include everybody. No member of a properly organized school should be able to feel that he has no social responsibility. Whether or not an individual pupil has much time to give the various social activities, his interest and pride must be aroused, and that intangible thing called school spirit must be created. A good school newspaper will help in this, a magazine that prints the names (correctly spelled) of *all* the students, and which publishes lists of club memberships as well as of those taking part in various events—such small things as this give a very strong feeling of *belonging*. Those who have not already connected themselves with some activity should be drawn in. Senior friends for freshmen are valuable to both sides, and as much discriminating recognition as possible should be given those who offer service. Honor rolls for those who have attained distinction in various lines of work, honorable mention, recognition of good committee work—all these create better feeling and pride in worthy membership in a worthy group.

Whether a number of small clubs or similar units is desirable, or whether there should be a few large organizations with numerous branches will depend on the individual situation, and on the ability and interest to be found in the leaders.

The mention of leaders brings us to another of the problems to be solved. In too many schools the burden of outside activities is borne by only a small part of the faculty and students. There is no general plan for equalizing the load and preventing the overworking of a few enthusiastic souls. We have all seen the most able and conscientious members of a school go down under too great a strain. Some means must be devised for preventing such waste. Perhaps the most nearly adequate scheme yet worked out is the so-called "point system," which undertakes to limit the outside activities which a student may carry. Under this plan, every kind of activity, including membership in clubs, etc., is given a certain value, expressed in points, and a record is kept of participation in activities by all students. The number of points a pupil may carry is determined by his previous record in school.

There is more or less machinery connected with this plan, and much bookkeeping on the part of the point system committee. There are in some places

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accompanying features such as an honor roll and gold pins for people who have made notable contributions to the social life of the school. But the chief value of the plan lies in the protection it affords to the over-zealous and the opportunity it creates for the development of new leaders.

No such plan has been devised to protect faculty members from sacrificing themselves on the altar of social service. It is only as the extent of their service becomes more apparent that they can hope for relief. The social leader in a school, however, should catalog the faculty abilities carefully and see that the work is divided as fairly as possible.

I have been using the term social in its larger, more general meaning. But the affairs which are social in the narrower sense are also among our most intricate problems. Parties and dancing are matters that require much attention on the part of the social director.

Parties of the right sort are essential to the education of our boys and girls. Banquets to celebrate the close of some athletic season, luncheons in honor of some guest, teas for parents, outdoor suppers or picnics—every one of these functions is full of possibilities for social education. There should be as many occasions of this nature as a sane and uncrowded social calendar will include. Most of them should be simple and informal, involving as diverse groups as possible; but several times during the year there should be functions as formal as can be managed, with toastmaster, speeches, and all the accompaniments of a real party. Comparatively little money need be spent on these. A surprisingly dignified banquet can be served with the aid and advice of the domestic science department at a cost of from fifty to seventy-five cents a person, and the burden should fall, not on the individual diners, but to a large extent on the school social fund. The practice of going to the local Waldorf Astoria or the Palace restaurant is abominable in its pretentiousness. It may take a vast amount of tact to persuade students to have an important banquet at school, but it is worth any effort because of the opportunity it offers for training. People, especially high-school people, love to "get up things." There is never any difficulty in finding persons who are glad to do the work, except possibly the clearing away after the party is over. Even here we find as a rule the leaders still leading. There is always some generous soul who will say, "Oh, put me on the clean-up committee"—and if you give him a few favorite friends the job is done.

After every function if possible there should be a "post mortem" on the part of the committees in charge. This is essential if the educational value of the affair is to be realized. The successful features and factors involved, the failures and the reasons for them, should be discussed. Things to be remembered for future use, pitfalls to be avoided, should all be noted and filed for reference. Individuals should be commended for especially efficient service. It takes some time, but it is time well spent.

In connection with filing information for reference, I might speak of a blank which we have worked up for use in the University High School, entitled "Registration of Events." When a special event is planned, those in charge come to the dean's office for a blank and proceed to fill it out. All the details which must be thought of in planning a successful affair are

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provided for. The nature of the event, the date, time, and place, provisions for music, faculty sponsors, members of committees, plan of procedure, estimated expense and method of financing—all these are to be accounted for. When this much of the blank is filled out to the satisfaction of the dean, the affair is formally sanctioned. And after the event has taken place, the remaining items on the blank are filled in. These include the record of gross and net proceeds, disposal of surplus funds, names of any who have rendered noteworthy service, and suggestions which may be of future use. When all this information has been set down, the blank is filed in the proper place, and used for guidance for the next similar affair.

The formal dances, such as the senior class dances, offer an exceptional opportunity for training—one which I think is not often used to the full. The best handling of this situation that I know of was done by a very wise dean who instituted the practice of going about before each senior dance (the formal event of the term) and talking for a few minutes to the boys and girls separately. Questions of the customary dress, the position of the chaperons and how they should be treated, standards in general and why certain things are done and others not, how the success of the evening depends on the tone, which is given by the girls (this to girls)—and how the success of the evening depends on the thoughtful consideration of the boys, who must of course take the initiative (this for boys)—and how the dances have been growing better every term because standards have been raised each time—these topics are discussed. Such talks are invaluable, because they have been given with friendly impersonality, with the idea of making "this dance the best one ever given." And the dances in that school have been conducted with a dignity and genuine courtesy that is remarkable.

Dancing, I suppose, is one of the most complex matters to be dealt with in the social curriculum. While communities vary in their attitude toward dancing as a legitimate social pastime, generally speaking, young people are going to dance. Whether we like it or not, it is so. And what are we going to do? Are we going to ban the activity altogether and dodge the responsibility? It is about as easy to do as for our government to keep out of European difficulties. I have heard of one school in a pious community which tried this plan with the result that its young people went elsewhere for their amusement—elsewhere being in this case a beach resort of unenviable reputation some miles away. Avoiding is not educating. Neither is permitting dancing to go on in a haphazard way educating. Students must be made to do some thinking on the subject and to make some thoughtful choices. We cannot hope to change the prevailing style in dancing, but we can help our boys and girls to see and do the right thing about it, and hope for success by appealing to their sense of right and their loyalty to the school. Regulations and rules and the weight of authority are futile. They may check and hold the situation in a superficial way, but they are worse than useless in any constructive program. The question must be placed squarely before the students themselves and responsible action required on their part. And if the whole subject is frankly and reasonably presented I have not a doubt in the world that the actions and attitude of the school will be sound

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and right. A student committee made up of popular and thoughtful members will be able to control the kind of dancing far more effectively than any amount of faculty watchfulness, and in addition the student body will have the satisfaction of realizing that it has raised the standards of dancing a little above those required in public dance halls, and will feel proud accordingly.

The whole structure rests on the basis of coöperation, as does our whole system of education. The day of the birch rod is over; old fashioned parental authority seems also to be rapidly declining. It is for the schools by means of a strong, conscious effort, to catch up the loosened reins of control and bind them firmly again in the lives of our pupils by insisting that they decide, and choose, and learn the great value of self-control. And I believe that a vigorous administration of a sane social program, one that will provide plenty of wholesome interest and amusement for American boys and girls, is one of the most potent agencies for this purpose.

EDUCATIONAL IMPLICATIONS OF THE SOCIAL PROGRAM OF THE HIGH SCHOOL

SARAH M. STURTEVANT, ASSOCIATE IN EDUCATION, UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA, BERKELEY, CALIFORNIA

A survey of the life of the high schools of the State of California, at least, would establish as fact the opinion which many have that there are in our schools many social activities which take more or less of the time and energy of both teachers and pupils. To some the existence of such activities seems a lamentable fact. They seem disturbing elements in the academic calm of scholastic attainment—quite opposed to the " more serious " aims of school life. Time and enthusiasm spent upon them are deemed a wasteful use of what might better be spent in the teaching and learning of " fundamental knowledge." But whether we approve or not, social activities are a vital part of almost every school. Dramatics, school newspapers, so-called student government, clubs of a hundred varieties, parties, picnics, and what not, have found room in the noble house of secondary education, quite as if they had as ancient a lineage and as good a birthright as Latin and mathematics. Indeed, upon second thought, it may be that their right to existence in the educational process antedates formal education altogether and finds its birth certificate in the human, life needs of boys and girls. If that be so, even the authoritative voice of an adverse administrator concerned with the smooth running of his school machine will, at best, only partially do away with those social activities which boys and girls organize for their own vital education.

I say " for their own education " advisedly, for, wrapped up, " implicated " in the gaieties of dances, parties, clubs, and school dramatics, are powerful means of education, and, because nature has made the high-school boys and girls ready to react to other people, they find in their social relationships such keen satisfactions and annoyances that they learn much faster than by

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the more formal means provided by school authorities. One thing is certain, they learn to use principles which determine their code of social relationship. The question about which the educator needs to be concerned is, what do they learn? Are they getting the knowledge of right social relationships? Are they learning habits that lead to coöperation, the sharing of responsibility, the weighing of values? What attitudes and ideals are they acquiring? Are they gaining such knowledge, habits and skills, attitudes and ideals as will serve them best as citizens in a democracy, who are to come to the fullest life for themselves and to make the greatest contribution to their group?

If one were to ask the racial reason back of the urge that impels the normal youth to insist on a social life for himself, I suppose we might say that he must learn to know people. Before he escapes from the guidance of his family and school and is able to stand on his own feet, he must learn to know and judge people, and be able to get along with them. His vocational efficiency to a great extent, and the happiness of his home depend on how well he knows folks and on what terms he can live with them.

In considering, therefore, the educational possibilities implied in the social activities, one would say that there is an objective ready at hand. A social program should become an effective means of teaching young people to live together on the high plane demanded by the truest democracy. It affords not maxims and preachments concerning the virtues of honesty, truth, toleration, generosity, and other qualities of good character, but gives *practice* in right behavior in given social situations. The colossal failure of education so far to achieve in man such knowledge, habits and skills, attitude and ideals as will lead to harmony in the family of mankind is too well recognized to need illustration. Everywhere selfishness, greed, and hatred among nations, classes, business concerns, and even in families, attest the fact that so far men have not mastered this finest of all fine arts—the art of human association on the basis of fundamental principles bound to bring that kind of a democracy which might well be called the "Kingdom of God." In her book, "The New State," Miss Follette says, "The reason the world is at its own throat is because people have not learned to live together." Lindeman, in the "Community," says, "Men everywhere are attempting to work out a new way of living together"—and it is high time. The most important objective of education in a democracy is thus admittedly ethical character, which can be learned effectively only through practice in desirable behavior—by just response to given situations. Too long have we put our trust in talking about virtues; it is time to provide practice in virtue.

Having set up the aims of a social program, it remains to consider the means and to evaluate those means as effective in producing desired ends. It is patent even to the casual observer that not all the means of education used by the youth themselves are conducive to fine character, to human association on a high plane. The interesting and purposeful activities which satisfy the social instinct of the boy and girl may be quite hit-or-miss in their effect, not leading on consistently toward a goal but contradictory or perhaps anti-social in the lessons impressed upon the person. Too often the leaders are not the best in the school, nor do they have democratic standards. It is quite possible

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to have corrupt politics in school as well as in State and Nation. Misuse of funds, bribery, cruelty, or class distinction are just as possible in one place as in the other. If one were to grasp social means to recognized ends they should be so directed that the best standards of behavior become the accepted standards. The best types of social response must become the approved responses. Such direction calls for a director—one whose function is the organization, coördination, and supervision of a social program, consistently and steadily lifting standards as one ideal after another becomes reality in individual practice and school life. Are students learning to be truly democratic or snobbish, open-minded or intolerant, coöperative or selfishly individualistic, responsible or irresponsible? Is everybody having a chance to develop his powers of leadership, or to feel the joy of being a part of a group to which he can contribute something of value? Are students learning to evaluate results, to appreciate character in others?

If the desirable goals of the social program are to be realized, some one must have charge of that program, which ought then to become a social curriculum. Some one must understand what the objectives are, and what their relation is to the general objectives of education. She must be able to determine desirable content of that curriculum by a just evaluation of it: Are all clubs of equal value in terms of character development? What is the relative effectiveness of a dramatics club, a dancing club, or a service club? Some one must understand the teaching in that social curriculum; must organize, correlate, and supervise the activities; must distribute them so as to include a far larger number than now ordinarily profit by them; and must, very often, limit the more ambitious. There will be need for a social faculty, themselves gifted with those fine qualities which call for respect for personality, for, after all, while students and teachers may provide the parties, clubs, and dramatics that become a means of education, there is no means more effective than the personal quality of those who teach. In the business world the ability to get on with people is a highly paid quality. It will be necessary to pay for it in the educational world. The dean of girls and director of the social program should be in herself as nearly as possible an ideal woman, not only understanding the significance of the social curriculum, but able to arouse girls to emulation of fine womanhood.

Complaint against the so-called "social foolishness" in our schools has come from many quarters—the home, the community at large, the teachers, the administrators, the taxpayers. Most of the evils are the result of absolute failure on the part of everybody to recognize the possibility of using for right purposes the tremendous social energy generated by any group of adolescent boys and girls. Social affairs they will have because nature demands it. In those human associations, youth will learn its code for future conduct, build its habits, crystallize its ideals. The question for the forces of education to ponder is, What will they learn? How can we use the means at hand for the building of ethical character?

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Department of Superintendence

SECRETARY'S MINUTES AND OFFICIAL PROGRAM

OFFICERS

President, JOHN H. BEVERIDGE, Superintendent of Schools.....Omaha, Nebraska
First Vice-President, ROBINSON G. JONES, Superintendent of Schools.....Cleveland, Ohio
Second Vice-President, FRANK W. BALLOU, Superintendent of Schools....Washington, D. C.
Treasurer, IRA B. BUSH.....Charleston, West Virginia
Executive Secretary, SHERWOOD D. SHANKLAND.....Washington, D. C.

EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE—MEMBERS BY ELECTION

JESSE H. NEWLON, Superintendent of Schools (term expires 1923).....Denver, Colorado
FRANK CODY, Superintendent of Schools (term expires 1924).....Detroit, Michigan
RANDALL J. CONDON, Superintendent of Schools (term expires 1925).....Cincinnati, Ohio
PAYSON SMITH, State Commissioner of Education (term expires 1926)....Boston, Massachusetts

Sunday Afternoon, February 25, 1923, 4:00 o'clock

Old Stone Church

INVOCATION—O. T. Corson, Columbus, Ohio.
SUPREME VALUES IN EDUCATION—Elmer Burritt Bryan, President, Ohio University, Athens, Ohio.

Monday Morning, February 26, 1923, 9:15 o'clock

Public Auditorium

INVOCATION—A. B. Meldrum, Old Stone Church, Cleveland, Ohio.
GREETING—R. G. Jones, Superintendent of Schools, Cleveland, Ohio.

Administering Education in the Interests of Children and the State

PROGRESS IN EDUCATION IN NINETEEN-TWENTY-TWO—A. E. Winship, Editor, *Journal of Education*, Boston, Massachusetts.
SOME OBSERVATIONS—John J. Tigert, United States Commissioner of Education, Washington, D. C.
WHAT CONSTITUTES AMERICAN CITIZENSHIP—Alvin M. Owsley, National Commander, American Legion, Headquarters, Indianapolis, Indiana.

On motion of W. M. Davidson, superintendent of schools, Pittsburgh, Pa., chairman of the Committee on Resolutions, a resolution was unanimously adopted, urging the immediate passage of the Teachers' Salary Bill now pending before Congress.

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Monday Afternoon, February 26, 2:15 o'clock

Executive Session

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON STATUS OF SUPERINTENDENT—C. E. Chadsey, Dean of College of Education, University of Illinois, Chairman. (Printed Report will be Found in Yearbook of Department.)

SUGGESTIONS ON THE REPORT—N. L. Engelhardt, Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.

THE SECOND YEARBOOK—Robinson G. Jones, Superintendent of Schools, Cleveland, Ohio.

MY EXPERIENCE IN ADMINISTERING EDUCATION—

Boy Scouts—Frank Cody, Superintendent of Schools, Detroit, Michigan.

Outdoor Gymnasium—Theodore Saam, Superintendent of Schools, Council Bluffs, Iowa.

Janitors—Randall J. Condon, Superintendent of Schools, Cincinnati, Ohio.

Stimulating the Growth of Teachers—Frederick H. Bair, Superintendent of Schools, Colorado Springs, Colorado.

Crippled Children—Peter A. Mortenson, Superintendent of Schools, Chicago, Illinois.

What I Most Desire in My Assistant Superintendent—Thomas R. Cole, Superintendent of Schools, Seattle, Washington.

What May Be Done to Improve the Quality of Teaching—E. C. Hartwell, Superintendent of Schools, Buffalo, New York.

M. G. Clark, superintendent of schools, Sioux City, Iowa, submitted the following amendments:

First, That Article 4 of the Constitution of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association be amended by striking from Section 1, line 3, the words "a treasurer," and by striking from Section 2, line 1, the words "and treasurer," together with the preceding comma, and by inserting in Section 2, line 1, just preceding the word "vice-presidents" the word "and."[1]

Second, That Article 1 of the By-laws of the Department of Superintendence be amended by striking from Section 3, line 8, the word "treasurer" and substituting in lieu thereof the words "secretary of the National Education Association," and by striking therefrom the whole of Section 4.

Under the Constitution the above amendments went over for consideration until Tuesday.

Ernest A. Smith, of Evanston, Illinois, rose to a question of information, stating that he had a resolution from the superintendents' round-table of northern Illinois dealing with action taken under a resolution adopted by the National Education Association at its Boston convention. He asked if it would be competent to bring the resolution before the Department of Superintendence or whether it should be referred to the parent organization. The president ruled that the resolution should be referred to the National Education Association.

Monday Evening, February 26, 8:00 o'clock

General Problems in Education and Citizenship

A PROGRAM FOR THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION—William B. Owen, President of the National Education Association, Chicago, Illinois.

LEISURE TIME—Henry Turner Bailey, Author and Lecturer, Cleveland, Ohio.

EDUCATION FOR DEMOCRACY—Newton D. Baker, President, Cleveland Chamber of Commerce, Cleveland, Ohio.

[1] The line numbers refer to the Constitution and By-Laws as printed in the first Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence published in February, 1923.

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President Beveridge appointed the following tellers for the annual election: F. S. Camp, Hartford, Connecticut; E. L. Miller, Detroit, Michigan; B. O. Skinner, Marietta, Ohio; L. W. Mayberry, Wichita, Kansas; B. J. Merriam, Framingham, Massachusetts; J. C. Lindsey, Mitchell, South Dakota.

Tuesday Morning, February 27, 9: 15 o'clock

Progress in Solving Financial Problems in Education

THE COST AND THE FISCAL ADMINISTRATION OF SCHOOLS—SOME FACTS FROM THE EDUCATIONAL FINANCE INQUIRY—George D. Strayer, Chairman of Commission, and Professor of Educational Administration, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.

THE TAX PROBLEM IN RELATION TO THE FINANCING OF PUBLIC EDUCATION—Robert M. Haig, Associate Professor of Business Organization, School of Business, Columbia University, New York City.

WHAT THE SCHOOLS DO IN RELATIONSHIP TO WHAT THEY COST—H. B. Bruner, Superintendent of Schools, Okmulgee, Oklahoma; Herbert S. Weet, Superintendent of Schools, Rochester, New York.

SYMPOSIUM—BUDGET MAKING AND SPENDING—

1. By the City—Arthur B. Moehlman, Detroit Public Schools, Detroit, Michigan.
2. By the County—A. F. Harman, County Superintendent, Montgomery County, Alabama.
3. By the State—Frank P. Graves, State Commissioner of Education, Albany, New York.

The president called attention to the amendments to the constitution submitted at the Monday afternoon session by M. G. Clark, of Sioux City. Mr. Clark moved that the amendments as submitted be adopted, which motion was duly seconded and unanimously carried.

The president announced that nominations for officers were in order. Nominations were made as follows: *For President*—Milton C. Potter, superintendent of schools, Milwaukee, Wisconsin; Payson Smith, commissioner of education, Massachusetts; H. B. Wilson, Superintendent of Schools, Berkeley, California; Herbert S. Weet, superintendent of schools, Rochester, New York. *For Second Vice-President*—George N. Child, superintendent of schools, Salt Lake City, Utah; M. G. Clark, Superintendent of Schools, Sioux City, Iowa. *For Member Executive Committee*—Henry S. West, Superintendent of Schools, Baltimore, Maryland; Frank W. Ballou, superintendent of schools, Washington, D. C.; William McAndrew, associate superintendent of schools, New York City.

The president announced the appointment of E. C. Broome, superintendent of schools, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, and C. E. Douglass, assistant superintendent of schools, Baltimore, Maryland, to constitute the auditing committee.

Tuesday Evening, February 27, 8: 30 o'clock

Chairman, Jesse H. Newlon, Superintendent of Schools, Denver, Colorado

Joint session of the Department of Superintendence with the following allied departments: (1) Elementary School Principals, (2) Secondary School Principals, (3) Rural Education.

Elementary School Principals

PRINCIPAL'S MULTIPLE FUNCTIONING—Olive M. Jones, Principal School No. 120, New York City.

THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPAL'S CONTRIBUTION TO PUBLIC EDUCATION—Ide G. Sargeant, Principal of P. S. No. 10, Paterson, New Jersey.

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Secondary School Principals

EXTRA-CURRICULAR ACTIVITIES—H. E. Winner, Principal, South Hills High School, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania.

THE STABILIZING FACTOR IN EDUCATION—Charles H. Lake, First Assistant Superintendent of Schools, Cleveland, Ohio.

Rural Education

THE ECONOMIC BACKGROUND OF RURAL EDUCATION—Aaron Sapiro, Attorney for Farmers Coöperative Associations, 120 Broadway, New York City.

Wednesday Morning, February 28, 9:15 o'clock

The Curriculum

PRINCIPLES AND TYPES OF CURRICULAR DEVELOPMENT—Otis Caldwell, Principal, Lincoln School, New York City.

KEEPING THE CURRICULUM ALIVE—Amalia Bengtson, County Superintendent, Olivia, Minnesota.

BY WHOM AND HOW MADE—Ernest Horn, Professor of Elementary Education, University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa.

HOW MODERN BUSINESS MAY AID IN RECONSTRUCTING THE CURRICULUM—Charles H. Judd, Director of School of Education, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois.

THE HUMAN ELEMENT IN CURRICULUM MAKING—William McAndrew, Associate Superintendent of Schools, New York City.

Mr. Broome moved that the incoming President together with the Executive Committee be instructed to create a commission for the purpose of bringing together the elements for the construction of a suitable curriculum for the boys and girls of American public schools. The motion was seconded and carried.

Wednesday Afternoon, February 28, 2:15 o'clock

Conference Called by the Department of Superintendence

The Physical Welfare of Pupils

Presiding Officer, Frank W. Ballou, Superintendent of Schools, Washington, D. C.

WHAT EXISTING ASSOCIATIONS ARE CONTRIBUTING (Speakers Limited to Seven Minutes)—Eugene T. Lies, Special Representative of The Playground and Recreation Association of America; Courtenay Dinwiddie, General Executive, The American Child Health Association; Charles F. Powlison, General Secretary, The National Child Welfare Association; Charles M. DeForest, Executive, Modern Health Crusade, National Tuberculosis Association; Carl L. Schrader, President, The American Physical Education Association; Thomas D. Wood, President, The American School Hygiene Association.

WHAT A STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION IS DOING (Speaker Limited to Twenty Minutes)—Charles H. Keene, Director of Health Education for the State of Pennsylvania.

WHAT THE SCHOOLS ARE DOING AND SHOULD BE DOING—A. B. Meredith, Commissioner of Education, State of Connecticut.

Thursday Morning, March 1, 9:15 o'clock

SUPERINTENDENTS OF CITIES OF POPULATION UP TO 10000

Chairman, W. H. Morton, Superintendent of Schools, Beatrice, Nebraska

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Meeting the Needs of the Individual Child as he is Found Working in the Schoolroom

THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL AS AN AID IN THE SOLUTION OF INDIVIDUAL PUPIL ADJUSTMENT—W. G. Bate, Superintendent of Schools, Richmond, Indiana.

DISCUSSION—J. H. Ersenhauer, Superintendent of Schools, Beaver, Pennsylvania.

THE SUPERINTENDENT AND THE TEACHERS—William E. Stark, Superintendent of Schools, Hackensack, New Jersey.

DISCUSSION—G. E. McCord, Superintendent of Schools, Springfield, Ohio.

PUPIL PROGRESS BY INDIVIDUAL METHODS—A. J. Stoddard, Superintendent of Schools, Bronxville, New York.

DISCUSSION—W. F. Shirley, Superintendent of Schools, Marshalltown, Iowa.

SCHOOL PROVISION FOR THE EXCEPTIONAL CHILD—Guy T. Buswell, School of Education, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois.

DISCUSSION—W. E. Sealock, Dean of Teachers' College, University of Nebraska, Lincoln, Nebraska.

Thursday Morning, March 1, 9:15 o'clock

SUPERINTENDENTS OF CITIES OF POPULATION BETWEEN 10 000 AND 30.000

Chairman, J. W. Gowans, Superintendent of Schools, Hutchinson, Kansas

Adapting the Junior High School Program to the Needs of the Children and the Community

ADMINISTRATIVE AND ECONOMIC VALUE OF THE PLATOON SYSTEM IN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS—C. J. Tidwell, Superintendent of Schools, Fort Smith, Arkansas.

ADJUSTING THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL BUILDING TO THE EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM—E. E. Lewis, Superintendent of Schools, Rockford, Illinois.

THE CURRICULA OF THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL—Thomas H. Briggs, Professor of Secondary Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.

THE PLACE AND SIGNIFICANCE OF EXTRA CURRICULAR ACTIVITIES IN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL—Will French, Superintendent of Schools, Winfield, Kansas.

BROADENING AND FINDING COURSES IN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL PROGRAM—H. B. Bruner, Superintendent of Schools, Okmulgee, Oklahoma.

THE GUIDANCE PROGRAM IN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL—D. C. Porter, Superintendent of Schools, Bridgeton, New Jersey.

GROUP TESTS IN FORECASTING SCHOOL SUCCESS IN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL—H. C. Johnson, Superintendent of Schools, San Diego, California.

Thursday Morning, March 1, 9:15 o'clock

SUPERINTENDENTS OF CITIES OF POPULATION BETWEEN 30 000 TO 100.000

Chairman, Carleton B. Gibson, Superintendent of Schools, Savannah, Georgia

A NATIONALIZED SYSTEM OF EDUCATION—A UNIFIED, UNIVERSALLY EDUCATED, EFFICIENT NATION DEMANDS A NATIONAL SYSTEM OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS—Samuel P. Capen, Chancellor, University of Buffalo, Buffalo, New York.

DISCUSSION—Lawton B. Evans, Superintendent of Schools, Augusta, Georgia; L. W. Mayberry, Superintendent of Schools, Wichita, Kansas.

THE SPIRIT OF DEMOCRACY AS WELL AS THE AMERICAN CONSTITUTION REQUIRES THAT EDUCATION BE LEFT TO THE STATES—M. G. Clark, Superintendent of Schools, Sioux City, Iowa.

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DISCUSSION—A. J. Stout, Superintendent of Schools, Topeka, Kansas; D. J. Boone, Superintendent of Schools, Lorain, Ohio.

HIGHER TEACHING EFFICIENCY—THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS BEFORE ENTERING THE PROFESSION—A. L. Suhrie, Dean, School of Education, Cleveland, Ohio.

DISCUSSION—H. W. Dodd, Superintendent of Schools, Allentown, Pennsylvania; L. P. Benezet, Superintendent of Schools, Evansville, Indiana.

THE TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT OF TEACHERS AFTER ENTERING THE PROFESSION—Daniel J. Kelly, Superintendent of Schools, Binghamton, New York.

DISCUSSION—H. B. Wilson, Superintendent of Schools, Berkeley, California; Theodore Saam, Superintendent of Schools, Council Bluffs, Iowa.

A LARGER CONSERVATION OF EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITIES TO YOUTH—THE YEAR-ROUND SCHOOL—H. C. Weber, Superintendent of Schools, Nashville, Tennessee.

DISCUSSION—E. E. Oberholtzer, Superintendent of Schools, Tulsa, Oklahoma; David A. Ward, Superintendent of Schools, Wilmington, Delaware.

BUSINESS METHODS APPLIED TO EDUCATIONAL ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION—W. W. Borden, Superintendent of Schools, South Bend, Indiana.

DISCUSSION—John J. Richeson, Superintendent of Schools, Decatur, Illinois; Walter R. Siders, Superintendent of Schools, Pocatello, Idaho.

Thursday Morning, March 1, 9:15 o'clock

SUPERINTENDENTS OF CITIES OF POPULATION BETWEEN 100 000 TO 200,000

Chairman, George N. Child, Superintendent of Schools, Salt Lake City, Utah

MAKING THE SCHOOL CURRICULUM—H. B. Wilson, Superintendent of Schools, Berkeley, California.

GENERAL DISCUSSION—W. A. Greeson, Superintendent of Schools, Grand Rapids, Michigan; Paul C. Stetson, Superintendent of Schools, Dayton, Ohio.

THE CITY SUPERINTENDENT'S RESPONSIBILITIES AND OPPORTUNITIES IN CREATING AND MAINTAINING FAVORABLE PUBLIC OPINION TOWARD EDUCATION—David A. Ward, Superintendent of Schools, Wilmington, Delaware; Charles B. Glenn, Superintendent of Schools, Birmingham, Alabama.

THE SUPERINTENDENT'S RELATION TO HIS

(A) Supervisors—Justin F. Kimball, Superintendent of Schools, Dallas, Texas.

(B) Principals—Charles S. Clark, Superintendent of Schools, Somerville, Massachusetts.

(C) Teachers—O. C. Pratt, Superintendent of Schools, Spokane, Washington.

Thursday Morning, March 1, 9:15 o'clock

SUPERINTENDENTS OF CITIES OF POPULATION BETWEEN 200,000 TO 400,000

Chairman, Charles S. Meek, Superintendent of Schools, Toledo, Ohio

FINANCING OF SECONDARY EDUCATION—Zenos E. Scott, Superintendent of Schools, Louisville, Kentucky.

HIGH SCHOOL REORGANIZATION—Thomas H. Briggs, Professor of Secondary Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City; Frank G. Pickell, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, Cleveland, Ohio.

FIVE-MINUTE TALK TO OPEN GENERAL DISCUSSION—H. H. Ryan, Principal, Ben Blewett Junior High School, St. Louis, Missouri.

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Thursday Morning, March 1, 9:15 o'clock

SUPERINTENDENTS OF CITIES OF POPULATION OF 400,000 AND OVER

Chairman, Henry S. West, Superintendent of Schools, Baltimore, Maryland

RECENT EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENTS IN THREE LARGE CITIES, WEST, CENTER AND EAST—

1. Los Angeles: The Adjustment Classes—Robert H. Lane, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, Los Angeles, California.
2. Detroit: The Platoon School—Charles L. Spain, Deputy Superintendent of Schools, Detroit, Michigan.
3. Baltimore: A Comprehensive School Survey and Its Consequences—George D. Strayer, Professor of Educational Administration, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.

Thursday Evening, March 1, 7:45 o'clock

SCHOOL ORGANIZATION—City School System, Recent Developments—J. H. Bentley, Superintendent of Schools, Duluth, Minnesota.

STATE SCHOOL SYSTEM—Thomas H. Harris, State Superintendent Public Instruction, Baton Rouge, Louisiana.

IMMIGRANT EDUCATION—Edward A. Steiner, Grinnell, Iowa.

Superintendent William M. Davidson of Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, as Chairman of the Committee of Resolutions read the report of that Committee. Mr. Davidson then moved that the Resolutions be adopted as presented and read. The motion was seconded and unanimously carried.

The Secretary reported that the tellers had counted the ballots and had certified to the election of the following persons:

President, Payson Smith, of Massachusetts.

Second Vice-President, M. G. Clark, Sioux City, Iowa.

Member Executive Committee (for four years), William McAndrew, New York.

Member of the Executive Commjttee (to fill unexpired term of Payson Smith), Frank W. Ballou, Washington, D. C.

The president then declared the fifty-third session of the Department of Superintendence adjourned.

RESOLUTIONS OF THE DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE, MARCH 1, 1923

MEMBERS OF THE COMMITTEE

CHAIRMAN, WILLIAM M. DAVIDSON, Superintendent of Schools.....Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania
J. S. HOFFMAN, County Superintendent.....Flemington, New Jersey
L. P. BENEZET, Superintendent of Schools.....Evansville, Indiana
WILLIAM B. OWEN, President National Education Association.....Chicago, Illinois
BELLE M. RYAN, Assistant Superintendent of Schools.....Omaha, Nebraska
PAUL C. STETSON, Superintendent of Schools.....Dayton, Ohio
ERNEST A. SMITH, Superintendent of Schools.....Evanston, Illinois

We sincerely commend the action of the President of the United States in calling upon the people of the whole country, by special proclamation last December, to set aside a week to be observed throughout all the States and Territories as American Education Week. We likewise commend the governors of the several States and Territories and the mayors of all cities who

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promptly supplemented the President's proclamation by similar appeals. By this Nation-wide observance of American Education Week the people of the entire country have been aroused to a new recognition of the fact that the destiny of America rests upon the adequate and proper education of all the children of all the people.

We gratefully acknowledge the enlarged support that has been granted education by State and Territorial legislatures, by boards of education, and by a responsive public, which have generously recognized grave educational needs. We earnestly urge the legislatures now in session, in whose hands rests the control of the public schools, to provide for a continuance of the educational advance to the end that there may be an American school good enough for every American child. We believe that money expended for education is the best possible investment and rejoice that every attempt at reaction against a proper and adequate provision of funds for public school purposes, whether made by a single individual or by a backward-looking group, is met in every State and Territory in the Union by a wall of men and women who stand insisting that the American dollar shall never be placed above the American child. As administrators of public education, responsible for this investment, we dedicate ourselves anew to the task of directing education with wise economy and exact accounting to the end that the schools may become ever better instruments in the production of an improved citizenry.

We note with satisfaction and heartily endorse the expressed intention of Congress to make the school system of Washington the model school system of the country. We pledge to Congress our hearty support of this proposed legislation and of such appropriation of funds as may be necessary to provide in the Nation's capital a system of public education which shall exemplify to the Nation the best in administration, supervision, business management, and teaching service. To this end we urge the immediate passage of the Teachers' Salary Bill now pending before Congress.

We recognize that a Department of Education is necessary in order that the educational activities of our National Government shall be efficiently and economically administered. We believe that National sanction and National leadership can be provided only in the person of a Secretary of Education in the President's Cabinet. Federal aid for the purpose of stimulating the several States to remove illiteracy, Americanize the foreign born, prepare teachers, develop adequate programs of physical education, and equalize educational opportunities, is in accord with our long established practice and is demanded by the present crisis in education. We therefore reaffirm our allegiance to the Towner-Sterling Bill.

The welfare of the Nation demands that boys and girls living in the country shall have educational advantages commensurate with those enjoyed by children living in the cities. We endorse the movement which contemplates placing a competent and professionally-trained county superintendent of schools, directing a professionally-trained body of teachers genuinely interested in country life, in every county in every State and Territory of the Republic. To this end we urge that the burden of raising funds

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in locality, State, and Nation shall be so justly and equitably distributed between the stronger and the weaker taxing units as to make the opportunity of the boy or girl in a rural school equal to that of the child in the most favored city-school system in the land.

We commend the devotion and zeal of the classroom teachers of America who have caught the spirit of the new educational advance and given themselves without reserve to the task of maintaining the ideals and standards of our American system of public education, and who have dedicated themselves to the high purpose of translating the increased funds provided for education into a worthy and upright citizenry, whose faith in the high ideals and the best traditions of America, and whose recognition of the principle of obedience to established law, shall guarantee the security and well-being of the Republic.

We record our grateful appreciation of the exceptional hospitality of the people of the city of Cleveland; of the untiring efforts of the local committee; and of the coöperation of the Chamber of Commerce and the public press. We especially thank the members of the board of education, the officers, teachers, and children of the public schools, and the presidents and faculties of Cleveland's colleges and universities—all of whom have helped to make this convention one of the most successful in the history of the Department.

SUPREME VALUES IN EDUCATION

ELMER BURRITT BRYAN, PRESIDENT, OHIO UNIVERSITY, ATHENS, OHIO

President John H. Beveridge: It is fitting that we should have the opening program in this church, which is a landmark in this community and has stood for the fundamental principles of our Government—that is, religion, morality, refinement, and culture. It is a matter of interest to me that this church still stands in the business district of this city as an indication of the interest and the coöperation of business and religion.

It is also fitting that we have a speaker who has always been associated with institutions having as their main object the development of the highest ideals in religion, morality, and intelligent training in the interests of the youth of this country.

Dr. Elmer Burritt Bryan: A good many centuries ago a man who was reputed to be wise said, "Bring up a child in the way he should go; and when he is old, he will not depart from it." He might have said, "Bring up a child in the way he should not go; and when he is old, the probability is he will not depart from it." By implication, he did say this. This statement was his method of paying tribute to the permanent value of early teaching and early training.

A century ago one of the wisest men America has produced said, "We must educate, we *must* educate, or we must perish by our own prosperity. If we do not, short will be our race from the cradle to the grave." It is interesting to note that education is made all the more imperative as a people

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are prosperous. The warning was not that if we remain in ignorance, we shall perish by our poverty or other limitations, but that we shall be victimized by our prosperity. A small indigent people may exist through the decades and the centuries in ignorance, but a prosperous people must be enlightened else in a comparatively short time material prosperity will crush the very life of the people.

The trail blazers have been apostles of learning and enlightenment down through the centuries. Yet within recent years we have been brought face to face and have participated in the greatest crisis in the history of civilization at a time when learning was farther advanced than ever before and by a nation which had developed the most logical and efficient educational system that the world had ever seen. It would be interesting to ask wherein lay the victimizing power of this system of education and this, without any thought of placing full responsibility for our recent world experiences solely here. May we not believe that it was the result of bringing up millions of children in ways they should not go?

It was in working out this philosophy of education that supreme emphasis was placed where supreme values never reside. When this is true, the philosophy or system is doomed from the beginning. Supreme emphasis was placed in an institution; and, in institutions, supreme values never reside. The theory that lay underneath the superstructure was this: "Germany Over All." The German state over everybody and everything within the German state; and, finally, if possible, the German state over everybody and everything outside of the German state. The state, like all other agencies for human advancement, is only an agency and never an end. Supreme values never reside in agencies and institutions; and whenever supreme emphasis is placed here, we may be sure that our program is doomed at once to "go to smash." The failure is not one of education because there is certainly no way out except the way of education; but it was due to false emphasis. If, then, education is to bring us up out of the mire and keep us out, where shall we place supreme emphasis? What shall be the character of the primary principle upon which we build? Where do supreme values reside? Certainly in human beings for whom all organized agencies and all things else exist. A philosophy of education as cogent and logical and effective as was the Prussian philosophy would have had tremendous saving power in it, had it been built on this principle.

It follows, therefore, that the only real problem we shall ever confront is a human problem and that all other so-called problems are mere corollaries. The feat of engineering waits for the engineer; and no specific problem in life is solved until the solver of that problem has himself been adequately solved. President Roosevelt was wise enough to provide men and materials for General Goethals to solve the human problem on the Canal Zone; and, in a brief time, the boats were passing through the Canal. Other great engineers had regarded the digging of the Canal as primarily a matter of blasting stone and shoveling dirt, but this man detected that, even in such work as digging a canal, the primary problem is human. This, then briefly stated, is the objective in education.

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What then, we may ask next, are the materials of education—the exercise ground which gives promise of such results? They, of course, cannot be limited or too narrowly elective. They must, it would seem, be the materials resulting *from* the activities of the human race up to the present moment and resulting in the human race which we find at the present moment—the great bodies of social heritage—which are in part the vocations of life; the arts and crafts; the physical and biological sciences; mathematics, pure and applied; history; economics; sociology; all the mental sciences; the languages and literatures; all the fine arts, including landscape gardening, architecture, sculpture, painting, and music. Running through all of these will be a greater or lesser sense of dependence upon a power above us and the society of which we are a part—a sense of religion. Perhaps no one could be regarded as educated who is not somewhat familiar with and at home in these great bodies of social heritage—the activities which have forged the human race. The science of mathematics, for example, is no higher than has been the thinking of at least some mathematician; the science of medicine is no higher than at least has been the thinking of some medicos. The short circuit process of familiarizing, to at least a slight degree, oneself with these social heritages is an educative process; and these materials are the materials of education. Once we have become skilful in the correlation of materials and familiar with the development of children, we shall discover ample time for all these things.

But finally, an adequate conception of the meaning and the materials of education will not in themselves, singly or in combination, suffice. We must have what I am going to call here " the soul of education."

Education, after all, is a spiritual thing and not a material thing. May I say frankly, as president of a tax-supported institution, without any fear or misunderstanding or contradiction that, in my judgment, education must be essentially Christian. I do not mean, of course, Methodist mathematics, Catholic chemistry, Presbyterian economics, or Baptist geology. I do mean, however, that education must have the Christian objective, the Christian motive, and Christian results. I am sure that what I have in mind will not be to the slightest degree offensive to any Hebrew who may have found his way into this audience. When Jesus said, " I have come that they might have life, and that they might have it more abundantly," He was setting forth the object of His ministry, the Christian objective, which must be the ultimate objective of all human activities—the abundant life.

Whatever subject is taught for knowledge or for mental development must have in mind the enlargement of the human life, and so it is in physical and moral education. Any program which does not lend itself to this objective is falsely regarded as an educational program. The only defensible spirit in which any teacher or educational administrator undertakes the performance of his task is the spirit to enlarge the individual or social life.

Education must always be actuated by the Christian motive—the motive to serve. " Let him who would be greatest among you be servant of all " is as vital and needful of application to-day as it was on the first day it was given utterance. A casual review of the characters that stand out with prominence

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in history is evidence, if any were needed, that the motive of giving, rather than the motive of getting, results in contributions not only worthwhile to civilization, but finally also to the life of the one so actuated. Nothing short of the Christian motive will suffice.

In saying that the results of education must be Christian, I mean that all education must result in a greater degree of freedom—physical, mental, and spiritual. Anything that is calculated to shackle the human body or trammel the human mind or spirit is doomed to death sometime, and the process whereby this doom is accomplished is the educational process. It was so with American slavery, with the open saloon, with unrestricted hours of child labor, and other forms of slavery in the past. If education results in anything that is worth while, it results in freedom from ignorance, superstition, prejudice, bigotry, hate, envy, and all other passions of the human mind and soul that kill and destroy. Regardless of one's mastery of knowledge, his expertness in the industrial world, his shrewdness in the commercial world, he must nevertheless be regarded as an abject slave who is not a free man in the particulars herein indicated.

In conclusion, education is our only hope provided we place supreme emphasis where supreme values reside; provided we realize that however difficult and complex the corollaries of life may be, there is but one problem—the human problem, provided we employ the vast variety of materials at our disposal and provided we are not forgetful of the fact that education, like a human being, once it has lost its soul has nothing left that is worth having.

OPENING ADDRESSES

President John H. Beveridge: The fifty-third session of the Department of Superintendence is now in order. The address of greeting will be given by the efficient superintendent of the Cleveland schools, past president of the Department of Superintendence, and its first vice-president under the new organization—Mr. Robinson G. Jones.

Mr. Jones: Ladies and gentlemen—You are welcome to the city of Cleveland first because, regardless of the limitations of territorial boundaries, we believe that this body represents the best thinking on the subject of public education that is being done.

The public here and elsewhere welcomes this convention in the hope that out of these deliberations there may come a clearer notion of what constitutes a proper educational program for the first twelve school years.

The public is interested to know the definition of the boundaries between fundamentals and cultural adjuncts. The public has further hope that we may define the boundaries of special and general education.

In short, the public is eager to know the program of education that will lay the foundation for a citizenry with an inclination to do a day's work capably, to employ leisure time profitably, and to enjoy life fully.

The schools are interested to know how the school day may be most profitably employed; what distribution of the tax dollar is justified; what

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economies are to be effected that will warrant increasing the educational load through the addition of adult education and public welfare.

In the face of threatened retrenchments, we want to know how we may protect the twelve years of instruction for the youth as prescribed by law. We cannot continue, however, the loading of the educational program without limiting either the quality or the quantity or effecting, through organization, economies not operating at present.

We wish you a pleasant and profitable sojourn in Cleveland to the end that large and permanent good may come from this meeting.

I now have the honor to present to your incoming president, the gavel of authority which I am sure he will wield with distinction in the service of this greatest of all educational organizations in the world.

President Beveridge: The general topic for our program this morning is Administering Education in the Interests of Children and the State, in order that the child may become all that it is possible for him to become in order that he may protect the State.

PROGRESS IN EDUCATION IN 1922

A. E. WINSHIP, EDITOR, JOURNAL OF EDUCATION, BOSTON, MASSACHUSETTS

In general the year 1922 has recorded several combinations of good deeds. There have been few reductions of teachers' salaries. There has been some reduction of the cost of education by admirable management. There has been a phenomenal voting of bonds for school buildings in all parts of the country. The pension legislation is headed in the right direction. The increase in high school enrolment is fabulous. The change of the title from truancy to attendance officer has high significance. The devotion of teachers in service to the improvement of their scholarship and professional spirit is quite refreshing.

All of these signs of progress were as noticeable a year ago as they are now, and we recite them merely as an acknowledgment of the force of habit in this survey age. What really concerns us is the controlling factor in progress.

My habit of mind is to detect the controlling factor in progress, and fortunately that of the year just closed has had to do with the school superintendent. The tendency of the last five years culminated in education, as in street traffic, baseball and football, in the reign of "the signal." The Signal Cop is a new creation, as vital to life and limb as the hospital surgeon is to the human wrecks of railroad wrecks.

The year 1922 saw the perfection of street-crossing signals. At the crossing of 42d Street and Fifth Avenue, New York, there are six traffic cops. At 34th Street one traffic signal man is in a cage raised above the passing throng; at 26th Street the signals are automatic, so that when a reasonable time has elapsed the safety green succeeds the red warning. There were no signals in ox-cart days, now they are indispensable.

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Baseball is now played by signals. The pitcher has no option, gives no thought to the kind of a ball he will pitch. The manager, who has in mind the situation of men on bases, of the batter to follow, of the strength or weakness of every man in the field, signals the pitcher to give a slow ball or fast one, a fadeaway, or any kind that best suits the case. Even football was for the first time played by signals in 1922. In a crucial moment a man was signalled into action, ran to his team, kicked a goal and went back to the side lines. He was the one man who could kick that goal, and his team won by just that much of a score.

The city superintendent today directs the educational traffic in New York, the team on the educational diamond in Chicago, or provides educational touchdowns on the gridiron in Detroit, by signals.

" Notebooks of the University Classroom " are about as valuable to Caldwell at Hammond, or Ward at Wilmington as the " haw and gee " for oxen would be at the crossing at Spring Street and Fifth Avenue at Los Angeles.

Ettinger and Mortenson face more problems in a week than Harris or Rickoff, Howland or Philbrick, Aaron Gove, or J. M. Greenwood faced in a lifetime.

I have known Henry Snyder and Alfred Roncovieri to decide upon a signal in five minutes which would have taken a psychologist a month to test and measure.

Education today is the art of signaling, the science of knowing when and how, why and where to signal. This culminated in the year 1922 and makes traditional theories of yesterday about as useless as Babe Ruth's almost superhuman power with the bat when McGraw signalled for balls so slow that there was no possible reaction, so that Ruth's bat merely tapped the slow ball gently.

The Department of Superintendence meets in 1923 with a code of signals never suspected when it adjourned in Chicago a year ago.

THE REORGANIZATION OF EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES GOVERNMENT

JOHN J. TIGERT, U. S. COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION, WASHINGTON, D. C.

It is not only a conspicuous honor but a most gratifying privilege that has been conferred upon me by the officers of the Department of Superintendence to occupy a place on the program at the opening of this meeting which promises to make a new epoch of progress in education. The president assigned to me the duty of making some observations at this time upon some of the outstanding things which I have observed in my official visits over the country and which bear upon the welfare of the children and the State. but there has transpired within the past few days a matter of transcendent and paramount importance which will have perhaps a far-reaching effect upon the educational welfare of all the children in the Nation, and it seems wise to devote my entire attention at this time to this significant development

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in the Federal program. I refer to the reorganization of the Executive Departments of the Government recently put before the Congress by the President of the United States and which will be taken up by the Congress which will convene in December. I feel that I am called upon to do this particularly because the proposed reorganization will have a more significant effect upon education than upon any other of the manifold interests involved. In presenting this matter I do so with the consent and approval of the President of the United States, but without the slightest desire to inject political or Federal authority upon this body with a view to influencing its probable action or attitude with reference to the proposed reorganization. I desire to bring to this body, representing as it does those who are administering education in the United States, with all the courtesy that is due to such a body, such information as I have with reference to the Administration's program, particularly as it pertains to education.

It is a matter of common knowledge that the executive departments of the Federal Government have not been organized and developed according to a logical plan, but that these departments have been established and have grown for more than a hundred years according to the exigencies and political demands of the successive administrations. From the time of George Washington to the present, opportunism and expediency have largely created and evolved the various departments, establishments, and bureaus of the Federal Government and no concerted plan has been followed. One who begins to look upon the arrangement of activities of the Federal Government finds all kinds of anomalous things which appear inexplicable and almost laughable. It almost seems that some one must have written down the names of the various departments, establishments, and bureaus and drawn them by chance from a hat, without regard to function or relationship. In no activity does this appear more conspicuously than in education. One may be surprised to find the Bureau of Public Roads in the Department of Agriculture, or the Patent Office in the Department of the Interior, and other similar anomalies, but he is bewildered to find that the educational activities of the Federal Government are carried on by some thirty-odd bureaus, organizations, and agencies scattered through the Departments of Interior, Treasury, War, Labor, Justice, Agriculture, and various independent establishments.

Departments organized heterogeneously—The lack of unity and proper relationship of activities in the executive branch of the Government has long been a matter of concern to the present administration. President Harding, appreciating the importance of the matter, committed himself during his campaign for the presidency, in his inaugural address, and in his first message to the 67th Congress, to a reorganization of the executive departments, laying particular stress upon the need of establishing a department to promote citizenship and general welfare, including education. The President pointed to the inefficiency and uneconomic character of the present organization of the executive departments and stressed the need of a new department to concern itself with the public welfare, including such matters as education, health, social service, and care of those men who have suffered in military service for their country. In the President's own words: "The present system magnifies cost and fritters energy."

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For many years before he dreamed of being President of the United States or even Senator, Warren G. Harding had pondered this matter of a more adequate provision by our Government for developing and conserving its citizenship. This is not remarkable when one considers that he came of a family which long devoted itself to social service and welfare. The Hardings come of a sturdy old New England stock, and the best ideals of that stock have been preserved among them. The President's father is still practicing medicine at Marion, Ohio, at the advanced age of fourscore years; his mother was a woman of strong and deeply religious nature; his only brother is a leading physician in Columbus, Ohio; one of his sisters is a teacher by profession, and teaches English in the Marion High School; another sister was for many years a missionary in India, where she took part in the establishment of numerous missions, schools, and dispensaries, and has long dedicated herself to social service. Since her brother's election she has been a member of the Women's Bureau of the Capital City. It was of Carolyn and her brother Warren—the last and first born of her children—that the mother said before she passed away: "These are consecrated for service to God and humanity."

President interested in education—Coming of a family of this character, it is no strange circumstance that the President should have interested himself in a more effective service by the Federal Government for education, health, social uplift, care of soldiers, and all that pertains to public welfare. Many perplexing problems of a domestic and international character have occupied the President during the two years of his administration which have elapsed, but this reorganization would have received attention early in the administration had it not been for the difficulties encountered in securing the necessary accord among the various executive departments involved. The President feels deep regret in the delay which has occurred and attributes it solely, to use his own words employed in his letter of transmittal, to the "difficulty which has been encountered in reconciling the views of the various persons charged with the responsibility of administering the executive branch of the Government."

I shall not take time to enter in detail into a discussion of the reorganization of those executive departments which do not affect education, but the general outline of the reorganization plan recommended by the President and the Cabinet is summarized as follows:

I. The coördination of the Military and Naval Establishments under a single Cabinet officer as the Department of National Defense.

II. The transfer of all non-military functions from the War and Navy Departments to civilian departments, chiefly Interior and Commerce.

III. The elimination of all non-fiscal functions from the Treasury Department.

IV. The establishment of one new department, the Department of Education and Welfare.

V. The change of the name of the Post Office Department to Department of Communications.

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VI. The attachment to the several departments of all independent establishments except those which perform quasi-judicial functions or act as service agencies for all departments.

Merge independent establishments—In his letter of transmittal to Mr. Walter F. Brown, chairman of the Joint Committee of the Senate and House on the Reorganization of Government Departments, the President says: "The changes, with few exceptions, notably that of coördinating all agencies of National defense, have the sanction of the Cabinet. In a few instances, which I believe are of minor importance, the principle of major purpose has not been followed to the letter, in order to avoid controversies which might jeopardize reorganization as a whole."

The administration's general reorganization program was presented in the United States Senate by Senator Reed Smoot, of Utah, a member of the Joint Committee on Reorganization, on Tuesday, February 13, with the request that the reorganization plan, together with the President's communication, be printed as a public document. It was accordingly printed in the Congressional Record of February 16. Those interested in studying further the general reorganization program may find it there. We will confine ourselves in the rest of our discussion purely to that part of the reorganization which affects education.

Will comprise four activities—The program of reorganization proposes the creation of a new executive department in the Government to be known as the Department of Education and Welfare, with a Secretary of Education and Welfare and executive offices. Under this department are to be four separate general activities, each of which functions under an Assistant Secretary. These four are Education, Public Health, Social Service, and Veteran Relief. It is proposed that all educational activities now being carried on by the Federal Government be merged into a division of the Department of Education and Welfare, which functions under the Assistant Secretary for Education, and to these it is proposed to add a division devoting itself entirely to physical education, there being no such activity now carried on in the Federal Government. In the Division of Public Health, which will function under the Assistant Secretary for Public Health, will be coördinated all those activities now being carried on by the Federal Government in this field. Likewise, all activities pertaining to Social Service now being carried on will be transferred to the Division of Social Service, and the Veterans' Bureau, which is now an independent establishment, together with the Bureau of Pensions, now in the Department of the Interior, will be transferred to the Division of Veteran Relief under the proposed Department of Education and Welfare.

Will unite educational activities—It is desirable to set out more specifically what is comprehended in the Division of Education of the new department. This Division of Education will take over the present Bureau of Education now in the Department of the Interior; the education of Indians, which is now being carried on by the Indian Bureau in the Department of the Interior; Howard University, which is now in the Department of the Interior; the Columbia Institution for the Deaf, and the Smithsonian

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Institution, both of which are now independent of any department. The latter includes the National Museum, the National Gallery of Art, the International Exchange Service, the Bureau of American Ethnology, the Astrophysical Observatory, the National Zoological Park, and the International Catalogue of Scientific Literature. A new bureau, devoting itself entirely to the promotion of physical education, will be created as a new departure. The Federal Board for Vocational Education, which now exists as an independent board functioning under three Cabinet officers, the Commissioner of Education, and three appointees of the President, will be transferred to the proposed new department, including the work of rehabilitating those disabled in industry.

Division of public health—Under the Division of Public Health it is proposed to include the Public Health Service, which is at present administered in the Treasury Department; quarantine and sanitation; hospitalization, which includes the National Home for Disabled Volunteer Soldiers, now an independent establishment; the Soldiers' Home, now administered by the War Department; St. Elizabeth's Hospital, and the Freedmen's Hospital, both now administered by the Department of the Interior. A Bureau of Research will complete the activities of the Division of Public Health.

Concentrate social service bureaus—To the Division of Social Service it is proposed to transfer part of the work of the Women's Bureau and part of the work of the Children's Bureau, both of which are now administered in the Department of Labor, and the Superintendent of Prisons, now administered in the Department of Justice.

To these four divisions will be attached a solicitor, as is the case in all the executive departments.

This, roughly, is the composition of the proposed new Department of Education and Welfare.

The need of a more unified, economical and efficient governmental program for promoting education and welfare scarcely requires any argument. We are all aware of the startling revelations which came at the time of the war with reference to the educational, physical, and social limitations of the young men who were called upon to serve their country in this emergency, but it may not be generally known that after a careful selection of men deemed capable of bearing arms in defense of their country had been made and the best known methods of preparation pursued, we had left in the United States at the time of the signing of the armistice 200,000 men who were detained in the several cantonments of the country because they had been rejected as being mentally and physically incapable of mobilization in the American Army.

Efficiency and economy the aim—Likewise, it hardly requires argument to convince reasonable men that the unification of the above mentioned activities of the Government will not only increase the efficiency of these respective organizations, but will result in great economy in their administration. The many bureaus, organizations, and establishments which are now carrying on

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these activities are expending annually a sum of more than $700,000,000. During the war and since the war we have talked so glibly in terms of billions that it is easy to minimize this enormous sum of money. It has been calculated that if 700,000,000 silver dollars were shipped in freight cars of a capacity of 40 tons each, it would take 628 cars or 16 train loads of 40 cars each to carry these dollars, making a continuous train over 6 miles long. If the number of silver dollars which are now being expended by the Federal Government in these various activities were placed edge to edge as closely together as possible they would extend 16,609 miles, or two thirds the distance around the globe at its equator. Certainly the expenditure of such a vast sum of money calls for careful organization, administration, and coördination if there is to be anything like a high degree of efficiency and reasonable economy.

In the selection of the four Assistant Secretaries who are to head up the activities of the four divisions under the proposed Department of Education and Welfare, the administration is determined that only questions of professional qualification, experience, and ability shall be considered. It is the desire of the President that the educational affairs shall be directed by the most highly competent, best trained, and most progressive educator available in the entire Nation. In each of the subdivisions of the Division of Education—general, physical, and vocational—it is again desired that competency and efficiency shall be considered in making the selection of those who are to head up these respective activities.

Greatest educational system conceivable—The administration is deeply desirous that education shall have the opportunity to progress untrammeled, to the limits of the most sanguine expectations. It contemplates offering all assistance and coöperation possible under our present form of government to the States and those administering education in the States, to the end that the educational system in the United States of America may be the best and greatest educational system conceivable. It is hardly necessary to say that the Federal Government does not contemplate exercising the functions of attempting to direct, administer, or in any other way interfere with the present development of education in the States. It has no thought to take from the States any of their rights, or to meddle or interfere with the localities which are now working out their own educational salvation. It only proposes to do everything that is humanly possible to serve, inform, and help those who are engaged in the responsibilities of educational administration. Of course, it should be understood that those educational activities which are now administered by the Federal Government will continue to be administered under the proposed new department, namely, the administration of education for the Indians, men disabled in war, and others who are peculiarly under the charge of the Federal Government.

The proposed new Department of Education and Welfare will offer the following advantages: First, it will provide great economy in the expenditure of money; second, by proper supervision, correlation of effort, and avoidance of reduplication and wasted effort, it will promote a high degree of efficiency; third, it will provide for the addition of important activities pertaining to

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education and welfare which are not now carried on by the Federal Government; fourth, it will place at the Cabinet table a spokesman for education and correlated matters, whose voice will be heard together with the spokesmen of agriculture, commerce, and labor; fifth, the immediate head of the Division of Education will be a professional educator and will not necessarily be changed in successive administrations as would be the case if he sat in the Cabinet. Other advantages might be mentioned, but these are the most outstanding and obvious improvements to be noted over the present system of administration.

Expert advice was sought—In planning this reorganization the administration has sought advice from those who were professionally qualified to make suggestions. Many of the leading educators have been called into conference, and no doubt when this plan comes before the Congress for discussion and adoption there will be opportunity for such criticism and further suggestion as those interested in education may care to offer. The President is recognized by all as a man who is exceedingly eager to secure suggestions and advice from experts in any and all matters coming under his purview. To quote one of his phrases, he desires at all times the product of "the best minds." His interest in the matter of public welfare and particularly better citizenship, was displayed recently in the creation by Executive order of a Federal Council on Citizenship Training, composed of representatives from each and all of the executive departments of the Government, in which objectives may be defined, suggestions made, and policies formulated so as to enhance in every possible manner the efforts and activities which are being carried on throughout the country for the improvement in standards of citizenship.

WHAT CONSTITUTES AMERICAN CITIZENSHIP

ALVIN M. OWSLEY, NATIONAL COMMANDER, AMERICAN LEGION
HEADQUARTERS, INDIANAPOLIS, INDIANA

Our forefathers who first ordained this great establishment of government were quick to realize that the measure of success of the popular sovereignty was dependent upon the popular intelligence. They knew that for the success of such a plan of popular management of public affairs, there must be an intelligent and informed voting population. And for this reason they established the great American system of public education.

They held that opportunity of education must be the birthright of the American citizen. They made provision for the establishment of that opportunity for all Americans. How well they builded in making such provision! The splendor and success of the great American experiment of popular government has attracted the admiring eyes of all peoples and races in the course of a hundred and fifty years, and nearly all new governments established since that time, have taken this American principle for their guide.

And thus, in short, it is this will to serve in the hearts of the American people and this knowledge of how to serve in their minds that have brought

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the American Nation into illustrious eminence. Through these great qualities of American citizenship, service, and education, we must work out our National destiny.

The quality of service is ours by nature and by National development. It was the lesson taught by the wilderness to the first of our pioneers. It is the lesson taught by the long hardships of the late war to the fighting youth of America. And it shall not fail us while this generation endures.

But the price of education is eternal endeavor and constant watchfulness. With the great prosperity of this Nation have come increasing difficulties in the maintenance of that standard of popular education that is necessary to the National existence. The great inflood of immigration; the resultant incorporation of alien nationalities into the body politic and the economic structure of America; the increasing complexity of industrial activities; and the large expansion of the Nation over new lands, have all contributed immeasurably to the problems of American education. And upon the advancement of American education depends the destiny of the American Nation. Let none mistake this fact, for it is not to be denied.

What then is the great immediate agency for this advancement of education, which is as vital to the future of the Nation as our Nation's future is to the destiny of the whole great world? I see before me in this hall today, embodied in this audience, the heart and soul of the great endeavor for education in America; and I bring you a message from a living instrumentality that is ready to your hand—a strong agency for patriotic endeavor whose members say to you: Come, let us work together, your task shall be our task for the sake of the land we love.

That agency is the American Legion. Ours is the will to do and to serve, and ours is the knowledge of how to serve. We know that the advancement of American education is the greatest of patriotic services they can render and upon that knowledge they take action. This American Legion comprises more than eleven thousand posts established in practically all the communities of America, and with its auxiliary it embraces a membership of over a million men and women. It has done much for American education. It will do more. Here are a few features of its program:

There are laws for compulsory school attendance on the statute books of all the States of the Union. The enforcement of these laws is a necessity to National education. Such enforcement will bring into regular school attendance nearly ten millions of children of school age who are today defrauded of their rightful equality of educational opportunity. To the enforcement of this legislation the American Legion, in every department and in every post, is committed absolutely; and in every State of the Union the Legion is taking action for such enforcement.

Properly to discharge his duties of citizenship, an American must have some knowledge of the history of his country and of the functioning of its civil government. In every State in the Republic, the American Legion is taking action for the establishment of compulsory courses in civics and

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American history in the public schools. In most of the States this point has been won.

The men of the Legion love this country that they serve, and they can conceive no finer service than the fostering of cultural unity and community of sentiment in the American population. There must be one Nation within the limits of the Republic, in the language of a great American, "one Nation indivisible, with liberty and justice for all." To establish one Nation out of diverse racial elements there must be a common cultural development based on a common language; and the language must be the official language of the United States of America. There is but one symbol of the life and spirit of America and that is the American flag. Let there be one language in all the schools of America and one flag flying over all the schools in America; the American flag and language a sign to all the world of American unity.

If there is to be a true cultural unity in America, then let there be a unity of educational policy in this land. To this conviction the American Legion stands committed, that no longer can the American Nation afford to ignore the educational needs of the masses of the American people. Through the observance of American Education Week, the Legion in coöperation with the National Education Association and the U. S. Bureau of Education, has awakened the public interest in the problems of education as never before. There are over fifteen thousand local posts and units of the American Legion and its Auxiliary; and I have yet to hear of a single one of these that did not take part in the observance of American Education Week. The cause of education and its problems and pressing needs were brought forward more prominently into the National attention through this observance than ever before in the history of the United States. And let me tell you something more. If the assistance of the Federal Government is to be extended to the States of the Union for the building of good roads, are we then going too far to suggest that those roads lead the feet of America's children into American schoolhouses rebuilt and modernized through coöperative assistance of the State and National Governments?

If the American Nation can spend three billion dollars a year on cigarettes and candy and chewing gum, then let me tell you that the American Nation can well spend thrice three billion dollars on the education of her boys and girls and be greatly benefited thereby.

There is much to be done. With every shipload of immigrants into America the problem of American education grows more complex. There are industrial interests in this country to whom the standards of American citizenship are as nothing compared with the profits possibly to be wrung from an unrestricted importation of cheap labor, and these interests are already setting on foot their propaganda for the lowering of the bars against immigration. There is a scarcity of labor, they say. And this in spite of the fact that a National employment census just completed by the National Americanism Commission of the American Legion shows a quarter of a million workmen unemployed in America today. Why, only a few days ago there was a snowstorm in New York City and a hurry call was

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sent out for jobless men to clear the streets of snow. And in this one city, in one half-day, for a makeshift job of a few hours, no less than twenty thousand men reported. One would think that such an event shows labor cheap enough for anybody; and a sharp condition of unemployment still unrelieved. Against any increase in immigration for the present, the American Legion stands committed to unalterable opposition. There must be no more immigration to flood this country while yet an American education is lacking to any resident upon our soil. . We do not want to be Europeanized, we do not intend to be Balkanized, and we have built a wall as a notice to the world of that determination. That strong army of defense and protection must not be torn down.

The representative association of the American veterans of the great war, under the name of the American Legion, has devoted itself to toil and work for America while this generation of men and women endures. These men and women are resolved upon the advancement of American education, her institution and ideals. They believe that along this avenue the future of the Republic and citizenship rests. They have set their hands to the task; they will not turn back ere the mission is done. Their eyes are lifted toward that America.

Beautiful for patriot dreams
That see beyond the years,
Thine Alabaster Cities gleam undimmed by human tears.
America—America—God shed His grace on thee
And crown thy good with brotherhood
From sea to shining sea.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON THE STATUS OF THE SUPERINTENDENT[1]

C. E. CHADSEY, DEAN OF COLLEGE OF EDUCATION, UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS
CHAIRMAN

Three years ago at the meeting of the Department of Superintendence the President-elect was instructed to appoint a committee for the purpose of investigating the question of the status of the superintendent. Inasmuch as there were no funds available for a meeting of this committee, the preliminary work had to be done entirely by correspondence. It was finally determined that it would be wise for the committee to secure as much definite, up-to-date information as possible concerning the duties and responsibilities of the superintendent and the general economic conditions under which he was working. Therefore, the committee resorted to the time-honored device of the questionnaire and sent it to all of the superintendents of the United States. It was a very detailed questionnaire. There was some doubt in the minds of some in the committee as to whether it was proper to ask as intimate questions as were asked, and it is one of the satisfactions of the committee

[1] Complete report will be found in the Yearbook of the department.

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that so many were willing to reveal their inmost secrets in order to give us this information. The questionnaires were returned but they did not all come at the same time. It is rather interesting that occasionally I still get isolated returns from this study—now, three years from the time of the appointment.

We then faced the proposition of digesting the returns and reaching worthwhile findings. Again we had very limited funds and it was only through the willingness of one of the members of the committee, Professor Engelhardt of Columbia University, that we were able to have the expert type of service which was necessary. He secured the services of Mr. Douglass, then a graduate student, who undertook the task of tabulating and analyzing these returns. The report has now been completed, has been printed and is in your hands as the first yearbook of the Department. We present this to you not as in reality the work of the committee itself, but as the analysis of the work which you yourselves did in the filling out of these questionnaires. It is our belief that there has been gotten together a mass of information concerning the actual conditions under which the superintendents of the United States are working which never has been available before and from which there can be developed a great deal of real value to the profession. I am quite sure that as you study this report you will find that there are many questions which will be raised which will, when answered, improve greatly the general condition of the work of the superintendents.

Speaking now unofficially, I wish to say that it seems to me that we can see from a study of these conditions that we are still far from having worked out any standardized set of duties and responsibilities which belong to the office, and as we from time to time learn of rather unusual conditions which develop from the lack of this standardized set of duties, we become more and more convinced that one of the things it is necessary to have accomplished in our States is a more detailed description of what these duties and responsibilities are. I am hoping that the time will come when we will see on the statute books of our States some definition of the superintendent and some statement as to the duties which, as a matter of law, adhere to the office, and when that time comes, many of the embarrassments under which individual members at times labor will be avoided.

Therefore, we present this report not with any idea that we have settled the question. We present certain findings which the questionnaires show to be true at the present time. You will see from studying this report that most of the duties which we have, are duties which we have by common consent. It is altogether probable that most of the duties always will be duties which will be those of common consent of the Board of Education but I believe that we should soon have a situation where not all of the duties are duties which are carried on by common consent but some of which are duties which adhere to the office itself and which cannot be taken away from the superintendent.

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SUGGESTIONS ON THE REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON THE STATUS OF THE SUPERINTENDENT

N. L. ENGELHARDT, PROFESSOR OF EDUCATION, TEACHERS COLLEGE
COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY, NEW YORK CITY

The report on the status of the superintendent of schools has been made possible through the generous coöperation of approximately twelve hundred city superintendents. Answers to the questionnaires which were sent out two years ago were returned from superintendents of all sizes of cities and from all parts of the nation, so that the twelve hundred replies may be considered representative of the profession. The widespread source of the replies also determined the combinations of size groupings and geographical groupings which have been utilized as a basis for the statistical presentation.

The objective of the study was largely the determination of the status of the superintendent of schools with reference to training, experience, tenure, financial compensation, economic status, and the professional activities in which he engages. Of these elements, some are readily measurable while others, such as the economic status and the professional activities clearly present insurmountable difficulties in their expression in objective terms. It was felt, however, that whatever might be done toward a clarification of the economic as well as professional status of the superintendent would be appreciated by the individual members of this organization.

The task of tabular presentation and statistical interpretation was generously assumed by Professor B. C. Douglass, of the University of Vermont. Every superintendent realizes, I am sure, the magnitude of the task and the costs in time and money which fell to his lot. The Hollerith machine was kept busy many a long day in order to present the report in the detail given.

The report has confined itself largely to the statement of existing facts. It has attempted to collect and consolidate information which would aid, in some slight degree, in the establishment of higher standards and greater solidarity in the profession. It has recognized the need for placing in the cities, data which might assist in a program of advancement of our professional interests and ideals.

The task of complete interpretation and the responsibility of making recommendations for a comprehensive future policy of this Department covering desirable legislation or giving concrete expression for the Department on other phases of an advanced professional program, has not been undertaken. Such obviously, is the next logical step. It implies the creation of another committee endowed with proper powers.

The outstanding features or findings of the report include the highly comprehensive professional preparation and training upon which superintendents in increasing numbers are basing the administration of city schools; the wide experience as teacher, principal and supervisor which in so many instances the superintendent presents on assuming office; the favorable comparison to be made between preparation and apprenticeship for the city superintendency as contrasted with other professions and the continually increasing

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interest of the superintendent in adding to his professional preparation while in service. It is clear from the report that the salary paid the superintendent of schools is frequently neither commensurate with the preparation and training which the administrator offers, nor is the superintendent as favorably compensated for his service as are those in other professions offering like amounts of professional preparation.

It is clear that the superintendent plays a highly important rôle in the civic and social organizations of his community and thus serves his community in a dual capacity. Although the median salary of the superintendent of schools has increased forty-one per cent, in the last eight-year period, 1913-1921, the cost of living has advanced 100 per cent. The relationship between living expenses and income leaves the impression that it might be most desirable to make the tangible rewards of the superintendency a more comprehensive part of the rewards secured. It is evident, however, that in spite of the slight balances that are left after living expenses are deducted, the superintendent is making every sacrifice to equip himself to render a more efficient and more professional service.

Tenure of office has been analyzed in two ways: according to individuals and according to cities. The attractiveness of the profession of superintendent of schools would be materially enhanced if the term which a superintendent spends in a community could be lengthened. The frequency with which men have changed positions for only slight increases in salary leads to the conclusion that communities have frequently adopted the policy with respect to tenure which was penny-wise and pound-foolish.

It cannot be expected that stability and continuity will be secured for local educational programs and that the attendant economies will result except as a more reasonable policy of retention in office be followed by boards of education with respect to the superintendent. The profession has long passed that level where annual election has the slightest element of justice in it either to the professional educator or the community to be served. If this report accomplished nothing more than to indicate the need for further departmental action on this point, it will have served its purpose. The median completed tenure for the country has only been three years while 506 out of 3020 completed tenures have been of one-year duration only and 538 of two-year duration only. Annual election is still the usual means of extending a superintendent's service. When city tenures are analyzed, it becomes clear that communities themselves have followed the policy of frequently changing superintendents.

The professional leadership of the superintendent is emphasized by Professor Douglass in the last chapter of the report. It is striking that the powers of the superintendent are derived more frequently from common consent rather than from statute or local regulations. It is a fitting acknowledgment of the personal and professional fitness of our present incumbents. In fact, the most outstanding note of the whole study is that "leadership ability" has been one of the most highly selective factors in the elevation of men to the superintendency.

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There has been no fixed road of travel from entrance into teaching to the superintendent's chair. Initiative, energy, intelligence, and social insight have opened the door to all. The future of the profession lies before us. The departmental program for the future may well capitalize the desirable assets of the past and indicate to prospective administrators the wisest policy to pursue that they may assist in the promotion and advancement of the profession.

A PROGRAM FOR THE COMING YEAR

ROBINSON G. JONES, CHAIRMAN OF THE 1924 YEARBOOK COMMITTEE
SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, CLEVELAND, OHIO

It is a little difficult to know where to begin and where to end in predicting what is best for this organization. Those of us who have been active in the work of this Department during the period of its re-organization have been interested to know what the organization can do that will give permanency and constant efficiency to the men in the field.

This annual meeting has become, as you can see, very large, almost unwieldy, fairly inspirational, but it is difficult to summarize the residue of it when we have finished. There ought to be some organization which would go throughout the year and which would furnish to the superintendent country-wide a clearing-house result of what is going on.

Our Bureau of Education has never been sufficiently financed by the Federal Government to get out with speed and dispatch the material which we desire. The National Education Association has not found it possible to do this. We have been interested for several years in pushing the Towner-Sterling Bill in the hope that it would solve our problem. That legislation has not materialized so far. This Department itself probably offers as good an opportunity for a clearing house of all that there is in public education as any other institution now in sight.

I will guarantee that there will be on my table before spring not less than fifty questionnaires on salary schedules. You are not exempt. You will have to answer, too. "Why are your conditions different from Detroit?" they ask you when you submit the salary schedule. There could be no finer thing for us than to be able to send to Washington or any general clearing house and say, "Will you let us have the salary scale situation as it is for cities of our sizes?"

You spent about $14,000 in 1922 for the operation of this Department. Probably one of these meetings costs $6000. The balance is spent through the remainder of the year. The quality of the information I have suggested to you cannot be bought for $6000 a year. You need a high grade research man with stenographic and clerical help.

The city of Cleveland, merely by reason of its size, has been able to develop something of a research department, and so have St. Louis, New York, Chicago, Detroit—probably Detroit is in the forefront of all on this

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subject. These cities are getting a constant deluge of calls for information. The larger cities are having to take the place of a clearing house. We are perfectly willing to pool our interests with the larger cities and schools of education in the universities and contribute our part. If twenty of us cooperate one can take care of salary questions, one the cubic foot cost of building, one the question of assembly buildings—and take time sufficient to get the material in order so that it will be reliable before sending it in to the office at Washington, where you now have a permanent Secretary, who in turn, will distribute the material subject to your call.

I think it was Mr. John K. Norton who said last night that the men who will be subject to the call of this Committee will probably give material to this organization that you could not buy for any small sum of money, the Department paying only for the cost of securing and distributing it.

Now, the question is, how shall this matter be financed? We volunteered a year ago to make the attempt to charge a five dollar fee. Perhaps a five dollar fee is as large as it should be. We shall have to find some ways and means to get money enough to build a clearing-house in Washington of a little larger dimensions than at present. Probably there should be ten thousand dollars a year additional.

The members of the Yearbook Committee last night raised a question as to whether we could ask any agency in this country to subsidize this organization for a period of three years until there can be a larger registration and larger income from memberships. Personally, I have no fear of the foundations. I would not hesitate to go before my Board of Education, to whom I am personally responsible, and say that I would like to see any of the great foundations subsidize this Department for the sum of ten thousand dollars.

Now, suppose I should put a number of questions. Do you know what the building cost per cubic foot is? Do you know what the percentage is for equipment with gymnasiums and assembly rooms? Do you know what the common opinion is on the platoon system? Do you believe we should have patent ventilating systems? These are questions our Boards of Education discuss day after day in spite of the fact that they have architectural departments and skilled engineers all the time. Our Department will be subject to the call of any man here through the Washington office if this plan is adopted and then if you say, "We want to know what the height of a room should be," or "the number of square feet for an elementary school," you will get the benefit of all the other schools' experience.

President Beveridge: How many believe in the general plan of having at Washington a clearing-house where you can get the information you desire in a short time? You can't do it all this year, but a beginning can be made. Raise your hands.

The majority raised their hands.

Is there any one here who has a fear of the foundations if some of us will go out and get $10,000?

No hands were raised.

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I want this Department to function and function in an effective way and I am willing to put the burden on this Committee.

Mr. S. Monroe Graves (Wellesley Hills, Mass.): Why would it not be possible to put this service on a subscription basis? Each city concerned could subscribe say twenty-five dollars a year toward the cost, and in that way the expense would be met and it would be available to all of us on a good sound, economic plan.

Mr. Jones: If that is in the minds of any of the men here, we would like to have an expression on it. I have no doubt it will not be difficult for any city to give twenty-five dollars as a subscription when it is convinced that it can get fifty dollars back.

If you will stop to figure it a moment, think what the cost would be for traveling expenses to go to some other city and get information on some one topic. Why, twenty-five dollars is spent like a flash. You know that twenty-five dollars is nothing when it comes to securing valuable information that adds to the economy of the operation of your system. On a building program of $500,000 in the change of size of one room, or one square foot, what would twenty-five dollars be?

President Beveridge: The chair would like to ask one question. How many feel that your cities would be willing to contribute, say twenty-five dollars?

About half the members raised their hands.

Mr. Jones: I have been asked by a member from the floor to explain that it was not intended that the foundation should do this work but that it should temporarily subsidize this organization financially.

Mr. William J. Bickett (Trenton, N. J.): I would like to suggest that it would seem better for the cause of public education if a canvass could be made and see if this could not be accomplished through subscription rather than by adoption of the foundation idea.

President Beveridge: How many would vote to authorize the Secretary to send out letters to the members asking if their cities are willing to contribute twenty-five dollars—as Mr. Bickett has suggested?

Mr. Bickett's suggestion was approved.

Mr. Frank Cody (Detroit, Mich.): May I say that I am sure that the teachers' associations throughout this country would be able to subsidize and be willing to contribute? I think they ought to be used.

President Beveridge: We will leave it to the committee. If there is nothing further, we will proceed with the program—"My Experience in Administering Education." That is an important topic. The plan of your Chairman has been to bring together significant experiences in short addresses that will help you in administering education in an effective way.

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BOY SCOUTS

FRANK CODY, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, DETROIT, MICHIGAN

ORGANIZATION

Five years ago the Detroit Board of Education approved the Boy Scout movement by granting permission to use school buildings with heat, light, and janitor service provided. Previous to this about ten scout troops had been meeting in schools, but had paid for janitor service. At the present time, out of 160 regularly organized scout groups, 103 make weekly use of school buildings.

COÖPERATION

In the spring of 1920 the Board of Education and the Detroit Council, Boy Scouts of America, established an actual working basis of coöperation. A Field Scout Executive, recommended by the local Council, was appointed by the Superintendent in October, 1920. This executive is paid by the Board of Education. By this coöperation plan, the scouts have been helped in the following ways:

(a) 15 community troops were taken over by the schools division.

(b) 29 additional school troops have been organized since October, 1920.

(c) 20 additional schools are organizing troops at present and 30 more have signified their intention of organizing.

(d) We expect to have 65 registered school troops by April 1, 1923.

Through the agency of the schools it is expected that the Detroit Council, Boy Scouts of America, will soon be able to say that there are enough troops organized so that any boy in Detroit who wants scouting can get it without having to go outside of his own neighborhood. This could never have been hoped for without the practical aid of the schools.

One of the important features in furthering this work has been the publishing by the Board of Education of a Special Scout Number of the *Detroit Education Bulletin,* in which the actual methods, aims, and principles of Scouting were explained. Another important feature has been the publishing of a Special School number of the Detroit Scout Signal, through which it was possible to promote the school aims and methods among the scouts and scoutleaders.

Scout rooms have been included in the regular plans for two new intermediate schools, the Barbour and the Hutchins, with the result that, in addition to the weekly meetings, these rooms serve as Scout District Headquarters, where rallies, examinations, and contests can be held. The use of equipment from the Visual Education and Health Education Departments has been of great service to the scouts.

RESULTS

The scouts serve their respective schools in many ways. They are used for demonstrations, especially in First Aid and Safety Education work, act as ushers, do traffic duty, take charge of patriotic exercises, perform services

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for the school stage, plant trees on the school grounds, manage crowds at basketball games, and aid in actual class work discussions on "Thrift" and "Things Seen on a Hike."

The fact that the scouts have been accepted by the Board of Education has done much to make the general public feel that Scouting is not a mere passing fad, but that it has a permanent and lasting contribution to make to American life. Parents have been more willing to take their boys' word for it that Scouting is not a military organization and have been willing to let their boys join.

Finally, those who are concerned with the actual working of this scheme of coöperation between the schools and the scouts believe that something of a similar nature needs to be developed, at least in the larger cities of America, if both the schools and the scout movement are to serve their full function in American Life.

OUTDOOR GYMNASIUM

THEODORE SAAM, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, COUNCIL BLUFFS, IOWA

"The boy without a playground is the father to the man without a job" is the statement which made Joseph Lee famous a generation ago. In the preface to Lee's Constructive and Preventive Philanthropy, Jacob Riis asserted that if Lee had written nothing else he would have gained a place among the real sages of his day. A few years later some of us were startled when Woods Hutchinson remarked that he would rather have a playground without a school than a school without a playground.

After the results of the physical examinations of the American army were published even school men became interested and incorporated a provision for physical education in the Towner-Sterling Bill.

With the general recognition of the importance of physical education and the acceptance of play as its principal medium, can a feasible program be adopted in view of the ever present financial limitations? If such a program depended upon gymnasiums, the outlook would be hopeless. Henry Curtis in his "School Grounds and Play" published in 1921, estimates that less than 2,000,000 of the 25,000,000 school children have access to a gymnasium. In all probability less than 5 per cent of the elementary schools in America have gymnasiums. To equip these schools with gymnasiums would add at least $1,000,000,000 to the school budget. This is an impossible procedure at the present time. For the remaining 23,000,000 children, a physical education program must be abandoned or an outdoor program must be adopted. Will the climate in the U. S. permit an outdoor program?

Of the 48 States only 12 have a mean January temperature as low as +20° F. The average number of zero days in the remaining 36 States does not exceed 12. The number of days in which physical education cannot be conducted in the open air on account of the severe winters in the large majority of States is very limited. The *Chicago Tribune*, quoting from the

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This form of handling the janitor service is the outgrowth of a plan which had been in operation for some eight years, in which the individual janitors were called "cleaning contractors" and were awarded a contract to care for their respective schools in order to avoid the necessity of appointing such help from the civil service list, the city solicitor having ruled that this action was entirely legal.

The "bids" of the individual janitors had been gradually increasing and two years ago last May it became apparent that there was a considerable movement on foot among the janitors to gradually increase the amount of their bids and to do it in accordance with a well-defined plan of their own devising. To meet the situation, the Board let it be known—in fact, it was so stated in the advertisement, that it would consider bids for groups of buildings or one complete bid for the care of all buildings within the school district, reserving the right to reject any or all bids and to readvertise if so desired. It was hoped by this means to make the janitors understand that there was a limit to the increase in price and the decrease in service beyond which the Board would not go, for, in addition to increasing the price for their services, the janitors had also, through a combination of their forces, been reducing the amount and character of service rendered. The warning, however, failed to have any effect, for, when the bids came in, the prices had been increased 50 per cent, 100 per cent, and in some cases 150 per cent. over the former contracts.

The aggregate of the individual contracts expiring on May 1, 1920, was $629.86. The new bids from the same janitors totaled $1272.70 a day. But among the bids received was one for the entire service for $975 a day, and this the Board accepted, for it meant a saving of approximately $200,000 for the two-year period and it meant also getting rid of a service that in many other respects was becoming intolerable.

Upon the expiration of the two-year period last May, bids were again invited under the same conditions, and desirable individual janitors and engineers, both of the former and present service, were personally invited to submit bids for single schools or for groups of schools with the result that the total of the low individual bids this year amounted to less than $900 a day ($882.65 to be exact), instead of $1200 a day as submitted two years ago. Among these, however, were several irresponsible bidders so that the total of the individual bids that could be accepted was approximately $900 a day.

The bid of the general contractor who had been doing the work for the past two years was $1000 a day. There were, however, three other complete bids, one for $870, one for $867.50, and a third of $783, this last from the superintendent who had been in charge of the work under the former contractor. His bid was accepted with the clear understanding that he would be required to live up to all the terms of his contract and that a failure would result in the business manager's taking charge, employing the necessary help and charging the cost to him or to the bonding company. He was given the opportunity of withdrawing his bid if he did not feel that he could, under the price named, fully meet his obligations. The contract was

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signed and the business manager and superintendent have been insisting that the service should be maintained in accordance with the high standards set up in the specifications.

I personally visited every school the week before the session opened in September and, in addition, had the principals give me a written report on all conditions as they found them upon the opening day. The result was that the buildings as a whole were in a cleaner and better condition than they had ever been before upon the opening day of school. In a number of schools this standard has not been maintained since that time in all respects, due largely to the frequent changes in personnel, but it is the purpose of the Board to insist on a full compliance with the terms of the contract or to apply the remedy provided in case of unsatisfactory service, and, in any event, the Board is securing its janitor service at $489 a day less than the cost would have been under the bids submitted by the individual janitors two years ago, which amounts to a saving of $150,000 a year. In the end I believe we will secure service which is at least equal to, if not better, than under the former plan of employing individual janitors.

STIMULATING THE GROWTH OF TEACHERS

FREDERICK H. BAIR, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS
COLORADO SPRINGS, COLORADO

In the last thirty years there have been 300,000 teaching jobs added to those that were already existent. The filling of those jobs has been a matter of compromise between what we wanted and what we could get. The conditions of teaching are usually soporific rather than inspiring so that any man who is trying to stimulate the growth of his teachers shares the prayer of the old Sunday School superintendent—"O Lord, grant us a more active 'corpse' of teachers!"

This problem is an abiding problem and comes squarely back to the superintendent.

I propose to discuss the problem under three phases. The first is public and has to do with the superintendent's obligation of educating the public mind and moving the public will to a constantly higher standing and status of the teacher.

The second is professional and has to do with the superintendent's obligation to secure as far as he can an adequate economic base for a professional life for the teachers and to secure constantly an increasingly and well directed participation by the teachers in the problems of education as well as in its details.

The third is personal and has to do with the obligation of the superintendent to maintain his own personal culture and curiosity and growth.

There are two or three things in the line of public education that we ought to thoroughly propagandize. One is the need of more men, and I seriously propose at least a consideration of the advisability of employing

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Weather Bureau reports, very optimistically asserted that the Chicago winters were constantly growing milder. In fact, the present winters in Chicago are as mild as winters in Evansville, Indiana, were thirty years ago, and the winters of northern Michigan are now like the winters of Chicago were three decades ago. If this tendency continues, milder winter weather may be expected in our northern states. But how would the outdoor physical education program be affected should the weather reverse its present tendency?

Very probably 85 per cent of the school children in the U. S. can take their physical training outdoors during the winter months with little discomfort. But what about the 15 per cent whose winters are severe? Outdoor programs may be adopted for these children also if we accept a principle emphatically stated by Professor Snedden, that a child can play and take his recreation in the climate in which he lives.

In Council Bluffs the annual mean temperature is 55°, the mean temperature for January is 20°. Without a single gymnasium in its elementary schools, a program was adopted in 1919 in which physical education of every child was required through supervised play or formal exercises. School finances did not permit the construction of a single gymnasium for its elementary schools. The surface of most playgrounds is not adapted to daily use during many of the days in the fall, winter and spring. An experiment was tried.

Adjoining one of the largest elementary schools an outdoor gymnasium floor made of concrete was built. After one year this proved so satisfactory that seven more were constructed in various parts of the city. They vary in size from 40′ x 70′ to 50′ x 100′ and cost from $600 to $1000. They are usually located near the schools and protected against the cold winds. They are constructed according to the same specifications as the standard cement walks. The following types of exercises are being daily and satisfactorily performed on these outdoor floors:

1. Folk dancing.
2. Calisthenics.
3. Rhythmic exercises.
4. Setting up exercises.
5. Relay races.
6. End ball.
7. Captain ball.
8. Dodge ball.
9. Volley ball.
10. Basket ball.
11. Playground baseball.

In a questionnaire recently filled out by the principals and teachers of physical education in Council Bluffs, all are unanimous in stating that these outdoor gymnasium floors are perfectly satisfactory and that up to the present date there has not been a single instance of physical injury.

Compared with the playground the superiority of the concrete floor is evident:

1. It can be used more days in the year, it is not muddy in the rainy season, it is not slushy in the thawing season, it is not dusty in the dry season.

2. Its surface is more even and durable than any playground constantly used.

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3. Its field marks can be painted on the concrete and are permanent.

From our experience in Council Bluffs we recognize also certain advantages of these outdoor floors even over well equipped indoor gymnasiums:

1. Low initial cost, less than 20 cents sq. ft.

2. No upkeep—no heat, light, ventilation, humidifier, equipment, repair, or even janitor service.

3. More sunshine, less dust and purer and more invigorating atmosphere.

To school men interested in a comprehensive physical education program for all children, Council Bluffs recommends the outdoor concrete floor as a substitute for a gymnasium, where the latter cannot be financed and as a most desirable and durable supplement to schools equipped with adequate gymnasiums and playgrounds. That children can take their physical training outdoors during all the months of the year is not only a feasible proposition; it is a healthful school procedure.

JANITOR SERVICE

RANDALL J. CONDON, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, CINCINNATI, OHIO

In Cincinnati, for the past two and a half years, the entire janitor service, including heating engineers for all of the schools, has been under one general contract under which the contractor furnishes all cleaning materials and employs all engineers, janitors and other help necessary to care for the schools, in accordance with the specifications which have been set up by the Board of Education for this branch of the service.

The contractor is under bond with the surety company in the amount of $75,000, to provide the amount and character of service required. He agrees to furnish the help required by the business manager of the Board of Education, to employ only licensed engineers for steam heated buildings, and janitors and such other help as may be approved by the business manager, and to perform all work to his entire satisfaction. If this is not done in all particulars, the contract gives the business manager the authority, after due notice, to take charge of any school or any branch of the work, employ the necessary help and charge the cost of the service to the contractor.

The janitors and engineers are under the immediate supervision of the principals in all matters except as to the mechanical features of the heating plants, for which they are directly responsible to the business manager or his representative.

The Board employs a visiting engineer and a cleaning inspector whose duty it is to see that all work is performed in accordance with the terms of the contract.

Specifications have been very carefully worked out to cover every feature of the service, such as heating, sweeping, dusting, window washing, floor scrubbing, care of yard, lawns, shrubbery, etc. The service is advertised, bids are invited, and contracts let for a two-year period.

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This problem is an abiding problem and comes squarely back to the superintendent.

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There are two or three things in the line of public education that we ought to thoroughly propagandize. One is the need of more men, and I seriously propose at least a consideration of the advisability of employing

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married women after they get past the active biological dependence of their children upon them.

I think our first obligation is to fight for a professional training and status. I saw an article in Des Moines defending the State teachers who had had the nerve to do a little lobbying. Evidently it is all right for farmers and bricklayers to do lobbying but if a school teacher turns to anything like that, he is to be crushed, even by a presumably intelligent legislature.

There are a number of other things that I think everyone else is practicing: the question of little papers to keep the family close together and know what is going on; there is the plan Mr. Weet has developed at Rochester; the question of exchange of teachers, which I believe can be made a source of stimulus and growth.

The heart of the people lies in the more inspiring cultured leadership on the part of superintendents, principals, and teachers. The biggest job filled sometimes with the smallest people is that of the elementary school principal. If we can't at the present salaries command able and big-calibered folks, we can at least zone them, and have one good person over three or four schools, providing him with adequate clerical help to carry through his work. I think we ought to face the problems squarely that most of us allow ourselves to become high class chore boys rather than intellectual dynamos. We are caught in the meshes of budget and all the other machinery of school administration until it is said we have completed our education, usually at the age of forty. It isn't fair to expect the teachers to grow unless one is growing himself.

These, then, seem to be the three phases or salients of the battle line for the development of an abiding growth in the teaching of our personnel:

First, a constant and brave and patient education of the public mind from the Ichabod Crane stage. I believe there is one slogan that we ought to put on all our stationery of this Association, on all our local department stationery and in all our professional newspapers and magazines, that "tomorrow belongs to the professional teacher."

The second phase is by providing an economic base, and that comes up to the third, our own personal selves. How can we expect children to be eager if we have, at the age of forty, ceased to be eager ourselves?

CHICAGO'S PUBLIC SCHOOL CLASSES FOR CRIPPLED CHILDREN

PETER A. MORTENSON, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, CHICAGO, ILLINOIS

Your children know the green lane, the babbling brook, the trembling leaves of the trees and the blue of the sky; they run and leap and play; but, there are those to whom the sky is drab, the alleys unkempt and the vista unlovely; whose backs are hunched or whose limbs are withered, children to whom opportunity is denied. Yet these children of misfortune, victims of disease, of accident, or of the sins of their fathers are to live with our chil-

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dren; are to be optimists or pessimists, happy or miserable, assets or liabilities, as the community may elect. To open the way to happiness; to build up faith and confidence; to inspire courage and self-respect, this is the work of the schools for the handicapped.

Twenty-four years ago the Chicago Public School System organized its first class for crippled children, in coöperation with the Orthopedic Hospital. Today Chicago has four centers, caring for seven hundred children, most of whom are carried to and from their homes in motor busses. The largest of these schools is ideally located adjoining the children's hospital. It is a unit building designed for and enrolling only crippled children, while the other three are supervised departments of regular schools. The criterion for enrollment in and transfer to these schools is: Can we improve the child's physical and mental condition? Many children in these schools could attend classes for normal children if it were only a question of locomotion.

The aim in all four centers is the same: To bring to every child the best physical condition it is possible for him to attain; the best education it is possible for him to assimilate; to help him find his place in the world's work. We are asking no more for the crippled child than for the normal one. It is only a difference of facilities and cost. It is self-evident that so broad an aim could not be accomplished with the facilities of even a specially equipped school but must be reached in close coöperation with generous hospitals, famous surgeons, and fine social service agencies. The Board of Education does everything within its legal limit—philanthropic and civic organizations meet it here leaving no gap. Literally speaking, nothing stands between a child in these special classes and scientific care but the refusal of the parents to give their consent. Such a refusal is now rare, and even here, recently the courts have stepped in to the extent of ordering coöperation in the case of a major operation.

The aim of the work has developed three departments in the administration of the schools—academic training, physical rehabilitation, and industrial work. The last is both pre-vocational and vocational. The academic training follows the course of study for the regular schools. Besides these, a number of pupils have individual training in millinery, sewing, etc. Careful grading makes it possible to transfer a child back to the regular school at any time during the year without loss in his academic course. In the largest school, during the last year, 15 per cent of the children were returned to a regular school on the advice of physicians, after the aim desired had been accomplished.

Hand work or industrial training is given with three aims in mind: Its general educational value, just as it would be offered to the normal child; happy, self-forgetful, physical exercise, in most cases corrective, for the child who for years has been excused from any kind of work that required surmounting physical difficulties; and pre-vocational or vocational training, the amount and character of which varies with the child, the subject and the grade. Two of the centers for crippled children have well-equipped shops for teaching sewing, millinery, cooking, cobbling, sheet metal, printing, wood-

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work, weaving, clay, modelling, etc. Classes in cobbling keep the shoes of the children mended and make high soles of cork or balsa wood according to a physician's measurements. The sheet metal classes have for two years been mending and making new arm braces requiring the use of only tin or aluminum. A forge and anvil are being installed so they may learn the use of iron and steel in this work.

The Vocational Guidance Department of the public school system works in close coöperation with the schools. Visiting teachers make the contact between the home and the school and give detailed assistance in the study of vocational guidance of over-age pupils of whom there are many, due to the long periods of confinement in homes and hospitals. To meet this condition, in part, the Board of Education provides bedside teachers in hospitals near the largest centers for crippled children. The Vocational Guidance Department has besides its visiting teachers, a field worker who directs the placement of all handicapped pupils looking for employment. She, too, assists in planning the training of the over age groups.

As we have built up our rehabilitation plan and our graded classes under expert teachers, we have changed the trend of thought that all crippled children must be trained for "trades." Our slogan for the mentally normal crippled child, "On to high school and to college." We have strong alumni associations in the two larger schools numbering hundreds of successful men and women in the business world; but by far the largest number of the eighth grade graduates of recent years are in high school and a number of the older ones are in college studying for the professions. Many others, who are at work are maintaining themselves and receiving higher education under the State Federal Rehabilitation Act, which offers vocational training to handicapped adults.

In the field of mental and physical rehabilitation, the work of these schools is unique. Almost without exception visitors remark upon the happiness and the lack of self-consciousness among the children. From the day a pupil enters, he is made to forget himself and his particular handicap, to succeed in everything he undertakes, to stop at nothing, and to be proud of his success. Always he has the example of someone worse off than himself, whom he can assist. One day a boy who had only one normal arm said to his manual training teacher, impatiently, "Oh, I wish I had two good arms." Just then a little chap who had no arms at all came running gaily into the room. The first boy caught his breath and said, "You won't hear me say that again. One arm is better than none at all."

We have a measure of the success of our attempt at mental rehabilitation in the specific attitude of the older children who have been enrolled for a long period in the special schools as compared with those who enter in seventh or eighth grade. The first are objective minded, in their attitude toward their deformity, even to the extent of laughing at themselves and with others at falls or clumsy efforts. Much fun is had in the gymnasium in discussing muscles which have peculiar or difficult names. One may hear. "Say, how are your quadruceps today?" "My ham-strings don't track."

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The latter child is introspective, hard to approach and many times morose and resentful. An unwritten rule of each school is that the word "cripple" is not used within its doors either by teacher or child.

It was not until eight years ago that any attempt was made to carry on physical rehabilitation as an authorized part of the public school work. Today every child who enters one of these schools is registered twice, once under his class room teacher and again under one of the physical education teachers. The latter is then responsible for the physical improvement of the child in work which is carried on in close coöperation with the class room teacher and teachers of hand work. Before the child enters, or as soon after as is possible, the visiting teacher gets his social and physical history, thus placing him as a private or clinical case determining how the expense of his hospital and surgical care shall be met, whether by parents, in part or in full, or by philanthropy. We strive not to make paupers of our children but aim to use common sense and justice rather than sentimentality in deciding his place in the social scale.

A physician or surgeon assumes all of the physical responsibility of each case, not only in the hospital but in the school. The physical education teachers take the children to the clinics with their carefully kept records, report their progress, offer or receive further suggestions. The most remarkable and efficient team-work based on mutual respect and personal contact, has grown up between the orthopedic surgeons and these physical education teachers.

The distribution of the diagnosis of the children is about as follows:

	1917-1918 *Per cent*	1921-1922 *Per cent*
Infantile paralysis	50	62
Bone tuberculosis	33	18
Spastic paralysis	17	0
Heart	0	10
Miscellaneous	0	10

While there is very little reduction in the percentage of cases of infantile paralysis, an epidemic disease which comes in waves, great strides have been made in preventing the usual resulting deformity and in increasing muscle power after paralysis. The disfiguring deformities which may be seen among our older children and alumni are not to be found among the little children. We know now that no victim of infantile paralysis need ever be a prisoner in a wheel chair; but yet hundreds of children are without the care which might release them.

The reduction in cases of tuberculosis of the bone is a nation wide result, we are told, of pasteurized milk, dairy inspection, and the isolation from little children of open cases of tuberculosis. As tuberculosis of the bone has declined, cardiac cases have increased in the schools. It is said that heart disease is responsible for more handicapped people in adult life than any other one disease. The leading heart specialists and medical social service workers have organized a Society for the Prevention and Relief of Cardiac

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Disease. Its officers and committees are watching and aiding this experiment with a group of cardiac cases at one of the schools.

Within the schools themselves as after-care, we have provided the following facilities: Feeding—some children five times a day, all twice; one group, the larger, fed to increase their weight and a small one to reduce their weight; baths for cleanliness and medical purposes; a dental dispensary; rest rooms for regular periods during the day as prescribed; a physio-therapy room where are given baking, massage, active and passive exercises, and all necessary individual treatment; a regularly equipped gymnasium where children, under watchful eyes, are urged to use the apparatus.

All the children fall into three roughly divided groups—wheel chair children, who must be trained to use crutches; those on crutches who must drop them; others with braces or without who must learn to walk as independently and normally as possible. Many attend our large high schools, who have lost fifty per cent of the muscle power in their lower limbs, but with good braces and the proper physical and mental training during the early years of helplessness they go their way as independently as other children.

The cost of this work in Chicago is about three hundred and fifty dollars per pupil based on actual attendance, more than half of which is for a transportation service. We have no state aid as many communities have.

Chicago has learned that, "The education of the crippled child is not philanthropy, but enlightened self interest." We are trying to conserve and to build up; to extend a measure of opportunity in proportion to the need. The cost is indeed great, but is easily justified when balanced against the economic waste resulting from the accumulation of human wreckage; when considered in the light of converting a liability into an asset; a life of darkness into one of joy and self-respect.

WHAT I MOST DESIRE OF MY ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENT

THOMAS R. COLE, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, SEATTLE, WASHINGTON

During the major portion of the time that I have been engaged in educational work, it has been my rare good fortune to be associated with some of the most capable leaders in our profession—men who knew the art of getting the best from their associates. I might well, therefore, in the few minutes allotted to me, pay tribute to them as my contribution to the field of school supervision.

COÖPERATION IS THE FIRST ESSENTIAL QUALITY OF AN ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENT

The success of any school system rests largely upon the degree of coöperation that exists between its component parts. Every effort that does not sacrifice honesty of purpose and efficiency should be made to bring about that unity.

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A few months ago I accompanied the president of a large manufacturing company on a trip to his factory. Knowing that he was a very successful business man, I was anxious to learn something about his plan of administration. When we reached the office of the plant, I was impressed with the cordial greeting the president gave to all of his employees. Their attitude toward him was equally cordial. I recognized one of the clerks who was a former school pupil, and made use of the acquaintance to ask questions regarding the management of the factory. He said, "We feel like a family here. Mr. X gets everyone from the errand boy to the manager to take a personal interest in the business."

That evening when I was conversing with the president, I mentioned the fine coöperative spirit that I had noticed among his men. He said in reply, "I learned a long time ago as a day worker that in order to get the largest returns from your men you must treat them all well and feed them well. Some managers forget in these days of keen competition that the lowest salaried employees are often the persons who make a business a success or a failure."

I thought how simple was his formula of success, yet how few possess the inspirational power of leadership to follow it successfully.

In order to give an assistant superintendent the proper opportunity to coöperate, he must first understand definitely what his work is to be and the extent of his authority. This is a very common statement, yet I wonder if every assistant superintendent in the schools represented here today has had that question definitely answered.

Assuming that each assistant superintendent knows his field of work, the next step is to coördinate the efforts of all into one working unit. The Seattle plan of coöperation is as follows: We have a regular conference meeting on Monday morning at ten o'clock. The general policies of the school system are discussed with the utmost freedom. Each member of the conference is urged to speak frankly concerning his views relative to the topic at hand. This freedom of discussion leads to the uncovering of many angles of a problem that otherwise would go unnoticed. After a decision is reached, it has always been the unwritten policy to support it, regardless of our own personal views in the matter. During seven years as assistant superintendent, I cannot recall a single instance when that rule was broken.

A superintendent should not only have his assistants give their views at conference meetings, but he should be informed at all times regarding plans that will in any way affect the general work of the schools. This is necessary for good management, as a superintendent has a wider view of the school system as a whole than any one of his assistants, and while he may see that a proposed plan is good in itself, yet conditions may exist that do not make it opportune to have it launched at that particular time.

SELLING HIS WORK IS THE SECOND QUALITY

When an assistant superintendent has been given a particular field of work he should study it carefully. He is looked to as the expert in that department of administration, and his leadership will depend upon his thorough under-

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standing of his work and how effectively he can sell it to his co-workers. The salesmanship is by no means of minor importance. In fact, it is one of the most necessary and difficult tasks of all.

A few months ago we asked for suggestions from the principals and teachers as to means of improving the methods in instruction in the Seattle schools. The replies showed that the scope and aims of the supervisors' work were greatly misunderstood. I decided that their job of selling had not been well done, and immediately set about to correct it. The plan in brief was as follows:

Each of the directing supervisors was asked to present at a principals' meeting called for that purpose the work of her department. In other words, she was to "sell" the work she is supervising. The talks and outlines were exceedingly interesting and enlightening. The supervisors profited as much, if not more, than the principals. They had succeeded in getting their work better organized, and had gained the confidence of being able to defend it successfully.

In the same manner an assistant superintendent should be required to sell his plans before they are delivered and put into effect—a practice I am sorry to say that educators do not always follow.

COURAGE AND DECISION IS THE THIRD QUALITY

The schools are well supplied with people of reasonably good ability, but there is a scarcity of leaders with ability who have the courage of their convictions, and the confidence of victory. True courage is a rare prize. A superintendent, principal or teacher who is afraid of losing his position does not possess it, for he is not free, and freedom and courage are inseparable.

The inside sport of "passing the buck" to the fellow above has been ruled out of the new code of good management. An assistant superintendent must learn the art of arriving at a decision with the greatest possible promptness, and when he has reached a decision, he must be prepared to defend it.

If a superintendent is given assistants who possess the three qualities—Coöperation, Ability to Sell what they attempt to do, Courage and Decision, and then protects them in their work, he should have the administrative essentials of a highly efficient school system.

WHAT MAY BE DONE TO IMPROVE THE QUALITY OF TEACHING

E. C. HARTWELL, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, BUFFALO, NEW YORK

Every superintendent of schools recognizes that one of the most fundamentally important problems in public education today is to improve the quality of teaching. With seven minutes at my disposal, I shall attempt only to discuss a few of the plans and devices employed with this purpose in the system of schools with which I am connected. We are endeavoring to improve the quality of teaching in the Buffalo schools:

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First: By improving the quality of supervision. We have explained to the supervisory staff, to the principals and to the teachers that the whole purpose of supervision as employed in our schools may be covered in one sentence. This purpose is intelligently to commend that which is good in the teacher's work, and sympathetically and constructively to criticize that which is weak. We have endeavored to instill our principals with a higher ideal of their functions. The elementary school principals in Buffalo understand that they are receiving their salaries not for the making out of reports and distribution of mucilage, but for their educational leadership in their respective schools. We expect our principals to visit classes, to commend, criticize and to follow up the suggestions of the supervisors from the general office.

Second: We have employed nine splendid teachers taken directly from the classroom, women of tact, sympathy, personality and ability, whose business it is to go about on regular itineraries through the schools, giving model lessons. These demonstrators, as we call them, have encountered none of the antagonism sometimes directed against supervisors, because it is not their business to supervise the teachers. It is their function to go into a teacher's room, and before the teacher's class and in the same environment and with the same difficulties which the teacher daily confronts to demonstrate a method, develop a process, and in short to show the regular class room teacher what somebody else can do with her pupils. The demonstrators have been most courteously received by the teachers, and we have calls in our office for their service far in advance of their itinerary. As nearly as I can discover, it is the unanimous verdict of our teaching body that these demonstrators have been of very great help.

Third: Through an Institute Fund and in coöperation with the State Normal School, located in Buffalo, and with the University of Buffalo and Canisius College, we have provided unusual opportunities for the teachers who wish to take extension work. We have not obliged our teachers to take advantage of these opportunities. There has been no compulsion and no over-urging. Neither have we made our salary increases dependent upon the taking of professional work. We have had what I regard, as a very remarkable demonstration of the professional zeal of our teachers which is evidenced by the fact that during the past four years, they have actually completed for credit 24,000 university semester hours of work. During this time 130 of our teachers have secured college degrees. The foregoing figures do not include 8580 semester hours of extension work for which no college credit has been given. In other words, the teachers of Buffalo without compulsion or salary inducements, but from professional zeal alone have completed during the past four years the equivalent of 1106 solid years of college work. It is, of course, impossible to estimate what this splendid accomplishment has done for renewed idealism and stimulation of professional service.

And lastly: We have taken great pains to insure that the newly appointed teachers coming into our system are properly started in their work. Every

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newly appointed grade teacher in Buffalo is sent to one of six centers for her first year's work. In these centers she receives special attention and an unusual amount of sympathetic help. Her probationary period is really a probation. If she does not make good, she is dropped. If she teaches successfully, in addition to receiving her permanent contract, she also receives annually for each of her first three years of teaching, four hours of university credit which she may apply in either of our local colleges, toward a Bachelor of Science degree. It is a matter of great pride in the educational circles of Buffalo that the successful instruction of boys and girls is now regarded as possessing sufficient cultural and social value so that our colleges, to a limited extent, will recognize it for credit toward a college degree.

To summarize: We are improving the quality of teaching in the Buffalo schools by doing everything possible directly and indirectly to assist the individual classroom teacher. Our theory is that the teacher is the center of gravity in our educational system. We have proceeded on the assumption that teachers are desirous of raising their standards of educational accomplishment, and that this will most easily and rapidly be accomplished as each teacher voluntarily and cheerfully sets about the task of increasing her individual capacities and abilities. We have regarded it as our responsibility to provide the kind of opportunities, environment and supervision necessary to stimulate and satisfy our teachers' professional ambitions.

A PROGRAM FOR THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

WILLIAM B. OWEN, PRESIDENT OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION
CHICAGO, ILLINOIS [1]

The National Education Association by its very make-up is concerned primarily with the American public school from the kindergarten to the professional school. The Association is interested in higher and professional education. It looks upon colleges, universities, and professional schools as the natural destination of the pupils of the public schools who seek higher training. It draws its teachers from these higher institutions. It looks to these institutions for results of scientific research and scholarship. It recognizes the necessity and desirability of providing these higher institutions by the State and by private benefaction and endowment. But at the same time, the National Education Association by tradition, by practice, and by reason of first-hand experience, daily endeavor, and fundamental interest is and must remain chiefly concerned with the operation and management of the great public school system. No private institution, no great foundation or endowment, no higher institution is competent to furnish the leadership or formulate the policies for these schools. Just to the degree that those who work in the public schools receive higher professional training, devote their

[1] Dr. Owen's address is printed in full in the April, 1923, issue of the Journal of the National Education Association.

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lives to the service of the schools, and adopt the requisite technique for reaching dependable and valid conclusions about their own work in these schools, to that degree can the Association collectively and its members individually dispense with guidance and control from without and safely assume the leadership of the schools. The last quarter of a century has witnessed a salutary and astonishing development in this direction. I do not overlook the fundamental contribution made to this result by higher institutions both public and private and by scholars and investigators attached to these higher institutions. I am simply emphasizing the fact that in the long run the destiny of the public schools already lies in the hands of those who give their lives to their service.

But this independence and responsibility as over against higher institutions is paralleled by a similar and closely connected development as over against the lay public. Education even in the lower schools demands special training, the command of a special technique, and the application of a professional knowledge and skill that makes direct control and participation by the public increasingly harmful, if not actually impossible. There is emerging, therefore, a profession that must perforce assume to set up its own standards and exercise a large degree of self-direction. I need hardly say that whatever the organized profession does it must submit in the last analysis to the public that owns and runs the schools, not for the sake of the teachers, but for the sake of the children for whom schools exist.

LEISURE TIME

HENRY TURNER BAILEY, AUTHOR AND LECTURER, CLEVELAND, OHIO

All of us who think know that we live in two worlds. There is the physical world in which we have to eat and sleep and work and earn a living and dodge automobiles! There is besides that a spiritual world, a world which has been created by the activities of men and women of imagination. The foundation for that spiritual world for us was laid in the marvelous epochs of the book of Genesis. That world was enlarged by Homer, who added a whole race of people, who added new cities, new countries, and who added the immortal gods. That world was still further enlarged by Cæsar who added not only all Gaul but the provinces beyond the Rhine. It was still further enlarged by Sir Thomas Malory who added the whole marvelous pageantry of that world of the Middle Ages. It was enriched still further by Shakespeare. What an immortal company he added to that world! It has been enriched by Tennyson, by Browning. It has been enriched by Kipling. There was no jungle in the spiritual world until Kipling's day. Robert Hichens added a desert of the most fascinating sort, and Masefield has recently added the Antarctic Ocean in a way that means its permanent position in this spiritual world. There was no Cape Cod in the spiritual world until Henry G. Thoreau had the power to put Cape Cod out of the physical world and put it over into the spiritual world.

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There are only a few mountains in that spiritual world. Hawthorne took the Mountain of the Great Stone Face and put it into the spiritual world for good. Homer created the sand beach but there was no little sandpiper until Celia Thaxter stood with it in the twilight on the beach and wrote, "For are we not God's children both, thou, little sandpiper, and I?"

Moses created the open firmament to divide the waters above from the waters below, but there was no wild fowl flying in the sunset until Bryant saw it there.

Now, that world of the spiritual is a world that has arisen out of the physical world but it is different than the physical world. You cannot visit the spiritual world by visiting the physical world. I have been in Egypt and seen the Nile, but I assure you that that muddy river which is at once a sewer and a drinking fountain is not at all the Nile of Anthony and Cleopatra. I have seen the Jordan filled apparently with pea soup. I tell you that river is not the river you see when you sing the old hymn, "On Jordan's stormy banks I stand." I have seen the Tiber, a little stream running over pebbles and old shoes and tin cans just as if it were an American stream. You look at that Tiber and do not see the Tiber out of which Horatius came when the conscript fathers sought to clasp his hoary hand.

That world is shown to us in the book of Revelation under the symbol of the great city that lies foursquare. Did you ever stop to think how large that city is? The length and breadth were equal, 12,000 furlongs. You all learned in youth that forty rods make a furlong and eight furlongs make a mile. Fifteen hundred miles square! As big as from the Atlantic to the Mississippi River and from the Lakes to the Gulf. There is plenty of room in that city. It is no wonder it had to have twelve gates—three on the North, three on the South, three on the East, and three on the West side.

I have thought about these gates a good deal and I have written down here the names of the gates in the spiritual city, the city that came down, is coming down constantly out of heaven to men. On the North, the cold side, are the gates called philosophy, and biography, and belles-lettres. That is a fine old term, and in these days, few indeed there are who go around to the North side of the city to get in. But, many of us go in by the South side, the sunny side, the side of the easy gates. Those are fiction and nature study and religion. The gates on the East side are music and poetry and drama, and the gates on the West side are architecture and sculpture and painting, and the human spirit that is adult is the human spirit that upon a moment's notice can escape from the physical world with its inconveniences into this celestial health resort, this great city of the soul, this country of satisfaction, of vision.

Turner has painted its skies. You can see them any moment by looking at his canvasses. Corot has painted its shady nooks and its little pools reflecting the sky. Fritz Thanlow has painted its rivers and streams. You can see the emperors and kings that reign immortal in that world by studying the canvasses of Van Dyck. You can see the people who live in fadeless youth by looking at the canvasses of Raphael and Sir Joshua Reynolds. You

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can see the immortal craftsman if you will look at the canvasses of Frans Hals. You can see the peasants through the eyes of Millet. You may know the immortal animals if you know the works of Landseer. You may hear the music of that realm any moment if you find somebody who can interpret the bars and dots of Mendelssohn or Beethoven or Mozart or any of the sweet singers of Israel.

You may enter that realm through the writings of those who have loved nature and written of the common things of every day, and you are a free citizen of that realm if you are a person of the right sort.

Leisure time is the most precious gift we have and the most dangerous gift. They tell us that if the products of industry were properly divided at the present time nobody in America would have to work over four hours a day. I hate to think what would happen if the bulk of the people in America had to work but four hours a day.

What do the people do with their leisure time now? What do they do with their one hour a day or two hours a day or whatever it may be? They spend it for the most part loafing or gossiping or drinking (even under prohibition) or gambling (even if it is called bridge whist) or in some form of physical entertainment, including for the most part the movies. Suppose people had more time to spend in those ways. The more time the American people have to spend in those ways, the worse the American people will become.

The more closely we are bound to machinery, to the great corporations, to the great business of the country, the more essential it is for us when we have a moment of leisure to eat something other than the apples of Sodom and to drink something other than the waters of Lethe. The only hope of the American people is this great spiritual world of which I have been talking to you and unless we can train our boys and girls so that through some fad—drawing, designing, painting, music, poetry—some form of activity which is a gateway to the spiritual world, unless we can train our boys and girls so that in their busy life they can immediately escape into that realm of spirit, there is no hope for the future of America.

I am not saying one word against teaching typewriting and stenography and accounting and woodworking and printing and all the rest of the things which help boys and girls to earn a living. There is a certain—I suppose there must be a certain—value in vocational guidance. Certainly this audience and every American audience shows the futility of it as it has been carried on. You can't find a single person at forty who is doing what he set out to do at twenty. I have no quarrel with all the things that are practical, you understand—this industrial education business and agriculture and all the rest of it—but I tell you it is more important to tell how to make a life than it is to know how to make a living. And, when the leaders of education in America give up their high ideals, forget this realm of spirit in which we live and move and have our being and are content to teach the things which perish with the using, to give their time to the things which are seen, which

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are temporal, and forget the things which are unseen and eternal, then it is high time to reorganize the National Education Association again.

Now, it is possible for us in public schools to teach our topics in such a way that we prevent the children from getting in any of these doors. I was talking on the subject of religion a few days ago, and I made some mention of the importance of the knowledge of the Bible as an entrance to this great spiritual realm. A man said, " Don't mention Bible to me. I know just one verse of the Bible and I don't care to know any more."

I said, " How did it happen? "

" I was a naughty boy once and my father, who was a Baptist deacon, made me learn as a punishment that verse—' The eye that mocketh at its father and ceaseth to obey the law of its mother, the ravens of the valley shall pluck it out and the young eagles also shall eat it.' "

Our religious education is rather important and it has got to be reformed in the direction of letting every boy and girl know the greatest single book in the spiritual world—the Bible.

When in the old days we taught our children to analyze and parse " Lady of the Lake," we put a barrier before one of the gates. When we teach our children of the primary schools to recognize bars and sharps and flats and whole notes and quarter notes and all the rest before we teach them music, we construct a barbed wire entanglement in front of the gate called music.

We may teach drawing and design in such a way that children hate it but we may teach them in such a way that every lesson is a window into this great realm of infinite satisfaction.

The teacher who teaches as he ought is well described by Ralph Waldo Emerson:

> " Day by day for her darlings to her much she added more;
> In her hundred gated Thebes every chamber was a door,
> A door to something grander—loftier walls, and vaster floor."

Now, the public schools, I repeat, should be taught in such a way that every child who goes out from the public schools should go out with a predetermined fad. Let him love poetry, drawing; let him love music, nature study. I don't care what his fad is, but unless he has a fad, the thing that he loves, that he would rather do than anything else, alongside of the thing he will have to do, he will never live the larger and more abundant life.

I envy for you teachers and superintendents all the success in the world in reorganizing taxation for the benefit of the public education, all the success in the world in getting magnificent school buildings and all the equipment they can possibly have, but I tell you I envy more those teachers to whom the next generation will look back and say with love, " Whether this man be a sinner or not, I know not. One thing I know—he opened my eyes."

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EDUCATION FOR DEMOCRACY

NEWTON D. BAKER, PRESIDENT, CLEVELAND CHAMBER OF COMMERCE
CLEVELAND, OHIO [1]

What is it that I bring out of my experience in school and college that is an imperishably rich possession? The contact with four or five great, luminous, inspiring personalities. The earliest was a woman who taught in the high school of a country village, still alive, venerable in years now and still touching lives and making them nobler and more aspiring just as she did in the days of her youth and strength. Two or three college professors, and then a law school teacher or two. When I try to think of the rest of my college course, it always becomes dim and obscure. I know I went through it because my university, which has the truth in its shield, has certified to the fact. But, those great personalities are just as vital and just as vivid and just as influential to me now as they were in the days when I was young and tender and green and easily taken by the hand and led.

I once heard President Wilson utter a sentence which I think will always remain with me. It was, "I have always thought it was impudent for any man to predict out of what part of democracy virtue will spring." So, I say to you, sometimes the raw material may seem unpromising. Sometimes there may be a refractory medium for your ideas and impulses, but there is something in democracy that generates virtue and these children that pass through your schools and your hands and out into life will bring, without your knowing it, the inspiration of the high ideals which you have and educationally become through your inspiration the key that unlocks the door to the last mystery which democracy has to solve in order permanently to succeed.

[1] Mr. Baker's address is printed in full in the April, 1923, issue of the Journal of the National Education Association.

THE COST AND THE FISCAL ADMINISTRATION OF SCHOOLS: SOME FACTS FROM THE EDUCATIONAL FINANCE INQUIRY

GEORGE D. STRAYER, CHAIRMAN OF THE EDUCATIONAL FINANCE INQUIRY COMMISSION, AND PROFESSOR OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION
TEACHERS COLLEGE, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY, NEW YORK CITY

Any inquiry concerning the financing of education must consider the increased cost of our public school system. That public education is costing more now than it did ten years ago is commonly accepted. In the year 1910 the current expenses for public education in the United States amounted to $390,500,000. In 1920 we spent $970,930,000 for the current expenses of our public schools. These aggregate figures must, however, be interpreted, if one would reach an intelligent conclusion concerning the support of our schools. During the period under consideration there was a very great change in the purchasing power of the dollar. There was, as well, an increase

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of thirty per cent in the number of days of schooling provided. To these two factors must be added the further fact of a very large increase in attendance in the upper part of the school system where costs are necessarily high.

While we have spent many more dollars we have not in anything like the same proportion increased the support devoted to the quality of the facilities or service furnished. It appears from data which are available for the years 1921 and 1922 that the amount of money spent for education has continued to increase during this period. It is, on this account, increasingly important that we inquire concerning school costs and with respect to the fiscal administration of our public school system.

No less interesting than the aggregate figures are the comparisons with have been instituted among the several communities within a single state. In the State of New York, where an intensive study has been made, for the year 1920-21, in one community the current expense per pupil in average daily attendance in elementary schools was $26. In another community within the same State the current expense per pupil in average daily attendance in elementary schools was $272. In like manner, the current expense per pupil in average daily attendance in high schools ranged from $52 to $1132. In kindergartens the current expense per pupil varied from $21 to $113. The smallest cost per pupil in both elementary and high schools and the highest cost, as well, were found in the rural or small village school districts. The variations in cost among the larger cities were relatively small. These variations increased progressively as the size of the community decreased.

The property tax furnishes almost all of the revenue for schools in the State of New York. The variations in the equalized assessed value of property per capita is as great as that shown for school expenditures. While in the main the wealthier communities spend the larger amount per pupil, it often happens that poor school districts have the higher tax rates. The scheme of aid provided by the State of New York neither equalizes the support provided for education, nor the burden of taxation borne by the several communities. It is the purpose of State aid to equalize both the opportunity for education, and the burden of taxation through the redistribution of revenues collected by the State to the several communities. It has been proposed, as well, that the State provide funds in order to reward those communities which show unusual effort, by maintaining their schools at a higher level or by undertaking unusual activities. The evidence from the State of New York, or from any other State, will show, that it is impossible to accomplish both of these purposes by any scheme of distribution that may be proposed. If opportunity and burden are to be equalized, the State must levy a tax upon the property or income of all of the people, or in some other manner secure revenues by a system of taxation which bears with equal weight upon all. If these funds are distributed in order to reward the effort made by progressive communities, rather than to equalize the burden of taxation to be borne, it must follow that the poorer and less progressive communities contribute to the development of the better program of education in the more progressive communities.

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The more one familiarizes himself with the systems of State aid now operating in the United States the more certainly he is driven to the conclusion that the result that we seek to achieve within the State with respect to the equalization of educational opportunity can be brought about only by providing for State support. We have been moving in this direction. In many of the States the part of the total cost of maintaining schools borne by the State has been steadily increasing during the past decade. In one State, Delaware, complete State support has been instituted. In Maryland the State seeks to equalize opportunity by providing such funds as are necessary in support of a minimum standard school system, after the county has levied a 67 cent tax based upon assessments which are equalized throughout the State. We shall make more rapid progress in the direction of providing an equalized educational opportunity for all of the children of a State when we accept as fundamental the principle of State support.

In our inquiry in the State of New York we have found the greatest variety with respect to budgetary procedure and school accounting. Even in many of the urban communities it is not feasible upon the basis of the accounting found to determine the costs of elementary schools, of high schools, or of other parts or divisions of the school system. It was necessary in order to separate the cost of elementary education from high school education to devise a formula which would permit the allocation of certain of the major items of the budget among these and other divisions of the school system. Careful investigations were undertaken in those communities in which accurate accounts were kept. After trying various methods of allocation it was found that the expenditures for the salaries of teachers in any division of the school system as related to the total expenditure for salaries of teachers by the school system gave the best measure for the allocation of other charges. If—for example—elementary school salaries were 70 per cent of the total expenditure for salaries then it was found that approximately 70 per cent of the expenditures for fuel, for text books and supplies, for janitorial service, and the like, were chargeable against the elementary schools. In carrying through this investigation 35 cities were used. The cost calculated by means of the formula as compared with the bookkeeping costs recorded were too high in 17 cities; too low in 17 cities; and in one city the allocated cost and the calculated cost were identical. The average variation of the calculated costs from the true costs was only one ninth of one per cent.

As satisfactory as this method of allocating cost had been in handling the figures for some hundreds of cities and villages within the State of New York, it is not defensible within a single school system. More adequate accounting should be undertaken in most of our school systems. It seems reasonable to propose that such accounting be undertaken immediately in our cities. The administration of schools in the smaller villages and rural areas by lay boards of education without adequate professional administrative service precludes the possibility of accurate accounting for these areas. Only as larger units of administration are organized can we hope to develop adequate accounting throughout the State.

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The situation in the State of New York with respect to budgetary procedure is even less satisfactory than in the field of accounting. Few school systems base their estimates of expenditures upon accurately determined costs for the years immediately preceding. In many cases the merest guesses are made with respect to the funds that may be available for the period under consideration. Some budgetary procedure requires not only accurate estimates of cost, but also estimates of income and a statement of the work program to be followed. It is of the greatest importance that budgetary procedure be improved, that boards of education adopt budgets which limit their appropriations to their income and that they confine their expenditures to the appropriations voted. With such procedure established the electorate of the several communities involved may be expected to show greater interest in the problem of financing education and to act more intelligently with respect to the support of their schools.

The fiscal administration of schools is made more difficult in a number of the cities of the State of New York by virtue of the fact that the board of education is required to present its estimates to a reviewing body which has control over the amount of money to be spent for public education. This places the board of education and their executive officers in the unfortunate position of developing a budget without any assurance that it will be accepted by the general municipal authority. The work program which has been adopted may have to be thrown overboard if the reviewing authority fails to furnish the money.

An inquiry has been instituted concerning the effect of the separate financing of city school systems. Data were secured from 377 cities located in all parts of the United States. The investigation shows conclusively that the separate financing of schools does not result in extravagance. There is practically no difference in the total expenditure for all school purposes per pupil in average daily attendance as between the cities in which schools are separately financed and those in which the school budget is determined by the general municipal authority. The significant differences with respect to fiscal administration are such as to leave the question of the desirability of one form of administration as over against the other to be determined by other considerations. The cities in which the boards of education are in complete control of the finances of the school system, including the right to levy taxes, show a larger tax rate, a larger percentage of the total municipal tax rate devoted to schools, a larger expenditure per pupil in average daily attendance for general control, for maintenance of plant, for fixed charges, capital outlay and debt service, than do the dependent. On the other hand, the communities in which the boards of education are dependent upon the general municipal authority show a larger bonded indebtedness per capita, a larger expenditure for instructional service. The technique employed in determining which of these differences were significant were applied as well to certain educational factors reported in Dr. Frasier's study entitled, "Fiscal Control of City School Systems." It was found that the independent cities showed a greater percentage of 16 and 17 year old children enrolled in the

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schools; that they provided a larger percentage of their pupils with sixty or more square feet of playground space each; that a larger percentage of the children enrolled attended school all day in adequate school buildings owned by the city. It appeared that the dependent cities had a somewhat larger percentage of women elementary school teachers who had six or more years of training beyond the grade of the elementary school.

In the light of the evidence made available by this inquiry, it seems fair to propose that the question of the separate financing of municipal school systems be considered on grounds other than that of the cost to the community of the schools administered under the one or the other form of organization.

The Educational Finance Inquiry Commission expects to be able to send its first series of reports to the press within the next three months. In these documents, when they are available, will be found significant data not only in the fields mentioned in this brief statement, but with respect to many other of the fiscal problems confronting school administrators.

THE TAX PROBLEM IN RELATION TO THE FINANCING OF PUBLIC EDUCATION

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The diagnosis of the Educational Finance Inquiry has thus far revealed no difficulties which are baffling in character, and no ailments which may not be expected to yield to proper treatment. I am not one of those who think that our youthful experiment in universal free education is doomed to die an early death from mal-nutrition. On the contrary, I believe that our resources will prove sufficient to give us everything we really want in public education, if we can decide intelligently what we really want and want it badly enough. I believe that we have sufficient intelligence to marshal those resources without doing violence to the other vital interests of the community and that we have sufficient moral stamina to undergo the exertions or to make the sacrifices which are involved. Fundamentally, the problem is one of social values and the facts reveal no sound basis for a belief that, when the situation is fairly stated, the community will assign education to a lowly position in the scale of things which it holds precious. No serious student of history and of political institutions, can doubt that we shall, as a people, tend constantly to increase rather than diminish the share of our resources and effort which we devote to the ends of education.

Undoubtedly, it was a recognition of the danger of self-diagnosis and financial patent medicine which gave rise to a demand for the investigation which the Educational Finance Inquiry has inaugurated. Educational administrators were conscious of the naive character of many of the demands for " new sources of revenue." The facts and the analysis contained in the forthcoming report of the Commission will, we hope, clarify the general

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issues involved and be of assistance to educators in establishing a firm foundation for a sound program of school finance.

Our facts appear to show that a change of far-reaching importance has been taking place in the character of our economic life—a change which may fairly be described as revolutionary. Peculiarly enough, it has come so gradually that few have been fully conscious of it and there has been a complete failure to make the structural readjustments necessary to care for it. The phenomenon of which I speak is the enormous increase in public expenditures. Our figures show that in 1920 the total public revenues of this country, National, State and local, were in excess of eight billion dollars, which means that approximately 15 per cent of our total income was spent in connection with public enterprises. We now do nearly a sixth of our work collectively under governmental control. Only a few years ago the fraction was negligible. The war, of course, is responsible, directly or indirectly, for most of the increase but as the federal expenditures on account of the war decline, State and local expenditures continue to mount so that the aggregate is not being perceptibly reduced. It was not perceptibly reduced even in 1921, when, due to the economic depression, our National income shrank fully one-fourth, perhaps as much as one-third. One need not go further than this for an explanation of the general complaints we hear regarding heavy taxes.

A famous French philosopher once said that taxation was the art of plucking the greatest possible number of feathers from a goose with the minimum amount of squawking. If this Frenchman were alive today, he would scarcely recognize the tax-paying goose of his epigram. In the course of the evolution which has taken place he has become a much wiser bird—more like an owl than a goose. As he has acquired intelligence, he has largely put a stop to that type of taxation which consists of a surreptitious snatching of feathers. He now submits to the plucking only after his consent has been formally secured, and normally he squawks only when he feels that he is not getting his money's worth or when he suspects that some other bird is escaping with less severe treatment. Consequently, the problem of taxation is very different in its character from what it formerly was. It no longer consists of merely evolving some clever method of snatching a handful of feathers from some spot hitherto overlooked. It involves a careful explanation to the taxpayer, a demonstration that the sacrifice will bring a commensurate return and an assurance that the other taxpayers are doing their just share as measured by the standards of equity commonly accepted in the community.

Has the change from the old days of insignificant taxes been accompanied by corresponding changes in our governmental machinery for deciding issues of fiscal importance, or are we depending on old and inadequate methods? Have we recast our revenue system so as to place the cost where, according to modern democratic standards, it rationally belongs? Everyone knows the answers to these questions. We are attempting to pour new wine into old bottles. We are using an ox team to haul a twenty-five ton truck load. We are, in effect, asking a cheap clerk and an office boy to administer a

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business running into billions. We are committing almost every crime in the economic and political decalogue.

Is it any wonder the business man often thinks of his taxes as money thrown into the sea? Is it any wonder that financial support for objects which have demonstrable value to the community far in excess of cost is difficult or impossible to obtain? Taxes for education amounted to 30 per cent of all State and local revenues in 1920. The problem of school taxation is the problem of taxation in general. It is not an insignificant appendage. Consequently the difficulty from which education is suffering is deep seated. It can be adequately met only by revolutionary changes in our fiscal machinery and our governmental organization.

In spite of our clumsy and inadequate fiscal and political machinery, we have found it desirable to expand our public expenditures steadily, and, as means of communication and other administrative aids increase in quality, there is no rational reason for believing that the number of things which can be best done collectively, and, of course, their cost, should not continue to increase. At any one time we should do publicly all those things which we can best do publicly. If greater returns can be obtained by using a dollar's worth of economic effort in collective public action than can be obtained by leaving it in the pockets of people to be privately spent, it is merely common-sense to spend that dollar collectively.

But the point is that we have run close, perhaps dangerously close, to the limit under our old forms of organization and with our obsolete machinery. The old forms creak and groan under the strain. The community is unable to distinguish clearly between the things it wants more and the things it wants less. As a consequence there is waste in the sense that we spend much public money for things that are not worth the cost, and refrain from spending public money for certain things we want very much indeed because of fear lest such expenditures may open the floodgates of indiscriminate public expenditures. There is a vast unfinished task of political and economic reorganization which must be attended to if we are to continue to increase public expenditures at the rate set during the last decade. The problem of educational finance is a part of this wide general problem. It cannot be solved satisfactorily until the general problem is solved. Some progress is being made toward a solution, and school men are among those who are in the front line of the battle. But the character and magnitude of the task is still only faintly perceived. The issue in the battle is perhaps the very life of democracy itself. We must then reconcile ourselves to a study of our political and governmental forms with the object of evolving new types of organization, which will make it possible to secure intelligent clear-cut decisions as to what the people really want in the way of education and other public activities.

This raises the question as to what is meant when we say that we really want something. Economic demand is not mere ineffective desire. It is desire backed by purchasing power. Let us keep in mind this simple truth. If we wish something we do not have—more costly education for example—there are two ways of solving the economic problem involved in getting it.

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We can produce more or give up something we now have, but which we care less about. In other words, there is the choice on the one hand of working harder or more intelligently, and, on the other, of diverting our effort from a less desirable to a more desirable object. Accumulated stocks of wealth are so relatively unimportant that they can be ignored in a general discussion such as this. For practical purposes the option is *produce* or *abstain*.

Neither option is pleasant. One would prefer to work less rather than more. He would prefer not to give up anything he has now—even chewing gum. Moreover, the diversion involved in substituting education for chewing gum undoubtedly involves both abstinence and waste. The factory does not automatically become a high school or a factory hand a teacher of physics. But the option remains just the same. There is this saving grace, that when the additional thing desired is education there is a probability that present sacrifices will make it possible to produce more easily in the future, but the disagreeable necessity of making present sacrifices remains.

It may be well to pay one's respects to the chewing-gum argument in passing. It sometimes seems that educators are prone to think that they have gone to the bottom of the science of economics when they have mentioned the amount of our annual expenditures for chewing-gum. We do spend a shamefully large sum for such things. But we should not be content to use the mere size of this sum as an anæsthetic which dulls us into a happy-go-lucky notion that because this sum is large, the sum needed for education is negligible. The true use of this argument is as an indictment of our social values and as a challenge to missionary effort. If we want to make chewing gum money available for education we must shame the people into giving up the chewing gum. They must abstain. And we must be sure not only of their willingness to abstain but of their willingness to take the temporary loss of the now useless chewing gum factories. The possibilities of diversion are very great, as are the possibilities of increased productivity. But let us not blind ourselves to the fact that both increased production and diversion of economic resources involve sacrifices. It is a question of demonstrating that the probable benefits outweigh the sacrifices.

The problem of taxation, in the very narrow sense, difficult and complicated as it may seem, thus falls into proper perspective as a subsidiary question. If a community is politically articulate, if it has an efficient and trustworthy public service, if it really wants education enough to produce or abstain, the question of adjusting the system of taxation becomes relatively simple.

But once more let me emphasize that the problem of educational finance is not coterminous with the tax problem in this narrow sense. For school finances present an acute problem in States like New York and Wisconsin which have put their tax systems in relatively good order. There the limiting factors appear to be largely questions of political and governmental reorganization. In certain other States the problem appears to be primarily one of the skillful husbanding of scanty economic resources. A tax system is not in itself productive in the economic sense. It is a mistake to think

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of it as a gushing spring. At best it is only a pump and a new pump is no cure for a dry well.

Taxes are after all only mechanical devices for distributing public costs in the way which is most satisfactory to the community. The really serious obstacles to adequate financing of public activities are not a lack of such devices. This is said with a full appreciation of the fact that some rich communities which really want to raise more money find themselves limited by the crudeness of their tax system. This is a pitiful situation but one which ought to be quickly and simply relieved. There is not a State in the Union which has not lying plainly before it many steps in a plan of rational tax reform which it does not take because of the other elements in the problem to which I have already called your attention. Fiscal theory is leagues ahead of administrative competency and political efficiency.

At this point let me recall to your minds the masterly address which my old teacher and honored colleague, Professor Seligman, made before this body a year ago. He pointed out the shortcomings of the general property tax upon which we depend for so large a share of our school revenues and he did it so effectively that it is superfluous for me to attempt to emphasize his denunciation. I merely wish to testify that his conclusions find a hearty response from all qualified students of the problem. It is hopeless to continue to depend upon this system as the sole source of State and local revenue if we are to hope to finance the program of public education.

The apparent impotence of some of our States to eliminate obvious defects in their tax systems is one of the most discouraging elements in the present situation. One need not go far afield for illustrations. The State of Ohio has a tax system which flatly presents to every citizen the option of being an intelligent liar or an economic fool. The percentage of economic fools runs very low. The tax system of this State is a sham and disgrace. Everybody knows it. But the discouraging part about it is that they knew it perfectly well thirty years ago. In the year 1895, the Chamber of Commerce of this City of Cleveland received a report from its special committee on taxation which said, among other true and bitter things, that: "The existing system is the product of the greatest injustice; under its sanction, grievous wrongs are inflicted on those least able to bear them; these laws are made the cover and excuse for the grossest oppression and injustice; above all and beyond all, they produce in the community a wide-spread demoralization; they induce perjury; they invite concealment. The present system is a school of evasion and dishonesty. The attempt to enforce these laws is utterly idle." Nearly thirty years has passed during which this paragraph has become recognized as one of the most classic bits of denunciatory eloquence in the literature of public finance. Yet it could with justice be applied to the situation as it exists in Ohio today. Moreover, most of our States are in no position to sympathize with Ohio. The conditions in many of them are even worse.

I should like to commend to your earnest consideration and possible support the program of the National Tax Association. Although school taxes

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may be the most important single element in our system of State and local taxation, let us not attempt to fight this battle alone when it is possible to join hands with skilled and intelligent allies. I wish to urge upon you school men the desirability of consulting the practical tax men in your various States—your State tax commissioners and similar officials—in formulating your programs of reform in taxation. The National Tax Association is an organization of the tax men of the country. Some time ago it appointed a committee to draw up a model plan for a system of State and local taxation. The preliminary report of this committee has been published, and its general conclusions have won widespread support among students of the problem. This plan calls for the abandonment of the attempt to tax intangible personal property under the general property tax. It suggests supplementing the tax on tangible property with statewide levies on personal and business incomes along the general lines worked out in the tax systems of New York, Massachusetts, and Wisconsin. There is general agreement among those who have given thought to the problem that this program offers the next logical step in tax reform in most of our States.

However, let us not be misled into a belief that a given program constitutes a final solution. Tax reform is a slow evolution. As our administrative skill increases, as the legal obstacles to reform disappear, as taxpayers become more fully conscious of the true economic character of taxation, there is every reason to believe that the program of tax reform will become progressively more refined and more highly developed.

I believe that the problem will be solved, because I believe in education. Surely we can hope soon to begin to reap where we have sowed. Surely after a century of free public education we should be able to count upon a citizenship intelligent enough to grasp the problem, energetic enough to grapple with it, and wise enough to work out a sound solution.

TWO PHASES OF WHAT THE SCHOOLS DO IN RELATION TO WHAT THEY COST

HERBERT B. BRUNER, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS
OKMULGEE, OKLAHOMA

There is a great need in America today for a standardized method of computing costs. The call is just as urgent for a uniform method of measuring results. This could best be brought about by the Federal Government through a Department of Education thoroughly financed and equipped for the work. Until this is a reality, the burden of the work of informing the people who support schools regarding educational costs and results falls squarely upon the shoulders of superintendents. Every school head has made some study of the costs and the results of the system under his control but most surprising inequalities will be revealed to many of us if we make a

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more detailed study. Results can often be had in larger and better quantities if they are measured accurately. I am forced to these conclusions by some studies made in my own school system and hence am presenting this paper as though the title read, "What Have The Okmulgee Schools Done in Relation To What They Have Cost?"

This scheme is not presented as a model but merely as one of the methods that may be used in a typical American city with a population of twenty-five thousand. In order that the cost study may be more readily understood, may I not tell the type of system which prevails or in other words, what the schools have done. There are three primary schools containing grades one to three, inclusive, six major ward schools including grades one to six, one opportunity high school ungraded and one six-year high school. In the regular ward schools, there are no children in the first six grades over twelve years of age. If they reach the age of thirteen and have not finished the sixth grade they are moved to the opportunity high school. In this special class high school, they are offered subjects of that degree of difficulty which they can master; for example, a fourteen-year old boy may have third grade arithmetic, fifth grade spelling, high school carpentry, etc. In each of the major ward schools there are in addition to the regular classes, two types of special classes; 1. Classes which contain children with I. Q.'s lower than 85 and with corresponding grades of work in school. These are placed in special rooms by themselves in groups smaller than the regular classes; 2. classes for children gifted with I. Q.'s of 110 or over. These are also placed in special rooms by themselves and given special instruction. The four criteria which are used both for special class pupils and for children in the normal grades are: 1. two group mental measures; 2. educational tests; 3. home conditions and teachers opinions; 4. accumulative school records. In addition to these four criteria, individual psychological tests are applied to students before they are placed in either the gifted or special classes or the opportunity high school. When this arrangement has been completed it will mean that approximately both the upper and lower 10 per cent of the ward school children will be in special classes for the gifted or under-privileged.

In grades seven, eight and nine of the six-year high school children are grouped in sections of 20 to 30 according to the same four criteria given above. In the seventh and eighth grades every student is required to take in addition to his English, citizenship, mathematics, school health and music, eight nine weeks courses, four in each grade. These are called Finding and Broadening courses and represent typical cross-sections of each department in the senior high school. Here an attempt is made to find for what each child is by nature best fitted.

Since there have been many studies made of costs and results of typical school work and since time will not permit of a discussion of costs and results from all angles, I have selected for consideration a comparison of the

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costs and results of the two more or less unusual features which our schools are attempting, namely; the classification scheme whereby pupils of like abilities are placed in classes together and second, the finding and broadening courses of the seventh and eighth grades.

Let us first consider the classification scheme. In the elementary schools which include the first six grades there were 2191 pupils enrolled, 1856 or 84.2 per cent of whom were in regular grades, 246 or 11.2 per cent of whom were in the special classes while 89 or 4 per cent were in the classes for gifted children. A study of the costs of this type of classification reveals some interesting conditions. For example, instruction costs in regular classes, were in round numbers $20 per semester per pupil, in the classes for gifted children, $29 or 45 per cent more, in the opportunity classes for underprivileged pupils, $44 or 120 per cent more. In the regular classes the average number enrolled per teacher was approximately 31 while in the accelerated classes there were only 22 per class and in the special classes only 19. This coupled with the fact that higher salaries are paid to the teachers of these special classes explains practically all the differences. Whether or not we are justified in the tremendous differences in expenditures is questionable. I thing all educators would readily assent, however, to the general correctness of the plan of placing pupils of the same ability together. Until better methods of raising school money than we now have are discovered, it may be necessary to place the same number of pupils in the classes for gifted children that we do in the normal classes although this procedure is far from desirable. The Board of Education at Okmulgee was sold to the additional expenditures in the special classes by the argument that the normal classes are really the chief benefactors when the three or four poorest and the three or four best pupils in every class are removed to special rooms. It is a matter of common information that the average conscientious teacher gives at least one fourth of her time to the one tenth of her pupils who are the poorest in her room; this means that the nine tenths must content themselves with three fourths of her time.

TABLE 1—PER PUPIL COSTS—ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS—FIRST SEMESTER, 1922-23
OKMULGEE CITY SCHOOLS, OKMULGEE, OKLAHOMA

Types of classes	Total teachers' salaries	Average monthly enrollment	Average daily attend	Cost per pupil for instruction based on		Budgets allowed various types of classes	Cost per pupil for supplies, etc based on	
				Av. enrl.	Av. d. att.		Av. enrl	Av. d att
Accelerated.	$2,625.00	89.2	85.8	$29.43	$30.59	$24.82	$0.28	$0.29
Regular	38,369.62	1855.98	1756.9	20.67	21.89	514.68	0.28	0.29
Special	10,975.00	246.4	211.5	44.13	51.89	752.50	3.05	3.56
Total	$51,969.62	2191.58	2054.2	$23.71	$25.30	$1,292.00	$0.59	$0.65

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Total Salaries, Supervisors and Principals*	$9,725.00
Cost per pupil for administration and supervision:	
Based on average enrolment	4.46
Based on average daily attendance	4.73
Total expenditure exclusive of capital outlay and maintenance of plans*	62,986.62
Total per pupil costs in elementary schools:*	
Based on average enrolment	28.74
Based on daily attendance	30.66

By following the results shown in table 1 we arrive at the conclusion that the division of students according to ability costs more money than the regular plan. But what are the results? We have no draft horses working side by side with race horses. Each child feels that he is equal in ability to those around him and hence that effort will count and it does. The percentage of failures has been materially lowered, for children are being put at tasks suited to their capacities and are no longer discouraged by being placed where some students gallop away from them with ease or where they can finish their own work in half the allotted time and spend the remainder in habits of idleness. In other words, they are now at tasks at which they succeed rather than fail. In the classes for gifted children the enriched curriculum and livelier competition has made for a more rapid and a more complete development of the students favored with this privilege, while in the opportunity classes a much larger per cent of over-age children are remaining in school than we have ever had before. We are also positive that the teachers of regular classes are much happier and standard tests show that these classes are much higher in all subjects than under the old plan. The schools have done what we think is a real service to the children. It has cost more money than the old way, but we think it has been worth the extra cost for the reasons stated above.

The finding and broadening courses offered in our schools constitute the second phase of this discussion. Such courses offered this semester are:

5th Hour, 1: 51-2: 46	6th Hour, 2: 50-3: 45
Science I	Public Speaking II
Typewriting I	English-Latin
Cooking I	Science II
Sewing I	Business II
Woodwork	Cooking II
Drawing I	Home Nursing II
Automotive I	Sewing II
Journalism	Woodwork II
Art I	Cement and Sheet Metal II
Public Speaking I	Automotive II
	Electricity II
	Printing II
	Music II
	Art II

Below is given a rather comprehensive table which indicates the total costs for the first semester. Case's "Handbook of Instructions for Recording Disbursements for School Purposes" has been followed in charting our expenditures.

* It was practically impossible to estimate the proportion of supervisors' and principals' time devoted to the various types of classes, so this data has been given for the total elementary schools only.

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TABLE 2.—ANALYSIS OF PER PUPIL COSTS IN REGULAR, AND FINDING AND BROADENING COURSES FOR ALL DEPARTMENTS FIRST SEMESTER, 1922-23

OKMULGEE CITY SCHOOLS, OKMULGEE, OKLAHOMA

Department	Total expenditures			Distribution of total expenditures by funds, regular and F. & B. combined							
	Regular	F. & B.	Combined	Fund 3-9	Fund 3-11	Fund 3-1, 2	Fund 5-4, 5	Fund 8-11	Fund 8-12	Fund 8-9, 10	Fund 9-13
Ancient language	$1,282.50	$200.00	$1,482.50	$1,470.00	$2.50	.....	.....	.....	$10.00	.....	.....
Art.....	721.67	353.33	1,075.00	1,000.00	75.00	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Automotive	1,120.00	505.00	1,625.00	1,425.00	100.00	.....	$50.00	$17.50	32.50	.....	.....
Citizenship.....	6,462.50	.....	6,462.50	6,140.00	7.50	$240.00	.....	25.00	50.00	.....	.....
Commercial.....	2,095.00	312.50	2,407.50	2,150.00	30.00	125.00	12.50	.....	20.00	$20.00	$50.00
Electric	1,885.00	265.00	2,150.00	1,950.00	87.50	.....	.....	100.00	12.50	.....	.....
English	6,770.00	600.00	7,370.00	7,125.00	5.00	190.00	.....	.....	50.00	.....	.....
Home Economics.....	4,110.00	1,015.00	5,125.00	4,100.00	400.00	200.00	50.00	250.00	17.50	107.50	.....
Mathematics.....	6,570.00	.....	6,570.00	6,340.00	55.00	190.00	.....	5.00	10.00	.....	.....
Manual Training.....	2,622.00	1,228.00	3,850.00	3,260.00	250.00	240.00	50.00	.....	50.00	.....	.....
Modern Language.....	1,069.75	.....	1,069.75	1,050.00	14.75	.....	.....	.....	5.00	.....	.....
Printing	2,060.08	469.92	2,530.00	2,375.00	62.50	.....	75.00	.....	5.00	12.50	.....
Science	3,177.50	380.00	3,557.50	3,375.00	150.00	.....		$25.00	7.50	.....	.....
Total.....	$39,946.00	$5,328.75	$45,274.75	$41,730.00	$1,239.75	$1,185.00	$237.50	$422.50	$270.00	$140.00	$50.00

Department	Number of pupils enrolled		Number of pupils in average daily attendance		Total number of pupils in department according to		Per pupil costs based on					
							Number of pupils enrolled		Number of pupils aver. daily attendance		Combined number of pupils	
	Regular	F. & B.	Regular	F. & B.	Enrollment	Average daily attendance	Regular	F. & B.	Regular	F. & B.	Enrolled	Average daily attendance
Ancient language	185.1	13.9	170.7	12.7	199.0	183.4	6.929	14.388	7.513	15.748	7.45	8.083
Art.....	67.4	40.3	62.3	37.5	107.7	99.8	10.707	8.767	11.584	9.422	9.981	10.771
Automotive.....	21.2	47.0	19.0	45.5	68.2	64.5	52.830	10.745	58.947	11.099	23.827	25.194
Citizenship	873.6	....	798.5	....	873.6	798.5	7.398	.....	8.093	.....	7.398	8.093
Commercial.....	311.7	46.0	276.4	43.4	357.7	319.8	6.721	6.793	7.580	7.200	6.731	7.528
Electric	43.9	26.0	39.8	24.5	69.9	64.3	42.938	10.192	47.362	10.812	30.758	33.437
English	1070.1	19.4	988.3	18.6	1089.5	1006.9	6.327	30.928	6.850	32.258	6.765	7.319
Home Economics.....	166.2	112.0	153.3	108.0	278.2	261.3	24.729	9.062	26.810	9.398	18.422	19.613
Mathematics.....	915.1	....	837.6	....	915.1	837.6	7.180	.....	7.758	.....	7.180	7.758
Manual Training.....	81.4	66.4	71.9	59.2	147.8	131.1	32.211	18.494	36.467	20.743	26.049	29.367
Modern Language.....	144.6	....	131.6	....	144.6	161.6	7.398	.....	8.129	.....	7.398	8.129
Printing	134.6	35.9	123.7	33.8	170.5	157.5	15.305	13.090	16.654	13.923	14.838	16.063
Science	81.4	64.3	71.1	58.8	145.7	129.9	39.036	59.10	44.690	6.463	24.417	27.386
Total.....	4066.3	471.2	3744.2	442.0	4567.5	4186.2	9.75	11.31	10.67	12.06	8.75	9.54

Fund 3-9 salaries of teachers.
Fund 3-11 supplies used in instruction.
Fund 3-1 supervisors' salaries
Fund 3-2 supervisors' other expenses
Fund 5-4 repair and replacement of apparatus used in instruction.
Fund 5-5 repair and replacement of furniture.
Fund 8-11 equipment of old buildings—instructional apparatus.
Fund 8-12 equipment of old buildings, other equipment.
Fund 8-9 equipment of old buildings, heating, lighting, plumbing and electrical
Fund 8-10 equipment of old buildings furniture
Fund 9-13 thrift

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The per-pupil costs in the regular classes in Latin were $7.50 per semester. The finding and broadening costs in English-Latin were $15.75 per pupil. In art, the expenditures are reversed, regular classes costing $11.58 while the finding and broadening per-pupil cost was only $9.42. This is due to the larger sized classes. To summarize, regular classes cost $10.67 per pupil including all subjects and finding and broadening classes cost $12.06 per pupil, a figure 15 per cent greater. The above table is presented with a view of showing how very negligent we seem to have been in regard to costs. Of course, we should defend ourselves immediately by saying that many of these courses were new and small classes had to be allowed in order to get them on their feet. But the inequalities in departmental expenditures are amazing and most of them have been adjusted for the second semester and practically all of them will have been ironed out by next year. *In toto,* I should say that the added 15 per cent which is required for the offering of the finding and broadening courses is money well spent for it is the aim of the instructors offering these units to assist the child in gaining some knowledge of different occupations and future courses of study in order that he may enter into that business, profession or future course of study for which he is by nature best fitted and hence in which he will be happiest and from which he will profit most. This, it seems to me, would be worth an even greater per cent of increase of cost. But the very fact that these courses range from $6.46 for science to $32.25 for public speaking shows how great the need is in our schools for a more careful study of costs and results. I hope that no other school system is guilty of such inconsistencies but I am positive that they exist in a majority of the cases. My study has led to the following conclusions: First, classifying pupils according to ability or offering finding and broadening courses costs more than doing regular work in the regular way; second, a scientific study of costs in relation to these two procedures was a thing most needed for the Okmulgee schools; third, changes from present practices are usually more costly in the first year or two than later; fourth, there is very little accurate data that a superintendent can secure for purposes of comparison in studying the costs or the results of newer features of education in his own system.

What a great day it will be when we have a federal department of education with sufficient appropriation to study costs and results scientifically and to broadcast the findings to the men in the field. This will cost some money but will result in a saving of much more money. When this day comes it will eliminate for school leaders and communities a great deal of groping, will enable them to launch into new projects with a feeling of greater certainty and will make a real comparison of school costs and results possible.

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WHAT THE SCHOOLS DO IN RELATION TO WHAT THEY COST

HERBERT S. WEET, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, ROCHESTER, NEW YORK

The limitations involved in any attempt to discuss the returns on our investments in public education, are serious and for the most part obvious. The question may fairly be asked, however, whether they are sufficiently serious to preclude the possibility of explaning to a community, in reasonably convincing terms, what the community is receiving for these investments.

The first limitation to be faced results from the fact that we do not know and never can know what our investments in public education are in terms of what are recognized to be the ultimately great ends. Few will dissent from that conception of public education which emphasizes the development of character qualities as the ultimate goal. And by character qualities is meant those qualities of the physical, intellectual, and moral life that are recognized to be essential to good citizenship. Our experiment in government is not essentially an experiment in *political* democracy. The genius of our attempt in this country is to realize a *social* democracy—a democracy in which equality of opportunity shall be the chief characteristic. The realization of this ideal demands the exercise of these character qualities in all relations of life to an extent not even yet remotely appreciated by us so far as our actual working policies are concerned. To declare, then, that we do not know what our investments in public education are in terms of these ultimately great ends, is simply to recognize that we can never distribute school costs in any unit of school organization among our attempts to develop initiative, industry, a sense of fair play, loyalty and the like.

But to recognize this limitation is by no means to admit that we cannot distribute our costs among certain very definite and immediate objectives which must be attained if these character qualities are to be developed. Knowledge is not secured, intellectual power is not developed, bodily health is not guaranteed, moral fiber is not toughened, and one's social and civic obligations are not clarified through any abstract disciplinary process. Whenever these great qualities are found in any individual they are the result of genuine personal application to the clearly presented and specific problems of life. They have come because the individual has faced and successfully performed the definite tasks set before him by the environment in which he has lived. The public school is but one factor in this environment, but it is the one agency that has been deliberately established for the purpose of guaranteeing that no child shall escape this personal application to a certain range of concrete tasks, upon the performance of which depend the knowledge and training that are believed to be essential to our individual and collective welfare.

Now we know very definitely what these concrete tasks of the school room are because the primary purpose of the curriculum in any unit of school organization, is to afford the material from which such tasks are to be selected. Furthermore, there would be quite general agreement as to the

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practicability of grouping the various subjects and activities of the curriculum with reference to their bearing upon the various types of tasks to be performed. This grouping and the time allotment for each group enable us to determine with sufficient accuracy for all practical purposes, an interesting and valuable cost distribution for the unit concerned.

The application of this principle to a single unit may be of interest. It is generally recognized today that any proper respect for the rights of the child and the welfare of the community dictates an education in the elementary school that shall advance, although by no means perfect, the child in his ability, first, to read, write and speak correctly the English language, and to know and use intelligently the elementary processes of arithmetic. By common consent these are fundamentals without which neither the knowledge nor the training essential to the fullest enjoyment of life, to economic independence and to satisfactory citizenship, can be secured. In the city of Rochester, for the calendar year 1922, the average pupil cost for each of the six grades of the elementary school, for realizing this objective, was $75, and the aggregate cost for the six years of the elementary school, $450.

A second task for this elementary school is to advance the child in his ability to know and to observe the laws of physical health and well being, and to appreciate the meaning of life and nature. For the accomplishment of this task the average grade cost for each pupil amounted to $25, and the aggregate cost for the six years, to $150.

A third task or objective of the elementary school is to advance the child in his ability to know and to appreciate the geography and the history of his own community, State, and Nation, and to some extent of the world at large; to sense his share in the social, civic and industrial order of such a democracy as ours; and to meet to the full the obligations which such knowledge and appreciation should engender to the end that justice, sympathy, and loyalty may characterize his personal and community life. The average grade investment in each child for this particular purpose was $12, and the aggregate investment for the six years of the elementary school, $72.

And, finally, the elementary school has the task of advancing the child in his ability to share intelligently and appreciatively in the fine and the useful arts through the pursuit of music, drawing, and literature; of manual training and the household arts as they are related to the three great universal needs of food, clothing, and shelter. For the accomplishment of this task the average grade investment in each child amounted to $30, and the aggregate investment for the six years amounted to $180.

Here, then, is the common foundation to be laid by the elementary school. It is comprehensive enough to include the tools of language and number; a trained mind and a sound body to use them in life's activities; a moral nature appealed to and thereby stimulated and made intelligent with reference to the great social and civic obligations; the æsthetic life awakened; the universal craving for the use of the human hand gratified and its indispensable contribution to the arts and industries of life recognized. It is an

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ideal and yet there is not a single one of its elements with which any one of us would be willing to dispense in the education of our own children. It touches simply the latent possibilities of a human being. For the public school to allow any one of these to remain latent is to deprive the individual and to ignore the ultimately great needs of our National life. And for the attempts of the elementary school to carry the child for six years in the performance of tasks designed to accomplish these ends, the aggregate investment by the community for each child amounts to $852.

Having now ascertained the amount of our investment in each of these undertakings, is it possible to give any equally convincing demonstration of the returns which the community receives on these investments?

To declare that the values of education, the outcome of education, cannot be measured in terms of money, or the standard medium of exchange, is in no sense to isolate education and place it in a special category. Money never measures the real or intrinsic value of anything. Real or intrinsic value is measured by the power or ability which a thing has to satisfy our needs or our desires.

But satisfaction is a purely intangible return regardless of whether it comes from education or anything else for which time, money and energy are expended. Its essence has never been summed up better than in the quaint bit of philosophy of the Irishman who declared, "If you feel that way about it, it is." The community is using all of its productive recources for this intangible, indefinable, and yet readily understood return known as satisfaction.

What are our satisfactions from these expenditures for this elementary school unit? It will now be recalled that for advancing the child in his ability to read, write, and speak the English language, and to know and use intelligently the elementary processes of arithmetic, the aggregate cost for each child during the six years of the elementary school, amounted to $450. And what was accomplished in that six-year period? Even the most critical would admit that with any normal child the public school will not only guarantee literacy during this six-year period but it will have started the individual well along the way of securing the larger cultural returns that this power of literacy makes possible. Furthermore, during this same six-year period the public school will guarantee the ability to know and use intelligently the elementary processes of arithmetic. In other words, for a maximum expenditure of $450, the public school will, in six years, guarantee to protect the nation against the dangers of illiteracy in the case of every normal child entrusted to its care, and, it will, furthermore, give an elementary knowledge and control of arithmetic that is adequate to meet the ordinary demands of life.

It will also be recalled that for advancing the child in his ability to know and to observe the laws of physical health and well being, during this six-year period of the elementary school, the aggregate cost was $150. No one, today, doubts that the well-organized public school that is at all adequately equipped for work in health education, will guarantee to every

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normal child at the close of this six-year period, not only a knowledge of the elementary fundamental laws of hygiene, upon the observance of which good health depends, but it will go a long way toward establishing habits in the observance of these laws as they apply to such simple and commonly ignored essentials as rest, fresh air, exercise, the use of proper foods, and the like. In other words, health education in the public school, today, is actually influencing physical conduct. It will start the individual citizen well along on the road that if continued will guarantee a healthy citizenship for the country. Furthermore, it is increasingly detecting the case that would otherwise be neglected and eventually result in a citizenship liability, and through simple remedial measures taken in time, it is changing that potential liability into an asset. And the cost of this for six years is $150.

But the elementary school also advances the child in his ability to know and to appreciate the geography and the history of his own community, State and Nation; and to sense to some extent his share in the social, civic, and industrial order of this democracy. In the six-year course of the elementary school there can be guaranteed for every normal-minded child a sufficient appreciation of our attempts to establish here a combined political and social democracy to set his face hopefully and intelligently toward the goal which America is striving to reach. That face may later be turned away from the goal by the forces outside and beyond the control of the school. The sooner the child is taken from the influence of the school the greater the chance of this turning away will necessarily be. But no person can have the slightest touch with any adequately supported public school class room in this country, today, and at the same time doubt its value in unifying our people and in developing those attitudes that make for confidence in the ideals for which America stands. And the aggregate cost to the community for six years, is $72.

And, finally, it is the work of the elementary school to advance each child in his ability to share intelligently and appreciatively in the fine and the useful arts. These fine and practical arts of the elementary school are taught during the early school life of the child with no primary reference to any bearing that they may have upon later life careers. They do gratify the universal desire for the use of the human hand and thereby serve as one very valuable medium for the expression of ideas and ideals; they enable the school to interpret great phases of our community life in a more vital way than would be possible without their aid; they present approaches to a wholesome use of the leisure hours that are increasingly filling human life; they provide for that systematic co-ordination of hand and mind which makes for the most favorable development of child life; and they do develop certain skills that may have a later bearing upon vocational careers. All these, however, are primarily features of general education.

But out of these groups of pupils who pursue these arts in this elementary school will come musicians and other artists, draftsmen and other artisans, as well as those who are to meet the business and professional demands of community life. During this six-year period the elementary school can

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guarantee not only the returns that participation in these arts brings in the way of wholesome satisfaction in the use of leisure hours, but it can, at the same time, lead the young citizen no inconsiderable distance along that road that must be traveled in acquiring the insight and the skills required for meeting the citizenship qualifications of economic independence through the field of the fine and the practical arts. And the aggregate cost of this is $180.

It would now be entirely practicable to compare these expenditures with expenditures that are made for other satisfactions and then comment upon relative merits. This is the sort of thing which each may do for himself, according to his own point of view. So far as we are concerned, we are willing to rest the case with this mere explanation of cost and trust to the judgment of any thinking person in the community to justify the returns on these investments.

These vitally important things that must enter into the proper education of each child, and the large number of children for whom provisions must be made, are seldom, if ever, thought of except in the most vague and general way when school costs are discussed. Industry and commerce know the costs of illiteracy and industry and commerce can, accordingly, pass an intelligent judgment upon the expense involved in protecting the community and the nation against it. And the country at large, through the recent war, came to know the inefficiency and the danger that result from illiteracy. And the same may be said of health, the outcomes of the social studies, and the returns from the fine and practical arts. Ask almost any thinking person in the community today what the three great deficiencies were that lowered the man-power of this country in the war days, when man-power was scrutinized more closely than ever before, and the answer will be, illiteracy, ill health, and the lack of adequate training for economic independence.

It is, of course, apparent that this discussion has been restricted to one unit of school organization and has not, therefore, used the full scope made possible by the subject of the paper. It is simply a type treatment suggested for consideration. We are aware that in the analysis the unit of school organization selected is the one with respect to which these problems of distribution and justification are the simplest. This, however, in no wise relieves us of the responsibility of formulating in as concise and convincing a way as possible, the type tasks of each unit of school organization, and of distributing our costs among these tasks. The junior high school, the senior high school, the special education unit, and whatever others may be found, have each their type tasks that cause them to differ from any other units in the system. Only by formulating these specific tasks and showing our investment in each will the community ever come to consider the magnitude of the work which our public schools are doing in its relation to what they now interpret as the magnitude of the budget which they are called upon to raise.

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THE CITY SCHOOL BUDGET

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There are three general steps in the preparation of school budgets, whether they be for village, city, country, or State. These are: Preparation, Sale, Administration.

PREPARATION

In the preparation of a city school budget there are four factors that must be considered in their regular sequence. These factors are: Educational Policy, Form and Presentation, Essential Facts, Method of Development.

EDUCATIONAL POLICY

Before any educational program can be carried out there must be developed certain definite policies by the legislative branch of school organization—the Board of Education. It matters not whether these policies originate with the board, the superintendent, or the people themselves, they must be placed into definite effect through the formal action of the legislative body. The making of a budget in an organized and operating community presupposes the existence of these operating policies but for the purposes of our discussion, to more easily trace the entire process let us assume that we are going to make the first educational budget for a populous community (that has just sprung into existence in response to war or industrial necessity, without local tradition, prejudice or practice. Let us also assume a typical five-member board with progressive tendencies.)

What then is the first step? The board must first of all determine upon its organization. It can furnish free public education through many types of organizations, of which three are probably best known. Shall it organize upon the traditional 8-4 basis, upon the popular 6-6 plan of a decade ago, or upon the fairly generally accepted 6-3-3 organization? There is an immediate difference in financial outlay for both the 6-6 and the 6-3-3 plan are more expensive than the 8-4 type. This is obvious for either departure from the traditional connotes a curriculum for seventh and eighth graders that is broader and more differentiated than that of the eight-year elementary school. The board, after careful consideration, selects the 6-3-3 organization as more nearly meeting the needs of a modern industrial society than either of the other plans. It does not provide for education beyond the twelfth grade.

The second step in policy development is the organization of the curriculum for this is related to cost in a very definite way. If the curriculum is to be broad in its nature in realization of the seven cardinal aims, it will require different types of teaching and teacher training than the older and narrower variety. The board, after careful consideration, decides upon a socialized curriculum for the elementary grades and a socialized and differentiated curriculum for the intermediate and senior phases of secondary education, suited to the needs of the several stages of adolescence.

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The next question is one of teaching. What kind of teacher shall be provided for this all important task of training the next generation for citizenship? Shall she be required to have one, two, three, or four years of professional preparation? Upon the decision hinges again the question of cost. The board questions the worth whileness of paying $500 a year more for teachers with four years of training than for teachers of two years but finally decides in favor of the better trained teacher upon the basis of good business practice. The salary schedule immediately reflects this decision. There are other questions of teacher policy immediately apparent. These are the proper teaching load, the question of old-age pension, allowance for sickness, for study, and for travel.

The board decides upon average class sizes as follows: kindergarten 25, elementary 30, intermediate 35, and high school 35, with five clock hours of daily teaching for each teacher. It is decided to pay one-half of the teacher's old-age pension upon the theory that this is not only just but also good business. A realization of the necessity for constant study to maintain the highest teaching standards has resulted in the provision of $200 annually for further study or educational travel.

Another question is one of supplies and text books. Are the children or the school to furnish the necessary supplies and text books? If the city furnishes both, shall this be through the sixth, ninth or twelfth grade? The ultimate decision and statement of policy will be directly reflected in the cost of instruction. The board decides to furnish both text-books and supplies through the ninth or last year of the intermediate grades. The organization policy, the size of class, the type of curriculum, the length of day have all influenced the type of building to be erected. Certain other considerations still remain. Are the buildings to be fire-proof, are they to be beautiful in appearance, both architecturally and from the standpoint of grounds' development, what is to be the size of site, and the means of heating and ventilating each structure? Much depends upon these decisions. The board of education has now set up formally its basic policies and may now proceed to the other steps in the preparation of the budget, the form, facts to be developed from these policies and the resulting practice, and the method of development.

FORM AND PRESENTATION

The second step in preparing the budget is to determine the form. By generally accepted accounting procedure all budgets fall into two general divisions: maintenance and capital outlay. The first division has to do with all expenses of general operation while the second deals with extensions and additions to the school plant, whether in land, buildings, or equipment. For greater ease in understanding the amount requested it is advisable to present the allowances for the current year, the probable expenditures for the same year and the numerical and percentage differences between these items and the amount allowed. Let us consider the maintenance fund first. It has been found advisable upon the basis of five years' experience and

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study in form of budget that the best way to present the material is in three complementary divisions.

The first presentation is very general in character and shows the amount requested by major activities such as administration, instruction, operation, etc.

The second presentation gives in detail each activity and sub-activity such as dividing administration into business and educational units and presenting the instruction activity by the kindergarten, elementary, special, intermediate, etc., sub-divisions together with a short introductory statement stating the amount expended the current year, the planned expenditure, the number now served and the number to be served with a comparison of rough per capita costs.

For those inclined to scrutinize still deeper the estimates, a third section should be developed as supporting detail, cross referenced to the second division by sub-activities. The third section consists of detailed statements of (1) personal service requests, (2) supply requests, and (3) free text and library books requests. The personal service set up shows the number of current positions with present and proposed salaries, together with new positions requested. The supply and textbook divisions show the unit distribution of supplies per pupil. The capital outlay division may be treated in the same manner although the value of year to year comparison is not so great as in the maintenance division, for improvements must be made as the need arises. Under present conditions, the annual building program will vary greatly and the replacement program is contingent upon the age of the plant.

ESSENTIAL FACTS

With the physical form of the budget determined consideration may be given the third item, the basic facts that must be secured to develop into this desired form. Since the budget making consists in a large measure of prognostication, it is doubly essential that all known facts be unusually accurate or the step into the unknown, or estimating, may be fraught with grave danger. The first need is a modern system of cost accounting through which may be ascertained exactly what has happened and is happening to past and current appropriations. Accurate costs accounting is basic in any activity but should be emphasized particularly in public service. The accounting activities should show costs in their larger divisions and in any detail desired. This cost should be shown upon the bases of average attendance and instruction hours. The second factor is the need for an absolutely accurate system of child accounting, the object of which is the collection, and analysis of actual facts rather than the development of fictitious attendance curves to satisfy a craving to show conditions as they are thought to exist. The schools must cast aside the series of subterfuges in child accounting that have been gradually built up in the last half century and fictitious data, in determining costs for comparative purposes, must play no part in the preparation of the modern education budget. Necessary child accounting statistics should include a continuing school census, taken not only for revenue pur-

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poses but carefully, by blocks, and by age-groups, including those below school age in order that these total figures may be used in estimating the need for buildings as well as indicating the probable growth in the lower end of school system. Standards of distribution for educational and operating supplies and for text books are the complementary facts to the foregoing.

THE METHOD OF DEVELOPMENT

The policies have been established, the form approved, and the essential facts have been gathered. There now remains the method of developing these data into a carefully prepared financial program. The policy of the amount of educational service has been determined upon and the necessary subdivisions under instruction will include kindergarten, elementary, special, intermediate, and high school divisions.

The first step is the classification of all data into the major budget divisions, which are, first the maintenance and capital outlay divisions, and then into the sub-divisions of the maintenance fund including administration, instruction, operation, maintenance, auxiliary agencies, and fixed charges.

Within each of these sub-divisions of the maintenance fund are two types of service—personal service and service that is not personal. The personal service consists of the services of principal and teacher, or janitor and engineer, depending upon the subdivision. The service not personal consists of supplies and text-books, or supplies, fuel, and light in the case of building operation. How shall this personal service activity be developed? The first step is the securing of the number of persons so employed by activities and analyzing these data with size of class and teacher load. If these correspond to the established policy then present conditions in this respect are normal. If classes and teacher load are much below or above the prevailing policy, then the surplus or deficit in such service must be reckoned and placed in the budget as a corrective item.

The next step is by means of child accounting statistics to determine in as scientific a manner as possible, the probable number of children to be served the following year. This prognostication must take into consideration the general tendency of growth together with depressing or stimulating factors such as general industrial conditions, buildings, marriages, birth rate, non-public institutions, movings, etc. It is possible by use of school membership and a census carefully taken by age groups, and a consideration of the more important contributing factors to estimate growth generally within one per cent. The differences between the present and the estimated numbers, viewed in light of current policy, will quickly enable one to determine the need for additional personal service. The present number plus the corrections in either direction, plus the additional service for growth will be the total demand for next year's program. The cost of the present and new service will depend entirely upon the salary policy of the board.

The next item is service other than personal. The first division is supplies. After the board has determined its supply policy this may be translated into

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a distribution table by articles by grades. This in turn may be changed into a cost table by inserting the price of articles. The result will be a net per capita supply cost for each grade in conformity with board policy. Child accounting statistics will furnish the number in each grade and it is a comparatively simple matter to determine the supply cost for the succeeding twleve months. Cost accounts will furnish an accurate account of past experience and will furnish price and use checks. The same process may be repeated in the case of text-books. The procedure is the same, the details varying as policy and price change. The changes in operation costs will depend directly upon the expansion of the school plant and the cleaning policies in force.

The development of the capital outlay or building division presents a somewhat different aspect and calls for a different procedure. The major portion of this division is the building program which has been fairly well established through policies of the board. In other words the establishment of the 6-3-3 organization meant that the board planned to build elementary, intermediate, and high schools. The building code and the general need for elimination of fire hazards will determine what the type of structure will be. The educational character has been set by the curriculum. Since all of these policies have been decided there remains to be worked out (1) the need for new buildings on account of growth, and (2) the location, and (3) future possibilities. All of these facts can be easily obtained from careful analysis of child accounting records and the general character of the particular building district. The third point is the qualifying one after the first two have been fairly well determined, for until the future possibilities are carefully determined there should be hesitation about building. Contributing factors such as zoning, building, industrial development, population trends, etc., must be carefully analyzed. If these are not available the building policy should be modified from permanent to temporary until such time as certainty in the future can be ascertained.

The other sub-divisions of the capital costs fund may be considered separately. These include largely equipment for new and old buildings. The equipment, both amount and type, must be determined from the current policies, and this equipment program can then be standardized equally and if the units to be equipped are known a simple calculation will determine the equipment cost. Once this distribution is determined only price and policy changes will affect it. After these hastily outlined operations have been performed as many times as are necessary to develop all of the sub-divisions the budget may be assembled in accordance with the form earlier discussed, the explanatory narrative written, and the technical work of preparation is complete.

SELLING THE BUDGET

The organization of the second or selling phase of budgeting depends entirely upon the local situation. Must the program be "sold" only to the board or must it be carried to the mayor and the city council, or even further, to the people? Has the city's general educational program or policy, as well

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as practice, been brought before the people and the governing bodies in such a way that it is understood by them or are they acting purely in the traditional manner of the average American in the matter of public education? The technique of "selling" must be adjusted to the field to be reached. Only a few of the general underlying principles, will be discussed here.

In the first place an educational financial program should be sold on the basis of the general educational policy rather than in terms of cheapness—in dollars and cents. The first point to be brought before the audience is a frank statement of educational policy with a simple and sensible discussion of aims and, in a general way, of achievement. When the policy has once been realized in terms of social products, it is then easy to move to a discussion of costs in light of this general policy, always emphasizing the fact that costs in education must be subordinated to results, but these results should be achieved in the most economical manner possible. If approached in this manner it is the general question of policy that is ever foremost and the financial program must be analyzed in light of the program instead of a mere grouping together of startlingly large amounts of money. While comparative costs and tax rates are quite generally used they are not recommended. Tax rates mean little unless analyzed in light of the method of assessment and the educational policy of the city compared. There are at least twenty important variables which tend to nullify any attempt to develop comparative cost data. Again, their use is directly contrary to the principles set forth. If the demand is such that these data are requested their use should be carefully qualified. Whatever the audience, all of the "selling" facts should be presented in the simplest way possible. The graphic method is desirable because it further simplifies a task that is complicated because of the quantity of figures that must be used. The second factor is how to sell a program. It matters little whether the school board has or does not have financial independence. The people should be convinced of the desirability of the educational program in either case. With this as a promise the question is how are you going to carry your program to the people in such a manner that you may receive an expression of anything more than the reaction of isolated individuals. Every large city affords splendid opportunities. There are the Board of Commerce, the various luncheon, commercial, and social clubs, the women's clubs, the university organizations, and most important, if properly organized, the Parent-Teacher associations. All of these agencies are very effective in "selling" because their organized opinion carries over where that of the non-organized group is lost or ineffective. The daily newspaper, the school bulletin, neighborhood papers, club magazines and even house organs are excellent media if properly developed and used.

THE ADMINISTRATION OF THE BUDGET

The preparation and the selling of the budget are but two-thirds of the program. Just as essential as either of the first two is the administration of the budget after the funds it carries have become available. By administra-

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tion is meant the careful oversight of expenditures to see that the funds are spent for the most essential activities and material and to prevent any possible waste. There are two points of views regarding budget administration. The first is that after the budget items have been approved by the appropriating body or bodies the expenditures should be allowed without further quibble or questioning. The general theory behind this viewpoint is that the budget has been thoroughly prepared in accordance with recognized policy and is therefore justified.

The second conception is that all budget items should be reviewed again when the question of expenditure arises, regardless of their relationship to recognized policies and practices. The underlying theory here is that conditions change from the time budgets are prepared until they are used and that the need will vary with the time. The sensible method lies somewhere between these two views and may be expressed in a general way by the statement that budget items that express a standard policy such as personal service, supplies and text-books generally should be purchased as the need arises without further review, except to see that the appropriations are not exceeded. There are always a group of extension or experimental items that may be studied and checked in accordance with conditions that exist at the time expenditures are desired for it is highly probable that these may have changed. If, however, the budget has been carefully and scientifically prepared the greater emphasis will be placed upon careful stewardship to see that appropriations are not exceeded and that the entire financial program is carried out according to the spirit of the prevailing policies.

BUDGET MAKING AND SPENDING BY THE COUNTY

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In this discussion two premises will suffice for the entire argument: (1) There should be equality of educational opportunity for every American child. In a democracy any other theory of education is unthinkable. This proposition, therefore, demands no discussion. (2) On account of present legal limitations of budgets, the children of rural America do not have and cannot have equality of educational opportunity either among themselves or with the children of urban America. If the truth of this premise fails to appeal with force, let it be borne in mind as we proceed.

THE DIAGNOSIS

Following the example of medical men, our method of treatment will be diagnosis and prescription. If we fail in the former, it will be explained away by the intricacies and the difficulties of internal medicine. If we kill the patient, we will plead that the operation was done too late. If we effect a cure, it will be but another example of the marvelous advance of science.

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So far as the administration of county schools is concerned, a single entry ledger and a few simple forms and reports are sufficient for recording clearly and accurately the income and the outgo of school funds. Neither is the matter of control of funds from this point of view one to be concerned about. Nonetheless, poor bookkeeping may be considered a convincing symptom of a diseased budget. In my part of the country, what the public examiner sometimes has to say on this score is not fit to print. From the point of view of the county, emphasis is apt to go to extremes—either there is foolish waste of effort and money in the keeping of useless books and accounts or there is serious if not wilful disregard of the commonest business practices.

With regard to the budget, educational organization in the United States is on the wrong basis. It is doubtful if county-wide budget making and spending are in force at this time in one fourth of the States. The gap between district control and State control of school funds marks a most serious difficulty.

In studying this subject I committed the great American indiscretion and sent out a questionnaire. The returns to that questionnaire demonstrate conclusively that on the whole the laws of the several States are peculiarly and emphatically defective in the matter of county school budgets. In approximately one half the States the county superintendent is not required by law to make a budget. On account of the relation of the fiscal to the scholastic year, forty per cent of the superintendents who are required by law to make a budget cannot do so intelligently. Regardless of the basis of school administration, it appears that the law making bodies of the States have been unfortunately remiss, if indeed they are not highly blameworthy, in failing to set up machinery for the business-like conduct of schools.

On account of this lack of machinery for the business-like conduct of schools two difficulties with the budget stand out conspicuously: (1) Unless the county is the unit of administration and in some cases even though the county is the unit of administration, there is no central authority to control the raising and the expending of county school funds. Unless some central authority has the power to create and control county school revenues, budget making must always be a more or less sickly affair. (2) Where the school authorities lack the power to raise or lower tax levies it happens quite frequently that budget making is purely a matter of estimates. If the authorities are good guessers there may be ample funds for the school year, if they guess badly, there is a short term, or lowered salaries, or a deficit. These estimates must always be hazardous if the fiscal and scholastic years are coterminous, provided that the receipts of the fiscal year are to be applied to the conduct of schools during the next succeeding scholastic year. But the outstanding, convincing evidence of an unhealthy budget is the inequality of educational opportunity not only as regards rural and urban schools but as regards rural schools of the same counties. This inequality of opportunity arises from the fact that the raising of school revenues by budget making authorities is so hedged about by constitutional and statutory inhi-

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bitions and restrictions as to make it impossible to secure funds for the proper conduct of schools. The ratio of the American rural school population and rural school needs to the urban school population and urban school needs is out of all proportion to the corresponding financial resources—actual or potential. The poor district and the rich district of the same county cannot have equally good school facilities on the same basis of taxation unless there is central control of the distribution of school funds.

To this phase of the subject, I applied the questionnaire. To the question, Are your revenues for the conduct of rural schools adequate? seventy-five per cent of the answers are "No." To the question, Would the revenues arising from all possible present sources be sufficient to provide an adequate physical establishment and the proper conduct of schools therein? fifty per cent of the answers are "No." To the question, Can you obtain adequate revenues for rural schools by full constitutional taxation upon strictly rural property? more than two-thirds of the answers are "No." There can be but one conclusion—an unhealthy budget appears from inequality of educational opportunity as dependent upon county school authorities. This inequality is so perilous to the very fundamentals of country life that even the most conservative cannot dismiss it from consideration.

THE REMEDY

I do not believe the remedy is to be found in fixed percentages of the total school funds for the several items of expense. We cannot provide by arithmetical gymnastics for even a fair distribution of the school funds to be accounted for in the budget. Relative costs are bound to vary in different sections of the country, in States, and in counties, and the cost of the several items of expense will vary disproportionately from year to year. For illustration, the cost of supervision should depend upon the number, training, experience, and ability of the teachers. Transportation of pupils should cost according to the condition of the roads, the length of the hauls, the character of the equipment, and the service. Repairs and replacements should cost in proportion to the age of buildings and equipment, to the discipline and management of schools, and to the cost of labor and materials. The budget maker therefore must look to some other remedy than the distribution of school funds on a percentage basis.

The first requisite for successful budget making and spending is accuracy of estimates as to funds to be received. This is a comparatively simple matter if the budget making authorities have the power to control tax levies. In counties where the tax levies are not controlled by the budget making authorities there cannot be accurate estimates as to returns from taxes unless a proper relationship between the fiscal year and the scholastic year is set up by law. This means that the school funds must be in hand or in sight when the budget for the year is made up. Accuracy of estimates, economical administration of school funds, equality of educational opportunity, all, can be obtained most easily if there is centralized and intelligent control both of receipts and also of expenditures. The raising of school funds should not be

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entrusted to local school committees. Constitutional and statutory restrictions may well be imposed upon county-wide budget making authorities; but within certain limits these authorities should be empowered to produce the revenues to meet the demands of the year and always to distribute the revenues so as to meet the varying needs of the several schools of the county.

By centralized and intelligent control of school funds, I mean the level-headed, fair-minded, public-spirited business and professional men and women who should constitute the school board. Observation and experience convince me that school boards as a rule are made up of or at least are dominated by people who can be depended upon for sane, honest, and successful handling of school funds. From the county point of view, the superintendent of education who finds himself in an unfortunate situation in this regard has for his first task in budget making the delicate and difficult business of securing for himself a new and satisfactory directorate. Men and women who are fit to serve on school directorates will not be satisfied and should not be satisfied to act as mere figureheads. They should be given something to do and the business administration of schools is the thing they are usually best fitted to do. But I would not entrust the raising of school funds or control of distribution to the school board as a mere matter of expediency or policy. I would lay it down as a principle of school administration that good budget making is the thing which the school superintendent by training, by experience, and by aptitude, is least fitted to do. If school superintendents will appropriate the judgment, experience, and skill of their directorates, and dominate their situations where their technical knowledge and skill have the best outlets, much rough sledding in American schools will be obviated. If this be heresy you must make the most of it. But the superintendent does have a vital connection with this business of budget making and spending. He should visualize the school needs of his county with such clearness, such accuracy, and such enthusiasm that the directorate cannot escape the force of his logic. He must believe that "where there is no vision the people perish." He must dream dreams. He must catch visions of a country teeming with happy children taught by the right kind of teachers under the right kind of environment. He must possess imagination and be able to convince his directorate that imagination is founded on reality. The successful conduct of educational affairs must be his second religion. If the superintendent is sincere; if his heart warms to the needs of his organization and is buoyant with respect for youth; if he is able to demonstrate convincingly his superior knowledge and skill as respects the strictly technical phases of his profession, the directorate will take care of his budget problems to the end of the limit.

The county schools of America as a rule are poorly and inadequately financed. The budget maker immediately finds himself face to face with the difficulty of raising sufficient revenues for the proper conduct of schools. It is therefore the field and function of the county-wide budget maker to discover new sources or new methods of raising revenues. I trust you will pardon a reference to the county I have the honor to represent as a fine

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example of the budget maker's opportunity to meet successfully such difficulties. With the budget strained to the breaking point and with all sources of taxation utilized, with the exception of a single mill, the county board of education set itself to the task of securing funds for a rural school building program on a county-wide basis. The discovery was made by the president of the board that in Alabama public school buildings are in the same class as court houses, jails, and bridges, and that by vote of the people bonds may be issued as a lien upon the general revenues of the county for the purpose of erecting public school buildings. Through this discovery of a wise and good budget maker we were able to secure funds amounting to approximately four hundred thousand dollars that otherwise would not have been available.

I make bold to assert that it is sometimes a wise principle in budget making deliberately to exceed the annual income, provided always that the law is not violated and that the return is ultimately in sight. Business is successfully conducted on the basis of loans and anticipated returns. Why not apply the same principle to the business of education? In order to avoid a much overworked American word, I will say that rural folk are apt to be ultra-conservative in their buying. They are apt to be skeptical about a lot of things that we superintendents consider first class "investments." But give them consolidated schools, give them transportation of public school children at public expense, give them good school buildings and ample equipment, give them public health service, with the courage to believe that when the times comes they will not hesitate to approve the purchase. Conduct your schools on a cash basis if possible; but if the cash is not available, exceed your annual income deliberately. We know that education pays. We cannot go backward. We must go forward. Optimism and courage are necessary for successful budget making.

Finally, the budget maker must be armed with laws that require the strong to support the weak. Unless by centralized authority the wealth of the country may be applied to the support of weak rural school districts, I say in all solemnity that not only must rural school education, but also rural life, end in tragedy. On this point I speak as one with some authority, having spent all but the last three years of my life in the service of city and town schools. The miserable things that we in the country call schoolhouses; the teaching in the country that is tragedy and comedy-tragedy because it is so fatal, comedy because it is so foolish; the splendid children of the country waiting, with all the pent-up energy and possibilities of the race to behold other beauty than mountain and stream, forest and plain, to place their hearts in tune with other music than the rippling of streams or the singing of birds; to take their just places in all the occupations that our American idealism holds out to them, all, appeal for a school budget that will provide equality of educational opportunity for every American child.

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BUDGET MAKING AND SPENDING BY THE STATE

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These are troublous times in State school administration, and probably the thing that has disturbed us as much as anything is our fiscal administration. and the matter of budgeting and spending. The details differ in various States due to statutory and constitutional arrangements, but, after all, the budgeting is done very much the same way in each State. We who are commissioners are so closely in contact with the actual facts that it is just a little difficult to see the forest because of the trees. Perhaps if we are to get back to principles relating to the forest, the best way would be to come down to the concrete.

Here is the way we do it in New York. Before November first each year the subordinate executive officers of the entire department, the chiefs and directors, assistant commissioners and deputy commissioner in the building itself, the principals of the normal schools and the president of the State college for teachers and the directors of the State agricultural colleges, all turn in estimates prepared for inspection by the commissioner. Then the commissioner, with the aid of the deputy and the directors of the divisions of administration and finance, carefully reviews these estimates, compares them with the estimates of the budgets in previous years and makes out a tentative budget. After that he calls in the committee on administration and finance of the Board of Regents and holds hearings so that all these subordinate officers have a chance, one at a time, to present their cases. As a final step, the commissioner makes out a final budget which is printed and presented to the Board of Estimate and Control.

In most States, the Board of Estimate and Control is made up of the Chairmen of the Finance Committees of the two Houses. In New York of late, in order that the Executive Department might co-operate, the Governor and Controller have been added to the list although they very seldom interfere in the matter. There is a possibility that the budget may be approved outright, but it is more likely that some revision will have to be made after giving the Commissioner of Education a hearing. Some commissioners of education put things in to be cut out, but, taking it as a whole, that is hardly a wise policy for a man to establish. When the budget is printed for the last time and presented to the legislature, in all probability it will pass with little amendment.

As to the principle underlying the making of a scientific budget, I presume anybody will see at once that the fundamental thing is to make a careful estimate of your income and see to it that your expenditures by no chance exceed the income. That is so simple I wouldn't mention it except that Dr. Strayer has told us in his report on the Commission for Educational Finance Inquiry, that most of the communities do exceed their income and take practically no pains to ascertain what that income is to be.

Every budget should, of course, show and indicate clearly the trend of increase or decrease in the various items for educational activities and under-

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take to defend them, either in the way of a footnote on the budget or in the way of a commentary accompanying it or in a statement made by the chief educational officer. It seems important that the budget should be itemized in detail but should be given sufficient flexibility to meet emergencies as they arise. In New York, we used to make that a regular line-for-line affair—the name of the office, the name of the man, and salary. Later on we have been growing wiser and we have grouped officials of the same rank—so much for directors. This year we hope to get a lump sum.

The responsibility for the budget should rest with the chief executive officer of the State Department of Education, but the final approval should, of course, be in the hands of a representative body that is directly responsible to the people. But, if there are to be changes made, they should not be made in the slightest degree until that chief educational officer has a hearing in an impartial and fair way and without any political entanglements. In order to secure scientific budget making, it is perfectly clear that we will have to have a uniform system of accounting so that we may know, when these statements come in from the various communities, that they are talking about the same thing.

In the administration of the budget I would emphasize that we must make a careful scrutiny of all statutory fixed costs in the budgets in order that we may see what their educational value has been and what it is likely to be in the future. Dr. Strayer told you this morning that one of the most unfair things that occurs is the payment by the State for unusual activities and it comes home hard on the community that has little to pay the price. We need a constant scrutiny and review because items are constantly getting out of date. Nobody needs encouragement for manual training any longer and it is a question whether they ought to need it for agriculture. But, there is a more fundamental question, and that is what proportion, after all, of the total costs for public schools in the State ought the State itself to pay and how is that State money to be distributed?

Again, to quote Dr. Strayer, we are marching steadily in the direction of State control. Forty-nine of the minor cities in New York have State control, but there are eleven of the larger cities which have not seen the light and do not propose to if they can help it. That is the last rampart of the stand-patters in the revision of State control. Delaware has arrived there completely, Maryland, after paying sixty-seven per cent for the counties, guarantees a minimum standard for all of the schools. Practically every State in the Union is paying anywhere from ten to sixty per cent of the school bill. How shall it be distributed?

We have a bill before the New York legislature and I understand there is to be one in Pennsylvania before very long that answers this question to a large degree. It is based on the study that Dr. Updegraff, made for the rural school surveys. After making an evaluation of the present form of State aid, he proposes to subsidize a general State aid based definitely, in the first place, on the ability of the various communities to pay as represented by the thousands of dollars of valuation properly equalized back of each teacher and, secondly, upon their willingness to pay as represented by the equalized

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or true tax rate. I think that when this law goes into effect, we will have as nearly a scientific plan for distribution as has ever been discovered in this country. Unfortunately the formula at present is a little complex and difficult to understand and it may take some time to educate legislatures, school boards and school men.

The great need in budgeting is a scientific method and technique such as has been represented to us by these figures for the city and county. We need to encourage investigation in all the graduate schools in the country, and it may be that we will need a clearing-house such as was recommended to the Department yesterday. If this is to mean a real medium of exchange and these splendid contributions of research are gathered together and distributed, sooner or later we will have the knowledge and technique that is necessary for State budgeting and State spending.

PRINCIPLES AND TYPES OF CURRICULAR DEVELOPMENT

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At a meeting held in connection with the Department of Superintendence one year ago, a preliminary report was made of an investigation to determine what use the public is now making of subject matter related to one of the school subjects of study. This investigation which began nearly three years ago, has now been completed and a monograph based upon it has been printed. So much has been said regarding the need of education to fit people better to engage in affairs of common life, that it seemed wise to initiate a series of investigations to determine relations that exist between school subjects and the situations which arise in affairs out of school. The subject of this investigation was chosen in order to determine to what extent and in what ways biology is used; and at the same time to see to what extent such methods of investigation may contribute to curricular reorganization in this and other subjects. The investigation deals with the extent and nature of the use of biological material in the public press. That is, what kinds of biological information is the citizen now reading? In what way is this related to school work in biology? Do the public press articles make any valid suggestions as to needed changes in content or method of the school subject? Do such articles provide significant biological situations or needs which are available for use in school instruction, either as introductory, foundational or concluding applications related to the topics of school instruction.

Seventeen full months issues of representative daily newspapers were secured making a total of 492 different papers and approximately 14,000 pages. These papers reach several millions of readers. Each of the pages was examined, and all biological articles other than those which were paid

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advertisements, or regularly recurring commercial stock reports were collected and classified. Mere biological allusions were omitted, thus limiting the collection to articles clearly biological. A total of 3061 such articles were thus secured, these having an average column length per article of over 8 inches.

Careful study of all articles resulted in a classification, consisting of 8 main divisions, each main division having secondary and tertiary sub-divisions. Thus " Health Biology " which includes 897 of the 3061 articles, is represented by articles classified under eight sub-headings: Biology of infectious diseases, hygiene and sanitation, health education, non-infectious diseases, dietetics, drugs, first aid, and physiology. The sub-division, " Infectious Diseases," is itself represented by 19 further sub-divisions. The other main divisions beside health, in the decreasing order of their numerical importance, are animals, plants, food, organizations of producers, general nature, evolution, and fictitious biology.

A study of the tabulated number and length of articles shows the outstanding importance of the first four groups—health, animals, plants, and food. The average length of articles upon general nature and evolution is greater than that of the first four groups, but the total number of such articles is relatively quite small. Fictitious, or spurious biology is small, since but 14 of the 3061 articles belong to this group. Furthermore the average length of fictitious articles is less than one-half the average length of all articles. This is a creditable change from a few decades ago, when so many fictitious articles appeared in the newspapers. If this study is representative, one may now read 200 newspaper articles based upon biological information and probably encounter but one fictitious article.

It is not necessary in this connection to present statements of details concerning the contents of articles under the different biological headings. A few statements of the results of the investigation will show the significance of this type of study. Of the 492 issues of newspapers, no issue was without one or more biological articles. The articles found are of the same general types with local variations readily accounted for by special local situations. The proportion of biological material to the number of pages issued monthly by different papers does not vary greatly.

Health biology appears in largest quantity and relates interestingly to conclusions reached by National education committees to the effect that health is the first aim of education. The largest proportion and greatest length of health articles appear in communities in which, from other sources, it is known that greatest effort is being made to conserve and improve human health.

Newspapers are more nearly up-to-date in biological accuracy than are many text-books, since their articles are " news," preferably direct from the producer to the consumer. At the best, textbooks cannot entirely keep up-to-date, and many of them do not make earnest endeavor to do so. A biological textbook which is one or two decades old carries more fiction than do most of our leading newspapers.

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Since the advocacy of social and industrial controls, depending upon modern biology, and the types of biological information which appear in the representative press, are so widespread and constant, should not the school courses in biology include the topics found as legitimate ones for school use, if, as we say, education is designed to help people in common life? Finally, if these topics are those of common occurrence, should not some or many of them, be used as significant situations in presentation of topics in instruction in biology?

For a second type of effort in curricular improvement, let us turn to one of our more nearly standardized subjects—mathematics. Teachers in colleges, high schools and elementary schools are agreed that reorganization is needed. There have recently been many investigations and reports of committees which have recommended extensive modifications of present practice in mathematical instruction. The Final Report of the National Committee on Mathematical Requirements, enumerates the main reasons for a reorganization of courses in mathematics. Much of the content of the usually required courses makes little contribution to the pupil or adult needs of modern life. The organization of these materials and instruction by use of them are not based upon modern psychology of learning.

The report emphasizes the need for giving especial attention to the elementary grades, and to grades seven, eight, and nine. Several groups of workers are attempting to provide better curricular materials and accompanying methods. I shall outline the procedure of one of these groups.

Fifteen hypotheses or guiding principals were first formulated. These are based upon investigations, results of surveys, and the best guidance available in the philosophy of education. Six of these principles are:

Mathematics, in the elementary and junior high school grades, should be primarily a tool for the quantitative thinking needed by children and adults. Each year should give the most intrinsically valuable mathematical information and training which the pupil is capable of receiving, at that time, with little consideration of the needs of subsequent courses.

The preceding aim necessitates the inclusion in junior high school grades of certain elements of arithmetic, intuitive geometry, algebra, trigonometry, and statistics, although these are not to be rigidly classified under the traditional divisions as named.

Manipulation of mathematical symbols as an end should be omitted; and, attention should be directed toward a better appreciation of the part that mathematics has occupied and is now occupying in the progress of civilization. There should be a marked increase in the accuracy of computation with integers, fractions, and per cents.

Following the formulation of the above principles, an inventory test was given in thirty cities to a large number of children who were just entering the seventh grade. The purpose of this inventory was to furnish more complete information than previously existed regarding the mathematical knowledge that such children possess at the end of the sixth grade, or which the seventh grade teacher may reasonably expect as his foundation for work. The test consists of 125 very simple elements.

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This inventory of sixth grade arithmetic may be summarized as follows: There are but 8 of the 125 elementary mathematical points which are correctly answered by as many or more than 90 per cent of the pupils. There are 34 of the 125 points answered by as many or more than 70 per cent of the pupils. There are but 59 of the 125 points answered by as many as half of the pupils. That is, considerably more than half the pupils failed on 66 of the 125 points in this inventory. There are those who say that the outstanding indictment of our American schools is that we foster half-learning. It appears that they exaggerate, and are too generous in this accusation for here is evidence that we really achieve much less than 50 per cent mastery.

The third step in this study of mathematics consists of an effort to discover valid materials which pupils can and should learn. This includes inventories of the mathematical elements found in other school subjects and in widely read magazines. For example, there has been a study of the specific geometrical concepts which facilitate general reading, and the frequency of occurrence of unusual fractions.

Guided by the hypotheses stated in the first step, by the inventories of mathematical attainments, and by data upon the uses made of mathematics, tentative mathematical topics and teaching materials were prepared for experimental use, in 30 coöperating schools. After coöperative trial, criticism, and tests, the materials have been revised for further trial. The seventh grade material is now in use for the third year, having undergone two revisions.

What is involved in trial of curricular materials in cooperating schools? It is attempted to divide the seventh grade pupils into two groups as nearly equivalent in mathematical ability as measurement and judgment will permit; to one group the experimental materials are taught as prepared, to the other group, the conventional mathematical course is taught; achievement tests are given to both groups at the beginning and the end of the year; the teacher keeps a systematic record of the successes, failures, and interests of the pupils, whether explanations regarding the experimental materials were sufficient, practice materials adequate, terminology clear, the extent to which subject matter relates to the children's experiences, and the suitability of projects used. The coöperating teachers, when they have finished teaching a given unit of material, make systematic reports on prepared blanks. These records help to determine the proper distribution of drill and practice work, and the need for fixing learning through cumulative review which consist of new applications of previously learned principles.

In order to be fully illustrative of the educational principles which I wish now to state we need to give similar summaries of curricular studies dealing with reading in the first two grades, with music in the intermediate grades, with productive literature in the junior high school, with pupil use of the school organization as part of their curricular material, and with other studies. It cannot be said that all curricular experiments accept the principles stated as their guides. There are those who proceed to collect factual

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elements of courses of study as if when facts are collected courses are thereby determined. That is but one step in curricular study. Curricular organization cannot be soundly advanced, unless its guiding principles clearly include a sound point of view regarding method of work and study as well as factual materials of the subjects. Nor can we safely proceed on the vagary that all which is now in any curriculum is wrong and all most be done anew. Such would be a queer judgment upon the curricular evolution of past decades. With these facts in mind, and with the desire to include educational purposes as well as curricular guides, certain principles should be clearly defined for use in any reorganization of the school subjects of study.

1. Pupil attitude toward school subjects—Children learn best, retain longest and find learning most stimulating and most usefully available, when the subject matter and methods of school work are engaging and genuine, not repulsive and artificial. Those who hold this view believe that more and not less effort is made by pupils when they are occupied by engaging and real work; hence, if more effort is made more educational growth may be secured. It is not believed, however, that all pupils are all the time held to high effort merely by the holding power of vital subject matter, but it is believed that subject matter should be so selected and used that more should be gained than has been, from its inherent significance to pupils. It is much harder to accomplish the needed changes than to see clearly that changes are needed. The latter, for each school subject, requires prolonged and careful classroom trials with school children. Indeed it is possible that comparative trials may show that some whole subjects may profitably be omitted, or others added.

2. Pupils must succeed in school subjects if they are to be educated—Pupils develop faster when engaged most of the time upon things in which they succeed, not fail. Educational efforts must usually result in success, if further effort is to be carried on with fervor and wholeheartedness. When a college entrance examiner recently stated that " a college entrance examination in physics should not permit over 60 per cent of those taking it to pass," he was supporting and promoting one of the most serious situations in modern education. The one-third who do not pass, together with the large number of others who were advised not to try the examination, are living and discouraged exponents of a situation so set up as to be almost hopeless educationally for most of those thus discouraged. Incomplete and imperfect learning and consequent failure are needlessly depressing. They are needlessly costly in money, school space, and human life, since those who fail have not moved on to the next level of achievement. Subjects should be so selected and used, and pupils and subjects both graded so that more pupils succeed, in order that later success may also be had. No fear that there will not be enough failures remaining to provide ample occupation for the teachers who through sheer arbitrary discipline wish to engage in the occupation of goading failure into medicore success.

3. The rate and quality of learning are improved by an increase in number of senses used—There is an oft-stated principle, still too little used in

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curricular planning to the effect that pupils learn best when their minds are approached by senses and materials other than those which relate primarily to words. Our education has become one of much words. It is so much easier to organize and use subjects of study as definitely set printed pages, as assignments to be reproduced in recitation, than it is to use assignments as follow-up discussions of situations derived from experience. We have fallen into a conventional education of words. Again my point contains nothing new; but again must it be clear that we have assented again and again to platform argument then proceeded to act as we did before. Subjects of study have not changed as have our theories of what subjects are for. Our advance in principles and ideals to which we assent has outrun our progress in practice in use of the school subjects.

4. The subjects should be organized and used so that pupils may teach one another—Education has never made adequate use of the fact that children learn much from one another, and our subject organization does not favor such mutual teaching. Instead of the still too common practice of discouraging communication and mutual assistance, the school atmosphere and the organization of the subjects of study should encourage such mutual pupil teaching as may pertain to the particular subject content upon which they are engaged. Subjects of study should be selected and organized and content of studies should be such that pupils can come into mutual and coöperative mastery of them.

5. The school's organization is a legitimate and necessary part of the subjects of instruction—If school is training for social effectiveness, the school institution must itself be socially effective. To be so the educational processes must be coöperative, and the activities and procedures which enter into the school's organization must be used as true subject matter material. When this is not done, the different members of the school community live a false life under the guise of preparing for a later real life out-of-school. Democratic education begins within the school by use of the school itself, else the school must fail in part of its social contribution to its pupils. This means that school curricula and methods and building management must be participated in by pupils, and that the school's own organization is a part of the school's curricular possession, not a personal possession of the administrative officers. If this is true, it means that administration must secure a closer relation with the school subjects than is now common. Needs for school funds, school buildings, general organization have caused too wide a separation between administration and the real work of the schools.

An explanation of the disparity between educational principles and ideals on one side, and school practices on the other, seems reasonable. Educational theorists and philosophers have engaged in statements and argumentation which were abstractly appealing to their readers and audiences, and when asked concerning specific things to do in prosaic school rooms, have replied that those are details to be worked out by an enlightened teaching profession. This diverting by-play, when serious, betrays an unfounded confidence in the productive capacity, available time and energy of most

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members of the teaching profession. It overlooks or evades the fact that most difficult of all is the task of improving the courses of study with which the profession deals. It overlooks the courses of study with which the profession deals. It overlooks the fact that school practices are not likely to be changed suddenly from their present position to the very advanced position outlined by new principles and ideals, but that school practices evolve from what is. Biologically and sociologically things which are, have come rather directly from things which have been, and from much of our educational theory nothing has come. It has recently been said that "the theorists failed to create a machinery of books, methods, and teachers to carry out their theories. Ideas will never be carried out unless they are embodied in machinery. So when the theorists failed to develop new machinery for their new conceptions, the old machinery already in use in the schools—the old books, old methods, and old points of view—continued to function in the old way."

The relative satisfaction with the definiteness of the present subjects of study as compared with the confusion produced when changes in content and method are introduced seems to be an argument in favor of leaving things as they are. Similar confusion as to the aims of education is also cited as reason for waiting until aims are more clearly defined. But aims are sufficiently clear to show many people the necessity of change, and pragmatically our aims cannot be finally stated until after trial and measurement it is found what can really be accomplished. Fortunately teachers and investigators in various school systems all over the country have accepted the necessary complications resulting from efforts to change the content of subjects of study and have found the confusion not destructively disconcerting. Rather have they found that constructive improvements of subjects awaken teachers to new confidence in the progress of education.

KEEPING THE CURRICULUM ALIVE

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As laborers in the field of education we must admit that for the average child there may be more than mere humor, in Mark Twain's admonition, "Let not your schooling interfere with your education."

An examination of the average school curriculum both as to its content and its method of presentation will lead any thoughtful person to question whether or not schools do actually train for living, for are we not intended to go out and live as individuals, capable of thinking and acting as such? And does not the average school curriculum tend to stifle the individuality of children by treating *en masse* both as to the "what" and the "how" of what is given them? Treating individuals, too much "*en masse*" has been the weakness of all civilization.

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In the time allotted me I want to point out how in our experimental schools of Renville County we tried to make the curriculum more alive and so arrange the work that each child in school could be given work suited to his individual differences. Please bear in mind that we were dealing with the average rural one-teacher school—the kind found in many parts of the United States—where children are obviously unhappy, where in parrot-like fashion they perform the tasks assigned them by the teacher in just the way she dictates; the school where only a fraction of the time is devoted to actual work, but where much is utilized in the formation of bad habits, mental, physical, moral; the school which comes to us with ancient traditions of at least thirty classes a day, and the " 3 R's " taught in the " good old way."

Believing firmly that, after all, schools are primarily designed for the benefit of the children attending them we felt justified in departing just a little from the beaten path and tried to shape the work so that each child might be treated as an individual and grow and expand naturally, yet acquire an adequate amount of the world's ever-increasing " store of tested knowledge." I have time to point out only a few concrete examples. May I say in passing that we divided the pupils into three general groups, making it possible to have at least 30-minute periods for recitations.

The first example I want to cite is with an upper group in the study of Minnesota history. This experimental school of ours was in a Swedish community and in this particular project the aim was to give the pupils a better understanding of their heritage of nationality, of the contribution their forefathers had given America, and in return America's gift to them, in the hopes that in years to come this background might give to these pupils a better understanding of their responsibility for the future. This project came up in conjunction with the study of agriculture and how and why the early settler pioneers from Sweden had cultivated the land, growing crops for food for themselves and the live stock, just what they brought with them, and why all this necessitated a study of the conditions under which they lived.

Thus the idea came of transporting a family from Sweden to Minnesota. A family of seven was decided upon, Father, Mother, Grandfather, Grandmother, and three children. Typically Swedish names were chosen. Conditions under which this family lived in Sweden were studied, just what they might bring with them was taken into consideration, transportation was discussed and routes decided upon, even the ship was named. For all this steamship folders were pored over, immigration laws studied, and the children learned that immigration today was vastly more complex than when their forefathers came.

Where to locate in Minnesota was a question. A map was hung on the wall and each child was blindfolded and asked to find a place where he wanted his mythical family to locate. Naturally Renville County was the location sought but we only succeeded in bounding it. One family located in the iron range district, one in what is still the lumbering region, one on

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the North shore of Lake Superior, in short almost every part of Minnesota was reached. This meant that these prairie children set about to find out just how life was lived in other parts of Minnesota. How houses were built, how food and clothing were obtained and Minnesota became a most wonderful State to them. Time was much too short to learn all that needed to be learned. Every library book that had any bearing on the subject was eagerly studied and periodicals were brought to school.

Naturally the father of this family, being a thoroughly fine Swede wanted to become a citizen, so naturalization papers were taken out and here a new study opened, which led into a study of citizenship and civics in general. Every day a new phase came up, and altogether history, geography, civics, arithmetic, agriculture, literature, folk songs and folk-lore were studied and when the close of the school year came the "end was not yet." Can't you imagine how vitally interested every child in the group was? How he utilized every hour of the school day in looking up material and learning facts, also how each child in this way could get all he was capable of out of the lesson, depending upon his natural mental ability, his capacity for work and his previous training. To those of the group who had studied the earlier history of the United States, that history took on a new meaning. They realized that these immigrants had much to be thankful for to the builders of our history and how in turn the United States had needed much of this fine stock represented by this immigrant family to make possible her remarkable progress and development. From all this it was not difficult to teach the children how inter-dependent are communities, States, and nations.

One more example: In connection with our agriculture and in our boys and girls club work we were teaching balanced rations for calves and pigs, and the children become eager to learn more about what the human body needs for growth, energy and the regulation of body processes. A record was kept by each club member of what was fed daily to the animals and someone suggested the children keep a daily food diary of what they ate. Meanwhile the study of balanced rations had been going on and one day one boy said, "Seems to me we aren't getting a very balanced ration" and small wonder he made the remark, for almost without exception this is what the diaries showed. Breakfast, bread, butter, coffee, fried pork, fried potatoes. Lunch, bread and butter, meat sandwich, pie or cake, sometimes an apple. Dinner, meat and potatoes, bread and butter, pie or cake, coffee. These pupils saw how lacking their diet was in milk, cereals, fruit and vegetables, and it came almost as a shock to them to realize this condition. Physiology and hygiene became most important subjects to them, and the hot school lunch became part of the school program instead of merely a bothersome part of each day's work. Needless to say the contents of the dinner pail changed, for mothers were fine on coöperation and the hot dish supplemented the lunch brought from home. Milk was served in the afternoon to the primary children and they were eager to get it, who before had declared they could not drink milk. Again geography and history were taught. For a study of foods necessitated a study of food manufacture,

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preservation of food, transportation, markets, etc. A socialized noon-hour was inaugurated. Table etiquette was taught, and from this customs and manners of other Nations were studied.

In short by trying to make the curriculum touch the lives of the children in a way they understood we not only made the school day a joy to the children, and the school that happy medium for development that educators look forward to, but we dignified "school" in the eyes of the community, and made of it an institution worthy of consideration, and a business project justifying the expenditure of public money, so that no longer did the adults of the community think of it in Whittier's words,

> "Still sits the schoolhouse by the road,
> A ragged beggar sunning."

WHO SHALL MAKE THE COURSE OF STUDY AND HOW?

ERNEST HORN, PROFESSOR OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION
UNIVERSITY OF IOWA, IOWA CITY, IOWA

"Who Shall Make The Course of Study." There are two criteria which must be kept in mind in answering this question. Both criteria may be put in the form of questions. How may each community secure the best course of study for its pupils? How, through courses of study, may the greatest stimulation be brought to the teachers? The first criterion has to do with the selection and organization of educational value. The second has to do with the development or training of teachers in service. Since teachers are measured according to the effectiveness with which they transmit to pupils the greatest educational values, therefore, the best training in service is possible only when the course of study itself is of superior worth. The first question then, is the basic one, how may each community secure the best course of study?

The answer is, only by building it upon the best experience, soundness, research, and keenest judgment which this country affords. Let me be concrete. How may each community secure the best courses of study in reading? Only by building it upon the experience in schools where, measured by every device now available, reading has best been taught; only by building it upon the wealth of data discovered in recent researches; only by constructing it in the light of the judgment of those whose contributions to the development of this subject have been most far-reaching. The best course of study in reading is possible only by *pooling the leadership* in the field of reading.

The leadership in this field is not limited to college professors. Leadership includes all of those who have contributed. It includes the classroom teacher of insight and artistic technique; it includes the supervisor who has succeeded in stimulating her teaching staff. It includes the superintendent who has made success in this subject administratively possible. It includes those who in colleges or in bureaus of research are building the foundation

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of sound method by their investigations. It includes those who in colleges or normal schools are directing the training of young teachers.

This mere classification of the leadership in this field suggests that no one community contains even all of the kinds of leaders which are essential to the making of the course of study in this subject. Much less does any community contain all the leaders.

The best evidence that communities cannot make satisfactory courses of study for themselves is to be found in the courses of study which have been made by communities. It is the writer's pleasure every few years to make a thorough canvass of courses of study issued by normal schools, experimental schools, city schools, and State schools. Those of you who have undertaken similar studies will agree with me that the great majority of courses surveyed in such a canvass are of a mediocre or inferior quality. In the entire country there cannot be found in universities or in public schools more than two or three distinctly superior courses in any subject.

I believe that it is no exaggeration to say it any subject, say, silent reading, a committee selected on such basis as I have just mentioned could with proper stenographic assistance make in two weeks a course of study incomparably better than any course of study now in print.

In urging this point of view before a small group, the question was asked, "But have we not had committees?" The answer is "yes." And where strong committees have been appointed important contributions have been made. I have in mind such committees as the Committee of Eight in History, whose reports afforded the basis upon which courses of study were modeled for years, and upon which the best text-books now available in history have been written. There have, however, been certain weaknesses in our methods of assigning work to committees.

First, we have not had these committees in session for a sufficiently long period. There has not been available money. There has been too little attempt to pool the real leadership of the country in the subject for which the committees have been appointed. The committees have often not been taken seriously.

These defects may be removed. The committee must be selected and organized, so that it will not only represent but actually bring into action the best leadership in this country with respect to the subject concerned. The committee will be as democratic as science itself. There will be necessary qualifications, but these will be limited to those implied by the fact that an individual has made distinct and valuable contributions to this field. There probably should be a central committee of from five to nine members, and substantial board meeting committees to which special phases of the task could be assigned.

The committee should have at least a week's preliminary meeting for the purpose of outlining the work to be done, for the purpose of deciding problems upon which solutions are already satisfactory, for the purpose of listing for experimental attack those problems which now lie in the field of controversy. After a period of additional study, the committee should be

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called together again for at least a week, during which time it should formulate a tentative course of study. This course of study should be submitted for trial to volunteer schools scattered widely over the country and representing all types of public school conditions. After a trial for a year or two, the reactions from these volunteer schools could be collected along with suggestions as to changes or modifications. These suggestions could be made then the basis upon which the final course could be made.

The expenses of such a committee should be paid while in session and necessary clerical assistance should be provided. The committee should probably be continued over a period of years in order to study carefully the development of the courses of study in actual classroom situations, and in order to keep the interest in such work properly directed.

What would be the result of such a procedure? In the first place, we should have better courses.

Second, there would be a greater stimulation to teachers in service. In running through the literature of the last few years, one finds a great deal written on the general theme that courses of study, in any community should be made by the teachers and supervisors in that community. Even though inferior, it is argued such a course, which is the teachers' own, will result in teaching practice which is superior to that which would be obtained by a superior course placed in the teachers' hands. The answer to this argument is that courses of study should not be placed in the teachers' hands. These courses should be studied with the teachers. The superintendent or supervisor will be very sensitive to criticisms, constructive or destructive. It will be the function of the superintendent or supervisor to let the teachers see that such a course affords the finest opportunity for their own professional development. This course will not be in the nature of a command. It is in the nature of information in which the teacher must be led to have confidence and upon which she may model her own teaching practice. It is the speaker's judgment that most of the talk about the teacher's desire to create courses of study is without foundation. The experience of those who work with teachers' organizations has been that they are always ready—they are even eager to take hold of methods proposed by those in whom they have confidence. The greatest professional awakenings that I have ever seen have come under the leadership of men and women in whose training the teachers had confidence, and under whose instruction the teachers improved their teaching practice.

Third, such a course would render a great service by putting before teachers one sound plan of work instead of bewildering them in the confusion of controversies. A large part of the energy which a teacher or supervisor spends in professional improvement, is spent in trying to decide what is good. It is spent not in trying to learn to do what is recognized to be good, but in trying to learn which among rival suggestions is the proper practice. Many of the questions which are now aired before teachers' institutes and in the periodicals read by teachers, should be aired in committees. The effect of our educational quarrels is to continually unsettle

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the confidence of teachers in any teaching procedure. Often there is little difference of opinion on questions which are in controversy, but these differences are emphasized by our speakers rather than the points upon which there is agreement. This is true of those who speak on the project method, silent reading, the teaching of social sciences, or the use of mental tests. For example, upon the great majority of the problems involved in the use of mental tests even Bagby and Terman agree. We owe it to our public staff that they should know which practices are now agreed upon, and which practices are still in controversy.

Fourth, such a course would make for permanence of policy and would provide for adequately following up one method until teachers could be adequately trained in it. The new supervisor would now feel it her job to continue the practices recommended by such a report and followed by the preceding supervisor. She would be far less likely to upset her teaching staff by making a new course of study, and by introducing new methods.

Fifth, such a course would help teacher training institutions. It would save them from the confusing changes which come with new training school directors and new critic teachers. It will enable them to know how to train their teachers for the jobs into which they will soon go.

Sixth, it would afford the best basis upon which to meet the critics of our public schools. Such reports could well be made the basis of articles in our popular magazines.

Seventh, it would be of assistance to small school systems in making a course of study such systems are at a disadvantage in every way. Fewer teachers can be freed for the actual preparation of manuscripts. Library facilities are inadequate. The supervisory assistance is more meager. It is impossible to finance the printing of courses even when they are made. Without waiting for committee reports such schools should buy the best courses on the market rather than attempt to issue their own courses.

Such a plan will give us better textbooks. Every strong committee report has been followed by an improvement in the books with which the report deals. Often companies spend time in trying to discover some new method so that they may beat their rivals to the market with a new book. With the report of such a committee to guide them the time of the companies and their authors could be spent wholly upon the making of superior texts to fit the course of study which the committee recommends.

I believe that these suggestions are in harmony with the entire feeling of this meeting. I have been impressed in going from meeting to meeting with the recognition on the part of our superintendents, even the superintendents of our largest cities, that they should not attempt to work out their salvation unaided. It seems to be clearly recognized that for one community to attempt to solve its problems in isolation is not only inexcusably expensive but the results of such efforts are not satisfactory.

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HOW MODERN BUSINESS MAY AID IN RECONSTRUCTING THE CURRICULUM

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The bankers of this country have made up their minds that the best way to induce people to open savings accounts is to teach children in the schools the importance of thrift. The result is that a number of publications have appeared in recent years stimulated by the bankers in which the importance of saving is set forth and in which devices are described for teaching pupils thrift. This example shows that business recognizes the school as an influential agency for propaganda and is ready to spend time and energy in turning the curriculum to account for the cultivation of what it deems to be a public good.

There are other examples of the same type. Not long ago one of the oldest trade journals in the United States, the *American Lumberman,* published a leading article in which it urged its readers to interest the schools in the study of lumber.

The *Tea and Coffee Trade Journal* last August had an article in which dealers were told that the study of tea and coffee by pupils will help the trade. It was pointed out that such study will, among other achievements, remove prejudices against coffee.

Turning from examples which show that business recognizes the school as a good medium of communication we may take up a second no less impressive line of consideration. Business has in recent years demanded sweeping changes in education in order to prepare more efficient workers. In demanding these changes, business has begun by asserting with emphasis that young people ought to be prepared by the public educational system to take their places in the warehouse or in the shop as well as in the professional office. Business has been critical of the schools because the lessons taught are often remote from the interests of common life. Business has said that the schools are bookish and theoretical, that teachers are pedantic and without knowledge of the world. Because business was so utterly out of patience with the schools there was enacted a few years ago federal legislation creating a federal board which was to change the situation and bring more practical work into the curriculum. The form in which business decided to introduce practical courses into the schools of the country through the federal board is known to all of us, and so is the result of that experiment. I cite it without any expression of judgment as to its wisdom; it is one of the conspicuous historical examples of a contribution, and a very vigorous contribution, by business to the doings of the schools.

There are some negative examples which show that there are matters which business is reluctant to have discussed in the schools. During the war the Bureau of Education and the Food Administration joined in the publication of certain leaflets containing discussions of civic and social problems under the title, "Lessons in Community and National Life."

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These leaflets took up among other matters the rights of laborers and the facts about labor organizations. There was not an assertion on these matters published in the leaflets which was not based on practices explicitly sanctioned by our federal government. The statements were all prepared by the best writers on labor in the country and by men in the federal service. In the fall of 1918 the Secretary of the Industrial Conference Board issued in the name of that Board an attack on these leaflets, saying that they were full of unsound economic teachings, and distributed the attack to all boards of education. The immediate effect was an enormous reduction in the use of the leaflets in schools. Evidently when a business organization such as the Industrial Conference Board does not want labor problems discussed in the schools, there is going to be difficulty in keeping these matters in the curriculum. Furthermore, it is very interesting to note in terms of this illustration that business is in contact with very powerful agencies to which it can make its appeal when it decides to have something kept out of the schools.

There are other influences besides those which eminate directly from organized business which are operating to introduce into the curriculum of the schools instruction relating to commerce and industry. The demands of the young people who attend the schools and of their parents have resulted in recent years in many innovations. For example, many of our urban school systems have organized a two-year commercial course in their high schools. This is an effort to provide in public institutions a type of training which a decade ago was given chiefly in private schools. The students of the private schools constituted so large a percentage of the young people of many communities and their desires were so obviously in line with community needs that it was inevitable that some provision for commercial education should be made by the public schools. It is important to note that the commercial courses thus introduced are in many cases short courses differing from the ordinary work of the schools. The short courses are a direct response to a demand coming from pupils and parents.

Another example of the same kind is to be found in the records of attendance on higher institutions. There has been an emphatic movement of students toward special vocational courses as those supplied in the schools of agriculture, engineering, commerce, and business administration. Not only so but in the elections made within the colleges of arts and sciences a very marked tendency has appeared to fill up the new courses in economics and the other social sciences, and the courses in natural science which deal directly with the practical activities of society.

It may be said with absolute assurance in the presence of these examples, business and the school are to be joint contributors to the preparation of young people for the duties which they take up in mature life. While one can speak thus with unqualified assurance about the general relationship, there are a great many problems which have to be solved before this relationship can be said to be established in a sound and wholesome way. It behooves us therefore, to enter into the discussion of the best methods of working out the curriculum in which business is to have a part.

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The various existing forms of organization of practical courses show that if business is to make contributions to the school curriculum it will by no means be enough that somebody decide that courses are to be prepared in industrial subjects, in thrift and on the problems of labor. This will indeed have to be done, but the more difficult problem is to so articulate this new material with existing courses in the schools that the United States shall have an educational system, not a collection of competing items of instruction, not a collection of warring institutions bidding in an unfriendly spirit for pupil patronage. It is, I believe, in keeping with the facts to say that at the present moment American education is compelled to face as one of its immediate problems, that of a complete readjustment of the school program.

Thus far I have not expressed a single judgment with regard to the wisdom or unwisdom of the educational programs which I have described. I have tried to hold absolutely to facts. The bankers want us to teach thrift. Business wants trained workers. College students elect engineering and economics. Wisconsin has industrial and general education. Teachers of academic subjects sometimes look down on commercial courses. The Federal Board wants those classes which it supports to be as distinct as may be from those which it does not support. One may have the one or the other kind of emotion about them. One may condemn or commend; but these are the facts. We cannot overlook the truth that these facts are also like many of the other stubborn realities which the modern world faces. The world has learned of late that economic forces can operate to command not only the services of individuals but the life of nations. Economic problems are today the paramount problems of civilization. Yet it is difficult to induce in men the attitude of deliberate intelligent study of economic situations. We have not been trained as a race to think clearly and without selfish prejudices about anything that touches personal interests. We have made great progress in the intellectual mastery of natural laws. We study material things with a high degree of intellectual detachment, but when it comes to the human relations of ordinary life we have to admit that our schooling and our ordinary thinking are meager, and inadequate.

The careful student, who mourns about nothing that is, but merely tries to understand it, sees that the time has come when the school is to include all aspects of modern life. There is no possibility of keeping business interests out of the school because the school has been expanded to the point where it reaches over into the domain of common social interests. A few people may satisfy themselves with the statement that the curriculum is so full that it can take in nothing else, but that excuse for resisting expansion is becoming less acceptable and less common than it was a few years ago. The American school is going to expand until it contains whatever is necessary to make intelligent American citizens. Anyone who is not in sympathy with that program may as well change his habitation now as later.

The way is now open to present the crux of the whole matter. There are two ways of describing this critical central problem. First, are the bankers and the lumbermen and the manufacturers going to determine the contributions that business is to make to the school curriculum? Or, is the curric-

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ulum to be revised by teachers who are prepared for the work only by traditional academic courses? Second, the question refers, not to people, but to the spirit of the process. Is the school going to face the future in a spirit of rebellion against expansion and reluctant acceptance of only those contributions from the outside world which are forced into its program or is the school going to enter enthusiastically into the program of reconstruction?

It is a cardinal defect of our school organization that we are not provided with any far-reaching broadly-conceived plan of action in this matter. Our school systems are local in their control and detached in their thinking and action. Here and there in a tentative and piecemeal way some vigorous soul is working on the reconstruction of the curriculum. Some superintendent decides that his contribution to the life of his schools will be along the line of discovering new materials of teaching, but such a superintendent is rare. Some teacher sits down after the days work is done and with such energy as he can command works out a new textbook. Very often the textbook is of only moderate success because the schools are not prepared to receive it. Some student of education in a college of education works out a plan and proposes it to those whom he can reach by articles or by personal persuasion. We are a detached body of workers. We are not prepared to cope in any systematic, organized way with the demand which is upon us for a rational acceptance of the contributions which business offers to the school curriculum.

The result of our lack of organization is that all sorts of accidental forces operate to shape the programs of the schools. We have no organization that can put lessons about labor into the school program against the protest of an organization which knows practically nothing about the instructional material which it is led into condemning.

Our lack of organization leaves us without perspective. Perhaps it is true that lumber or coffee ought to have half a day each in the schools; perhaps they ought to have a month. If they get a month each, where are the two months to be located, in the fourth grade or the seventh? Are they to be taught in a Smith-Hughes class or in a John-Brown class?

There is an impressive illustration of the dangers of a narrow view of the school curriculum which our colleagues of the Department of Education at Cornell University have recently been urging upon our attention. It used to be argued a few years ago that country schools ought to administer a curriculum which should have as its chief purpose that of keeping country children on the farm. This is an excellent example of one of the movements which gets started from time to time in the American school system because somebody has an enthusiasm of some kind. The experiment of keeping children on the farm, our colleagues who have studied the matter, tell us will not work even where it is tried, because there is no possibility of foreseeing in the country any more than in the city which children will follow in the steps of their parents in the choice of a vocation and dwelling place. The country school no less than the urban school should have a broad program. This program should include whatever is needed to prepare a citizen for the large opportunities of modern life. To think of the country schools in a narrow way is an offense against society. To turn the country

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school over to anyone who thinks of its problem in purely rural terms is to limit the school unjustly.

Every example that can be cited carries one toward the conclusion that there is need of a broad and sympathetic attack by the best trained agencies that the country can supply, on the problems of curriculum reconstruction. That new materials of teaching will be taken into the school each year is perfectly certain in the light of our history. This process of absorption of new material will be carried on wisely only if there is some effective agency of broad scope and vision to do the work.

I suggest to this body that it organize a commission which shall be charged with the duty of guiding the activities of American schools as they take up new materials into the school curriculum. There need be no curtailment of the various lines of local and personal effort which are now attempting to deal with curriculum problems. Indeed local initiation can be given new value and new encouragement through the coördinating activity of such a commission. On the other hand the central body will serve to broaden the view of all who are at work in the field.

The Department of Superintendence is a peculiarly fit body to undertake this general revision of the school program. The administrators of American schools are in a position, if once they can be brought to see the necessity of systematic work on the curriculum, to command support for this large enterprise. Furthermore, they are in direct contact with the outside practical world in a way that makes it readily possible for them to guide public opinion as well as to marshal the forces within the school. Suppose that a superintendent undertakes sympathetically with his Board to study the contributions which local business can make to the curriculum. Suppose at the same time the superintendent is in possession of the recommendations of a commission of this Department as a guide and check upon the work being done in the single community. Suppose that a superintendent should select some of his ablest teachers and arrange for them to give time and energy to the preparation of new lesson material. Suppose the whole teaching staff of a school system were brought into the discussion of desirable enrichments of the school programs. Can anyone doubt that the schools of this country would begin to make progress in the absorption into their work of all the materials that present-day civilization offers for the stimulation of the mind! If this Department could be persuaded to undertake the guidance of curriculum reconstruction, it would set in motion a movement that would tend to satisfy business without opening the school to the invasion of its curriculum by all kinds of accidental influences. The Department would also supply a much needed example of the way in which a National agency can properly, and in true American fashion, perform a country-wide service for the schools of the United States without in any way curtailing the operations of individual systems. One grows enthusiastic about the possibilities when one contemplates what could be done by a commission of able administrators working on the adjustment of the school to modern needs.

May I reiterate what has been said. Business is eager to see a revision of the school curriculum. It has various suggestions to offer, some of which

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are undoubtedly better than others. In the effort to accept all these suggestions, the schools have been disturbed in their routine administration of traditional material. The schools have been disturbed in their traditional operations by the fact also that they are going through a very rapid expansion which is in some measure due to the effort of modern society to master in an intellectual way the problems of the day. What is needed is a strong central body ready and able to marshal the energy and resources of the schools in a broadminded reconstruction of the curriculum. The Department of Superintendence could undertake no more fruitful piece of professional work than that of carrying on with all the prestige of its organized authority a study of the possibilities and detailed methods of reconstructing the curriculum of the public schools.

THE HUMAN ELEMENT IN CURRICULUM MAKING

WILLIAM McANDREW, ASSOCIATE SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS
NEW YORK CITY

In the Ypsilanti Normal School, forty-two years ago, a teacher not content with the incompleteness of courses of study, but active in extending them by means of more modern matter dictated for our note books the following:

"When the French defeat was recognized as beyond repair, Jules Favre and a commission waited upon Bismarck. 'The French people, said Favre, desired no attack upon Germany. An insane militaristic group stampeded them into it. You have said you wage this war not upon France but upon the Emperor. There is no Emperor. We have deposed him. With humility, with bowed heads, beaten to our knees, we can only throw ourselves upon your generosity.' Then Bismarck made his famous reply: 'Generosity, there is no such word in my vocabulary.'"

That Ypsilanti teacher thought and taught that generosity is a word which is and ought to be a frequent one in the vocabulary of Americans. At the time when Bismarck was boasting of the absence of this word from his vocabulary, America was vigorously practicing it by sending food and clothing, money and supplies to a hundred thousand homeless in fire-stricken Chicago. At the time our Ypsilanti teacher was expounding generosity as an American trait, Rutherford B. Hayes, in the face of virulent abuse, was practicing it toward the South. From year to year that Ypsilanti teacher's pupils, teachers themselves, along with thousands of other teachers in Michigan, Maine, Florida, or Oregon, have used the Spanish War, or the Boxer indemnity, or the World conflict, or the Hoover service, or the Red Cross work, to remind the coming citizen of what may be summed up in Roosevelt's words, that "To be an American is to lead a life of action, helping in our several communities, in the State, in the Nation, what is right and decent and lofty and generous."

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GENEROSITY A FAMOUS AMERICAN TRAIT

"Generosity" is a winsome word. It belongs to an honorable family. Its relatives "genial," "gentle," "gentleman," "gentlewoman," "congenial," "ingenuous," "genuine," suggest expansive thoughts. Their power lies in that small syllable "gen," which relates them to the generation, the breed, the race, the people. Generous means full of gens-quality; generositas, generosity, is the race feeling, humanity.

Your President selected it for discussion here as an essential in determining a course of study. "The human element in curriculum making." Your first Americans adopted it when Franklin and Washington, Adams and Jefferson, Madison and Monroe, proposed that education should be made a public concern and used for the purpose of maintaining a human ideal adopted as the central principle of the Nation, to wit: the ideal of human equality, liberty, happiness, union, justice, domestic tranquility, common defence, general welfare.

Theretofore emphasis upon personal, individual distinction and advantage as the purpose of education had been respectable through the ages. I could conduct a private pay school for the purpose of "perfecting the whole man: physical, moral and mental," or "to introduce youth to his cultural inheritance," or "to fit him for his environment," or "to prepare for college," or "to enable him to make a living," or "to teach him those things which are commonly regarded as the school master's function." In so doing I should be performing an act held legitimate for thousands of years. Seventy-one per cent of the eminent educators of America, in 1903, confined themselves to the objectives just given.

There is a conspicuous fact in public education that makes these purposes inadequate. It is that, in every State and territory of the Union, public education is a charge upon all the people, not upon only parents, relatives, and those attending school. This fact makes it difficult to justify the taxing of a childless man in order that the son of a neighbor may perfect his whole self or be introduced to his cultural inheritance or be fitted for his environment or be prepared for college or to make a living or to have anything done for him for his individual benefit.

How strong is this American human element recognized in organizing what the public schools do? That is, in making the curriculum? Ask the men most conversant with the situation in different sections of the country "what should the curriculum be?"

These are the answers of February, 1923.

PUBLIC SCHOOL IDEALS FROM VARIOUS SECTIONS

New England—Payson Smith. "The curriculum must show a change from individual gain to service. It is not to make the boy get ahead, to make money. The curriculum aims for the public benefit."

A. H. Wild. "Public School Curriculum: An outline of daily school occupations tending to supply the community with the most valuable citizens we know how to train."

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Middle Atlantic States—Thomas E. Finegan. "A course conducive of the spirit of loyalty to the common State and Nation."

W. L. Ettinger. "It ought to be a recipe for the Nation's morale, civic welfare, patriotic fibre."

The Great Lakes Region—E. C. Hartwell. "A preparation for citizenship."

Charles S. Meek. "A guide to social service."

Frank Cody. "A plan for training social efficiency in a democracy."

Along the Potomac—F. W. Ballou. "To fit for service to society."

The Ohio Valley—Randall J. Condon. "A plan by which children may happily be prepared for efficient service."

Middle West—John H. Beveridge. "A guide for training citizens."

The South—A. B. Rhett. "A procedure based on the intent to endow everyone with civic ideals.

The Pacific Coast—Fred M. Hunter. "A plan by which each youth will gain power and desire to use his endowments to their highest point for the highest interest and happiness of himself, his dependents, his country."

H. B. Wilson. "A plan of exercises training for the physical, mental, moral, civic, requirements of social service."

One might here conclude that enough has been said and that the discussion may be considered satisfactorily closed. The samples examined are all sound. The creeds are all orthodox.

Yet every superintendent does go further and while professing content with the ruling definition of public education, indicates his dissatisfaction with its working out. These are the reported causes preventing the curriculum from guiding to the results proposed.

THE TIMIDITY OF THE CURRICULUM

First the curriculum itself. "It has too much dead wood in it." "It is influenced too much by earlier curriculums and by too many other communities." "It is conditioned too much by an appetite for completeness of the subject, too little by the main civic purpose of the public school."

It is surprising how a system like the public schools, with its civic obligations so clearly enunciated by theorists, its public duties so definitely indicated by the source of financial support should be distanced in clearness of aim and directness of program by an organization not a charge upon the public at all. Here come the Boy Scouts with the purpose of patriotism, service, citizenship, "a good turn daily," on the front page of their prospectus. Why didn't we do this long ago? As it is, we do well to get behind them and boost as best we can.

DIRECTNESS OF BOY SCOUT OBJECTIVES CONTRASTED WITH PUBLIC SCHOOL TRADITION

One is haunted by a doubt whether the reason for the inclusion of all the stock contents of the curriculum is a civic and public one. Many of the subjects seem vested interests of us teachers who have spent much time and money acquiring them. I find no record of any curriculum being composed

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by asking, "What are the public needs of the community which is paying for the schools? What are the daily exercises likely to develop a human output habituated to supply those needs? There is some powerful influence holding the management of schools back from so simple a method of planning school procedure. What is it? The sample superintendents answer:

The second obstacle, my correspondents mention as preventing the great civic purpose of the public schools, is tradition. Mr. Meek finds it hard to get any articulation between the social needs of today and the things the children are doing in the schools. This defect is an inheritance we derive from the education developed in autocracies. Safety forbade that any institution dependent on high officials should think on things that really matter. The schoolman's brain concentrated upon things dead and gone. He developed a body of knowledge called scholarship. Its conclusions were academic, immaterial, inconsequential. We have organized a cult that affects a correctness of accent and spelling. We are more ashamed of a grammatical blunder than of ignorance of the crying civic problems of our own society. We have treasured long some old ideas which we call eternal verities and when we make a course of study we are prone to start with these lest some critic will find them absent from our course and ridicule us.

A closely related hindrance is the third one in these replies: public ignorance of American educational doctrine.

STUPIDITY OF PUBLIC CLAIMS

The implications in the fact that all the people pay for the schools are often lost through a narrow fallacy, assuming that only those who pay the taxes on real property are the actual contributors. In vain has it been demonstrated that everyone who earns or spends in a community is the real taxpayer. Each year the claims for some advantage come in from a self-selected group. They begin, "We, the taxpayers," along with these mistaken arguers are those assuming that the parents of children are the sole determinants of what the schools should do. America does not confine school taxes to parents. Bachelors and maiden ladies pay as much as fathers and mothers. This not infrequent criticism of some citizen upon a board of education that he is unqualified because he has no children in the public schools might as fairly be directed at all members of prison boards who have no children in jail. Both services are for the public welfare; not primarily for the inmates or their relatives. The courses must be made more for community betterment than for individual advantage. All the schools I visit show the influence of the selfish desires of children and parents. Emulation between persons thrives in the schools known to me. Prizes, honors, valedictorianships, academic degrees, titles, hang over from an age when education was a distinction for the few and vitiate the American purpose to break down distinctions, to promote equality, to advance general not individual welfare.

The removal of this stumbling block, public ignorance, requires a systematic and more extended use of the method now rapidly growing, namely,

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straight talks at Kiwanis, Rotary, Lions, and other clubs and meetings so as to hammer home the public, not private, purpose of schools. The same ideals in newspaper editorials; short doctrinal talks at graduation exercises, and promotion of this gospel through pageants and ceremonial displays.

The next obstacle enumerated by my experienced correspondents is inefficiency of the school people, superintendents and teachers; their lack of preparation; their preference for running in the old grooves; their laziness, their content to enjoy cloistered isolation sheltered from the perplexing questions of the hour.

There is enough of this to warrant earnest effort for curing it. In a town not far from here the question of inviting a tobacco factory to establish a branch in that location came up. There was a public meeting addressed by lawyers, doctors, business men and a minister. No teacher or school official thought of speaking nor anyone of inviting them; yet it was a community question. But when Harvey Clark inherited an old homestead and found, in the attic, some books with the imprint 1680, he gave those to the high school. When the road was cut through the hill and hundreds of fossils were uncovered, they were all given to the State University where they would feel at home.

SELFISHNESS AN HISTORIC AMERICAN DREAD

Everyone of the founders of the republic had a vivid sense of the dangers to our democracy lurking in selfish appetites which centuries of wrongly organized society had failed to supplant in civic affairs. Washington thought these tendencies the most formidable of all the dangers to the country and invoked, what he termed of "primary importance" the establishment of schools that our politics might be "the will of the Nation, digested by common councils and modified by mutual interests." Jefferson fought against what he called personal corruption, men using the power of office to reward private friends. Personal patronage, one of the curses of royal courts our new Nation expected to avoid, is listed by superintendents as high up in the list of impediments to progress.

The first school meeting I ever attended was a celebration of twenty-five years of service of a venerable old man. The whiteness of his hair, the purity of his face, the modesty of his manner were winsome indeed. In his speech the old reprobate declared, "never a poor widow, never an orphan, never an unfortunate appealed to me but I got her a place in the public schools." Our superintendents, wishing to realize the function of education as a prime political, that is civic force, attempt acquaintance with men engaged in other lines of public service. It is a melancholy pleasure, because of the unstinted flow of requests, to help this friend and that to place a preferment, not for the public benefit but "as a favor to me." Whatever city in the country boasts of a school board whose members are free from this itch of securing personal patronage shines like a little candle in a naughty world.

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There is a need, therefore, to enumerate the present weaknesses and dangers in our management of our common affairs; that is the defects of our town and State and National politics, of our industry and business, of our social living together and to decide how we can put more training of generosity, that is, more race loyalty, more of the right human element into our curriculums.

FAILURES OF VARIOUS REMEDIES

The growth of civic appetite among our school people in the past five years seems to me greater than in the whole of the preceding hundred. The organization of ideals of democracy as formulated by Duncan Yocum; the outlines of civic teaching from the kindergarten through the high school as adopted by the entire State of Pennsylvania; the study of present social problems by 565,000 pupils a week in elementary and high schools, using the *Independent, Literary Digest,* and *Outlook,* whereas in 1900 there was only sporadic study of this kind in preparing debates; the striking increase of papers on this civic theme in the meetings of the National Education Association since 1916—all seem to me to show that the doubts of Rabbi Hirsch, Mr. Bok, Judge Draper, Mr. Henderson, Mr. Flexner, Col. Learned, and others who have been fearful of the failure of the public schools, can more and more be dissolved as we superintendents centre our efforts more and more on the primary objective—namely, training of appetites and habits for community benefit.

THE BLESSEDNESS OF HUNGER AFTER RIGHTEOUSNESS

Where I have seen it honestly tried I have marvelled at its rejuvenating effect upon teachers. The expansion of instruction from a transmission of scholarship to a training for civic service seems to reach the hearts of teachers who have found heretofore life bringing little glow of enthusiasm. The husks of grammar and spelling have left real desires unsatisfied. But in those schools which have taken community service as part of their regular exercises and which do something term by term for the community, rather than give the mere lip service of singing a National song, speaking a patriotic piece, writing an essay, telling others what they ought to do, the deepest needs of a teacher's ambition seem to be more amply fed.

They realize what Franklin meant when he said, "At your last day you will not be asked what you studied, what degrees you obtained, but what did you *do* for your fellow man."

The provisions for definite community service, I regard as the human element necessary in curriculum making; an honest provision for training one's duty to the gens, to humanity, so that if Bismarck should look up from where he is now sizzling he would say of the products of the public schools "Generosity? that's the most realized word in their vocabulary."

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RESPONSIBILITY OF THE BOARD OF EDUCATION IN MODERN SCHOOL ORGANIZATION

J. H. BENTLEY, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, DULUTH, MINNESOTA

Most of our school board organization is an inheritance from a day when the board of education administered the schools directly through teacher and principal. Forms of organization devised for the most part when our cities were small and the educational program very simple have not been adequate in the greatly increased size and complexity of a modern city system. Consequently, during the past few years there has been a great deal of study of various forms of school administration by students of education, school superintendents, members of boards of education and citizens interested in the welfare of the schools.

While there has not been entire agreement among the members of these groups, on the whole certain principles have been developed that are held consistently by the large majority of those writing on this subject. They may be summarized as follows: The board of education should consist of from five to seven persons; it should be elected at large by the people; its members should not be paid for their service; city school systems should be under State control, but not hampered by detailed State laws; the board should be independent of city officials and should have power within statutory limits to levy taxes for its funds and to expend same; there should be no standing committees, but the board should operate as a "committee of the whole"; the board should confine itself to formulation of policies and leave to its executive officers the carrying out of these policies; there should be one executive head to the school system, and this executive should be the superintendent of schools; within the system the same theory of organization should be followed, responsibility from superintendent or his assistants to principals should be definite and direct and should be accompanied by authority adequate to the responsibility imposed.

Where these principles have been given a trial in actual practice they have usually produced good results. At the same time in some places problems have arisen out of the attempt to apply them that have tended to offset to a degree the benefits they have brought, and it is with one of these problems that this paper will be concerned.

All of us know of instances where following a survey, or the revision of a city charter, or the election of a well-trained and progressive superintendent of schools, or some other turning point in the history of the schools, the board of education has attempted to adopt modern methods of organization. Generally as a result there is a marked improvement in the system and rapid progress is made. Then, in many instances there comes a reaction, a new board is elected, or the superintendent is removed by promotion or otherwise and conditions either revert to their former status or the school system marks time for a while. What is the trouble here? Assuming that the progress made was real progress, why does the city refuse to go forward? To simply say that the school administration had lost touch with the community or had gone too fast for the people merely states an obvious fact but does not

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answer the question. Too little publicity is another explanation. While it is true that publicity on school policies is necessary and generally speaking there has not been enough of it, to simply say more publicity would have prevented the reaction against real progress in the schools is to only state a part of the truth. The problem is fundamentally one of organization.

The real trouble is that the school board went only part of the way. Organization is a word to conjure with now-a-days. We see its marvelous results in big business, in drives, on every hand. A board of honest sincere citizens who only desire to serve the interests of the children can easily see the impossibility of their attention to the details of school administration and the harm that can come when members of the board meddle in such details. Where they are not self-seeking, the pressure of their own private business reinforces their desire to be rid of all the work possible. Students of educational administration advise them to turn over the details to their executive officer and the example of successful business organization adds its wieght. Accordingly, the board takes the first step in a proper form of school board control by withdrawing from active participation in the details of school management and placing this responsibility on its superintendent of schools.

So far so good. The board has stopped doing those things it should not do. But too often it stops doing much else. There are things it should do which it usually does not assume. The board should devote itself to the larger questions of the formation of policy, the checking of results in the schools to see if these policies have been carried out and securing from the public at large proper support for them.

This latter task is the difficult one. Much more has been written on how to organize a school system under one executive officer than how to adopt policies, check them up and defend them to the people. The former is easily charted and diagrammed. The latter is unexplored territory as far as the board member is concerned and as far as many of the educational theorists are concerned. In most cases what actually happened when the board took its first step and made its superintendent the chief executive officer was that it also made him its policy-forming officer, its inspector and its publicity agent. This is what the student of educational administration really expected to happen though he says "The board with the advice of its superintendent should adopt policies, etc." This is what actually does happen in big business organizations. But the parallel between big business organization and school board organization is not complete. There are important differences. Success in the management of business can generally be indicated by the amount of dividend returned on the stock and the responsibility of the directors is to the stockholders whose interest in turn has at least hitherto been measured in terms of that same dividend.

Successful management of a school system cannot be measured in any such definite way as by a stock dividend, and responsibility to the public whose money is being spent and whose children are being educated is far different from responsibility to a stockholder in an industrial organization. The board of education cannot properly turn over to the superintendent of schools its task of policy making and policy defending. Our schools are a

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part of our democracy. In them the people of this country should express and do try to express their ideals for the education of their children. The board of education is the elected representative of its community charged with the task of defining the educational ideals of the community and formulating them in educational policies. This is not the task for the specialist or the expert. He can advise, suggest and help formulate but the task of gathering up the desires of a community for the education of its children and of saying this or that is what a community wishes, peculiarly and properly belongs to the representatives chosen by the people. The people want good schools. The education of its children, the opening to each new generation of wider doors of opportunity is a passion with the people of this country. There is no limit to what they want for their children and if they react against real progress, as they sometimes do, it is because they do not see the school program as something that they have desired. Not only is it improper for the board of education to turn over to its executive officer its task of formulating policy but because of this very impropriety it is not a part of good organization for it so to do.

It may be admitted that it is possible for a superintendent of schools to so understand the community he serves that he will recommend to the board policies that will represent the desires of that community, that are in line with sound educational practice and that are within the limits of its ability to pay. This may be possible but in practice hardly probable and the evidence of actual occurrence is against it. The superintendent of schools is usually an outsider. Only occasionally do we have the long continued service of one man in a community until the community comes to look upon him as an integral part of itself. The superintendent is the specialist. He is the expert in education. He needs the check and the stimulus of the enlightened and disinterested layman's point of view. The legislative function should not be combined with the executive function in the same person. Out of this combination has come the bizarre experiments that in some school systems mark, like geologic strata, the successive administrations of various superintendents. Where the board of education leaves to the superintendent of schools the initiation and recommendation of policy and adopts these policies on his recommendation more because of their confidence in him than their actual knowledge of their merits or a recognition of their necessity in the community, the defense and explanation by the board when these policies are attacked are usually a defense of the superintendent and not of the policy involved. The result is that instead of a campaign on educational policies, the extraneous issue of the personality of the superintendent is injected and the personality of the superintendent is injected and the case won or lost on this issue.

This is the reason for loss of connection between community sentiment and the program of the board of education. The fault may not lie in the program itself nor does it lie in the lack of desire on the part of the people of the community for the benefit that would come to their schools from this policy. It is quite possible also that the program may have had full and ample publicity. The real trouble lies in an organization which turns over

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to the expert the functions that should be exercised by the representatives of the people themselves. The failure of city managership to win popular approval in many cities is traceable to this same attempt to carry too far in a political institution a form of organization that has been remarkably successful in the industrial world. The people of our cities want the economies and the efficiency in management that can be brought about by the city manager but they resent what seems to them an assumption on his part of legislative or policy-forming power. The man's personality is pushed to the foreground and the elected commissioners appear to be his servants instead of his masters. The same things happen in school organization when the board of education turns over to the superintendent of schools not only complete executive authority and responsibility as they should, but at the same time practically leaves to him the initiation and the defense and explanation of policies. It is a violation of a fundamental principle in representative government and although the average citizen may not reason it out as such, his opposition arises from his more or less unconscious appreciation of this fact.

It is easier to say that the board of education should formulate policies than to have it do so. The tradition of the board managing the schools is ever present in the minds of the board members and the citizens of the community. In addition, it is easier to be busy with detail that it is to think through situations and generalize from them a policy. This means much reading and the study of educational problems and few persons elected to school board membership are experienced in such work.

Nevertheless, it is necessary that boards of education do assume their proper responsibility in connection with the administration of their schools. So far our study of school organization has emphasized the necessity for the board to relinquish its executive functions and to transfer these duties to its employees. The other side has not been stressed sufficiently and while the school survey and writers on school administration say that the important task of the board is to formulate policy, very little has been said or written on how this should be done. A great responsibility rests here with the superintendent of schools. If he has vision and energy and enjoys the confidence of his board, his natural impulse will be to formulate policy and urge its adoption. This he should not do. He must thoroughly understand the problems in his system and see that they are properly before his board for consideration. He must gather data from all sources and arrange this for the information of his board. He must supply educational literature. He must urge his board to the study of the problems involved and last, but not least, he must have the patience to go forward only so far as his board really comprehends and interprets the needs and desires of its community.

The fundamental problem is how to secure lay leadership for our schools. The expert is necessary and we must set him free for the greatest possible service to the schools. But the American city will not be led by experts. Its leaders must come from its citizens, and that school system where the board of education is intelligently and honestly trying to embody in its policies the educational desires of its public may not go forward so rapidly at times but its progress will be sure and steady.

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ORGANIZING A STATE SCHOOL SYSTEM FOR EFFECTIVE SERVICE

THOMAS H. HARRIS, STATE SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION
BATON ROUGE, LOUISIANA

A State school system should meet two requirements: First, it should lead in the work of education in the State. Local school officials and teachers should look to the State department of education for inspiration, advice, and correct methods of procedure in matters of supervision and instruction. Second, functions of a distinctly State nature should be placed in the hands of the State department. Some of these duties are: The making of courses of study, the adoption of text-books, the certification of teachers, controlling the higher State educational institutions, fixing the educational and professional standards of superintendents and teachers, approving schoolhouse plans, taking the initiative in educational legislation, and such other functions as may be required to guarantee the wise expenditure of all school funds and the providing of good schools for all the children.

I shall return later to both of these propositions, but at this point I wish to outline the State school machinery which will prove workable and efficient.

There should be a small State board of education, the members selected for long, overlapping terms. They should be selected from districts and not from the State at large, in order that all parts of the State may feel that they have representation on the board. The board members should be appointed by the governor and they should not be elected by the people. This view is not based upon any lack of confidence in the judgment of the voters, but upon the practical fact that able, public-spirited men are slow to offer themselves as candidates in large territories for honorary positions. The board in Louisiana is partly appointive and partly elective, and while the elective members are, fortunately, among the best of our citizens, I still adhere to the opinion that our machinery would be better if all of the members were appointive.

The State board of education should be the only board with State functions. It should have general control of the elementary schools, high schools, vocational schools, and direct control of the State's higher educational institutions. We have so organized in Louisiana with the exception that a separate board controls the State University. We have found it advisable to provide for executive committees for each State institution and for heads of divisions in the State department, but all of these are responsible to the State superintendent and through him, to the State board. In the administration of the affairs of any institution there can be but one head, and that principle applies to a system of education as it does to other institutions.

The board must have an executive officer and it should elect him and fix his salary. This provision was made in Louisiana, but before trying it we became dissatisfied and changed back to the popular election system. We probably made a backward step when we did this—we would have acted wisely had we left the board free to look the world over and select the man best fitted to fill the office of superintendent.

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In the administration of the affairs of a State school system, numerous assistants, clerks, bookkeepers, etc., are needed, and these should unquestionably be selected by the superintendent, for they are responsible to him and are directed by him. The superintendent of Louisiana, as a matter of courtesy, usually asks the board to approve such appointments, but legally he is not required to do so.

The State school funds made available to the State board of education should be constitutional, and they should be adequate. They should be in the constitution, for when there, they are beyond the reach of legislatures, and school officials are in position to make plans with the assurance that funds will be available for their execution. The State department of education should not be required to compete with other interests for funds when the legislatures meet—education is the most sacred of all interests (except, perhaps, the asylums), and the funds for its support should be set apart, and beyond the reach of all other interests. I know it is the belief of many that a constitutional minimum support for the higher educational institutions is a mistake. We hold the contrary view. The rapid and proper development of our colleges, normal schools, and other State-supported institutions really began under the plan of a constitutional minimum support distributed upon the recommendation of the State board of education.

The State school funds distributed for the support of the public elementary and high schools should be adequate—my judgment is, they should be at least fifty per cent of the total school funds. The public schools of this country have been developed on exactly the opposite theory, that of local support. we have assumed that each community should pay for the education of its children, and we have carried that principle to the extent of requiring the agencies other than the State to carry eighty-five per cent of the educational burden. In pursuing this policy, we almost bankrupt some communities, while we scarcely touch the wealth of others. We used to raise the most of the school funds in my State in districts, and under that scheme I have known districts that would have been wise to deed all of their property to the school board. The State's wealth is unequally distributed; it is frequently concentrated in a few centers; wherever it may be, it should contribute substantially to the education of all the children in the State. Just how large the State's share in the burden of education should be, I am not prepared to pass an infallible judgment; but I do say with the strongest emphasis that if we are to go forward with the work of providing good schools for all of the children of this country, we shall have to abandon the practice of requiring the local community to bear the major portion of the financial load—we shall have to require the wealth of the whole State to contribute generously to the education of all the children of the State. Unless this policy of taxing large units to finance the schools is adopted, communities with little wealth (and they are in the majority) will find it impossible to educate their children.

I return now to the two important functions of the State department of education, namely, to do the things which the State government is able to

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do better than the local communities, and to inspire and lead the educational forces of the State.

There are numerous functions which naturally belong to the State department of education. One of the most important is to secure the legislation required for the advancement and control of the public schools. The State department is in touch with the needs of the schools, and the influences at its command place it in position to lead a successful fight for necessary funds and legislation.

The State is interested in having all of the children taught by competent teachers and in having the teachers' efforts directed by able superintendents, and it follows, therefore, that the State department should govern the standards of teachers and superintendents and prescribe courses of instruction in colleges and normal schools, and especially that it should have entire charge of the certification of teachers.

The duty to make courses of study for all classes of schools belongs as obviously to the State as the duty to govern the qualifications of teachers and superintendents. The State department must be conceded to be in intimate touch with educational thought and practice throughout the Nation and to know what can and should be attempted, while local communities cannot be expected to be so widely informed.

It is the duty of the State department to see that schoolhouses are designed to meet the needs of children and teachers, and that no public funds used in the construction of school buildings are wasted; it follows, therefore, that the State department should be required to approve all plans of school buildings. This simple requirement will soon force local school boards to employ competent school architects to design their buildings and to supervise construction, preventing the erection of monstrosities and the use of shoddy materials and workmanship.

I omit the enumeration of other State functions in order to devote the rest of my time to a discussion of the State department's most important duty, namely, the leadership of the educational forces of the State. If a State department of education is not in intimate touch with the school officials, faculties of State institutions, and teachers of the public schools, as well as the public, and does not enjoy the respect and confidence of all of these forces, there is something wrong with the State department. And this essential spirit of confidence and coöperation is not a thing of law—statutes and governmental machinery cannot supply it. It has its roots in a public sentiment that considers the State department of education a wise, patient, friend, coöperating, suggesting, leading, but not driving, in the great work of doing the best that can be done for the children of the State. This wholesome public sentiment knows that the State department arrogates to itself no superior wisdom, that it uses and gives credit for knowledge and successful experience wherever it finds them in the system, that politics is not in its vocabulary, that it has but one thought and mission in life, namely, the education of the children under the best possible conditions and standards. A department of education which has joined hands with all agencies in the State in this coöperative manner will prove a spiritual leader in

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advancing the educational interests of the State; one not fortified by such confidence and coöperation will probably do little more than occupy office space.

How does the State department find its place of leadership? The answer is very simple: First, no matter how highly centralized power may be in the State department (and its powers should be great), the department's ideal should be to coöperate with the educational forces and induce them to measure up to high standards of achievement, not because they are ordered to do so, but because such action is right and any other course would be wrong.

The superintendent needs many hands and heads to assist him in fixing standards and in coöperating with local officials and teachers to secure good results from instruction. The personnel of the staff determines the State department's place in the school system. The board's most important duty is to select the superintendent, and the superintendent's most important duty is to select the office staff. If both of these duties have been wisely performed, the State department will occupy the place of leadership in the school system unless it is completely hamstrung by unwise legislation. The superintendent can be guided by but one ideal in choosing his staff. He cannot select his assistants with the view of taking care of needy friends or shelving possible competitors for the office of superintendent. His selections must be men and women who are best fitted by education, training, experience, and personality to do the work required. His selections must be such as to win the approval and endorsement of the forces in the field. The staff must be the ablest and the finest spirited people in the profession, and then they must be allowed to use their talents. They should not be clerks of the superintendent. There should be as many forces in the State department doing their dead level best to advance the cause of education as there are members of the staff and clerical force, and in the midst of these forces the superintendent should encourage initiation and independence, using his veto power only when the best interests of the system call for its use.

Stating in a word my conception of an effective State school system, I should say:

There should be a small overlapping State board of education appointed by the governor for long terms. The board should elect its executive officer and fix his salary. The board should have large powers in the general control of the elementary and the high schools, and it should have direct control of all State-supported educational institutions. There should be no other board with State functions. State functions should be kept in the State department of education. The State government should be required to carry a generous portion of the educational financial load. The superintendent should be unhampered in the selection of his staff, and he should be placed in position to pay such salaries and employ such numbers as may be required to command the best possible talent and to lead in securing the highest type of educational results. A State department so organized and so functioning will advance the educational interests beyond words to express.

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IMMIGRANT EDUCATION

EDWARD A. STEINER, PROFESSOR OF APPLIED CHRISTIANITY
GRINNELL COLLEGE, GRINNELL, IOWA

The problem of the unfortunate alien has been solved as far as our institutions can solve the problem, but how this heterogeneous population like our own, the most varied ever assembled on any spot of this earth, is to make and obey the same laws, how it is to earn its daily bread in the same, or worse, in competitive labor, how it is to be educated in the same schools for a common social purpose—that problem is far from being solved. It is daily being drawn deeper into the vortex storm cloud adding confusion to confusion. Some people have solved the problem by moving out of undesirable neighborhoods, taking their churches with them, the congregation lustily singing "Onward Christian Soldiers" marching to the suburbs, leaving behind them anæmic-looking mission chapels with ministers to match. They send their children to private schools to be educated for life in a democracy away from its congested confusions. A caste system is in process of formation which will stratify our American society into petrified sections.

However, the strongest characteristic of the American people is the will to assimilation. Just what they want they do not know, except that they do not want a hyphenated nationalism nor such race blendings as are repugnant to their strongly developed race consciousness. This instinct for separation, this race consciousness, cannot save us from a certain degree of physical assimilation. We shall never be biologically an Anglo-Saxon race.

The higher phases of citizenship—obedience to law, the love of order, the sense of solidarity and responsibility—completely escape the curriculum. They are in the sphere of contagion and not education: For this we need not text-books but good living examples. One devoted, honest-to-goodness American is worth a dozen textbooks and he is better than a thousand patriotic speeches. In order to develop this cultural nationalism, the public schools must develop a large and generous attitude toward all immigrants as persons.

THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL AS AN AID IN THE SOLUTION OF INDIVIDUAL PUPIL ADJUSTMENT

W. G. BATE, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, RICHMOND, INDIANA

Training leaders for democracy is not the whole obligation of the schools of today. Just as many more trained leaders are necessary, so is it necessary that there be better trained followers. We know that our democracy will endure and prosper only as all its members are better equipped to do those things which they may have to do, either as leaders or followers. It is the growing realization of this fact that has resulted in the laws and the public opinion operating to hold practically one hundred per cent of our children in the realm of school training until they are fourteen and sixteen years of age.

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It is here that the junior-high-school organization can justify itself and by the flexibility of its program serve the boy and girl who formerly dropped out at an early age because school seemed to hold out no opportunity.

To merely hold boys and girls in the realm of the school until they are sixteen years old is a plan with no merit. Even worse, holding them by legal authority in an environment which to them seems unprofitable and merely repressing, and which in truth is just that, is more likely to make a large contribution to the building of an attitude of resentment and revolt against a governmental agency that is supposed to be helpful. It is but a step to unintelligent criticism and resentment against all government.

The problem is ours. Democracy's program of education for all must be carried out but it means individual pupil adjustment in place of an inflexible and limited curriculum adapted to but one group. The junior high school is built upon a recognition of this problem and by its flexibility can be the aid to the solution of the problem.

THE SUPERINTENDENT AND HIS TEACHERS

WILLIAM E. STARK, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS
HACKENSACK, NEW JERSEY

Some superintendents sigh over the quality of the young people who are entering the teaching profession. As a matter of fact, the quality is probably, on the whole, as good as it ever was. At any rate, it is futile to sigh. The superintendent's job is to take teachers as they are and learn how to bring out the best that is in them. Few people attain to their greatest possibilities. One of the most fruitful sources of improvement in education lies in the latent ability of the teaching staff.

How may the superintendent develop this latent ability? The "six-horse team theory" of education, in which the superintendent holds the reins and plies the whip, will not accomplish the purpose. The "Pollyanna theory," which leads the superintendent to wear a permanent smile and commend everything that he sees, good and bad alike, will merely keep his school system slumbering peacefully. The "Government inspection theory," with the superintendent in the rôle of plain-clothes-man, looking for infractions of law and applying the government label, will result merely in evasion and routine performance.

The superintendent who would get from his teachers the best that is in them must be a leader. He cannot know everything which goes on in a class room. He must have confidence in his teachers and give them responsibility. He must lead them to understand the whole educational enterprise and to become enthusiastic co-workers in carrying it out. He ought not to dictate the exact procedure to be followed by his assistants. He ought rather to train his teachers to recognize their problems and to work them out for themselves. He will be neither a driver nor a nurse, nor an inspector. He will be captain of a team.

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PUPIL PROGRESS BY THE INDIVIDUAL METHOD

A. J. STODDARD, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, BRONXVILLE, NEW YORK

In general, the theory has been that all five-year-old children are ready for the same instruction and that nine-year-old children are ready for instruction four years in advance of the five-year old. We know that the child that begins kindergarten at five years of age may have an actual mentality less than that of an average three-year old, or more than that of an average eight-year old and, that the nine-year-old child may not yet have ability to comprehend kindergarten work, or he may be able to enter high school as far as native ability is concerned. We always knew that children differed in mental ability, but now we know how much they differ. Tests given to several sixth grades in a city showed the following conditions: The pupils of this one grade ranked from the first to the ninth grades in spelling ability; from the second to the eighth grades in arithmetic ability; from the third to the tenth grades in composition ability; from the second to the ninth grades in silent reading. And yet, in the face of these enormous individual differences in children, most schools of America are still trying to instruct children in chronological age groups.

The present method of group treatment is exceedingly inefficient when evaluated from the standpoint of the progress of the individual child. Any attempt to make children learn at the same rate is useless. Our method of group recitations in any but the social studies is largely a waste of time. The purpose of a recitation should be to enable the teacher to diagnose a pupil's difficulties in order that he may go ahead. The usual group recitation in the classrooms of America is a conglomerate affair, where the teacher is trying to attain certain results, more or less definitely outlined in her own mind—seldom in the minds of the pupils.

The hours that the pupils spend in school with the teacher should be extremely busy ones. The teacher's time is far too precious to be used in the ordinary, or even the extraordinary type of class recitation. Practically the only school time that really is worth the money spent on it is the time when each pupil is making progress towards his own individual education. Are we fully justified in having the pupil that has already accomplished his school work spend his valuable time telling what he knows or has done to those who do not know and have not done?

Detroit, Michigan; Winnetka, Illinois; Dalton, Massachusetts; and other places in America are attempting to solve this problem through instructing children as individuals within their own social or age groups. Most interesting results are being accomplished. Teachers are accepting responsibility for the progress of each individual pupil as far as his ability permits and every child is developed to the limit of his native ability. Although the movement is new, it promises to revolutionize school procedure and theory.

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SCHOOL PROVISIONS FOR THE EXCEPTIONAL CHILD

GUY T. BUSWELL, SCHOOL OF EDUCATION, UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO
CHICAGO, ILLINOIS

Up to the present time the common method of dealing with exceptional children has been to vary their rate of progress through the school grades. The dullest pupils have been retarded in large numbers, while the brighter ones have occasionally been accelerated. The result of this policy has been to produce a total retardation of about 30 per cent and an acceleration of about 4 per cent for the country at large. One seldom hears a defense of this practice; in fact, it has been quite universally condemned. Obviously, when seven times as many children are retarded as are accelerated, the method has operated unequally with the two groups. The basic cause of retardation is the attitude of the school that a uniform curriculum with a fixed standard of quality must be administered to all children. As long as the school insists upon considering its standards as constant and fixed with the child as the variable factor any provision for exceptional children must be primarily a modification of rate of promotion—some form of flexible promotion scheme. If one accepts a uniform curriculum as a necessary fact, the only logical adjustment for the exceptional child is to speed up the bright and retard the dull.

While any one of the flexible promotion schemes may be better than no plan at all, the possibility of other types of adjustment should be considered in an attempt to find an ultimate solution of the problem. Three possibilities present themselves.

First, a uniform curriculum may be given to bright, average and dull alike, but presented in varying amounts adapted to the capacity of the pupil. All pupils must do the same work, but with different time allowances. In actual practice all do not do the same work, because the duller pupils become so badly retarded that the expiration of the legal school age finds them still in the elementary grades and they generally leave school without attempting to go farther.

A second possibility has attracted a large amount of attention particularly during the last decade. This is the plan of setting up a minimum essential program for the dull, and adding to it for the average and the bright. In many respects this seems to be a promising lead. It does recognize a genuine difference in the capacity of pupils and it attempts to meet this by a genuine modification in the required work. It attempts to meet the needs of the dull by a reduction of the existing curriculum, rather than by a positive construction of a course which is aimed directly at their needs. In theory this plan holds that there should be a corresponding enrichment of the curriculum for the bright, but detailed descriptions of enriched courses which are in actual use are exceedingly hard to find.

A third plan for solving the problem insists that since there are genuine and wide differences in the capacity of bright and dull pupils, the only way to secure a satisfactory type of mental response is to make a real modification

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in the stimulation—*i. e.*, in both the curriculum and the method of its presentations. This proposal goes beyond the minimum-essential idea. It admits of a small amount of flexibility in rate of progress, but it recognizes the fact that the duration of the period of education is affected by social and economic factors as well as by school achievement. This concept holds that, beyond the requirements for literacy, the social training of the dull is of more importance than the meeting of purely academic requirements. It demands a positive development of a curriculum apart from and beyond the minimum-essential plan.

ECONOMIC AND ADMINISTRATIVE VALUE OF THE PLATOON PLAN IN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

C. J. TIDWELL, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, FORT SMITH, ARKANSAS

The Work-Study-Play Plan, or as it is more generally known, the Platoon Plan of organization is especially advantageous for junior high schools. This is true for the reason that most junior high schools worthy of the name include in their programs the essential features of the Platoon Plan. Stated in other words, most junior high schools include in their programs of study provisions for health education, for vocational and educational guidance, for fine and practical arts, for directed school activities, in addition to the usual four major fields of study. School plants where such programs are carried on include usually an auditorium, a gymnasium, several shop and laboratory rooms, in addition to the customary class rooms. In such a school the introduction of the Platoon Plan is quite simple. No important changes are involved in either the program of studies or in the building itself. The modern junior high school organized along traditional lines can be reorganized as a platoon school much more readily than the same change in organization can be effected in any other division of the school system.

The economic value of the Platoon Plan is evident enough. As compared with the usual form of organization the per pupil investment in plant is reduced 33⅓ per cent. The same per pupil reduction holds good in the cost for general control, for operation and maintenance of plant, for fixed charges, and for debt service. The per pupil cost for instruction is reduced approximately 20 per cent. The total cost per pupil for all purposes figures approximately 25 per cent less under the Platoon Plan than under the usual plan. Assuming a cost of $100 per pupil under the traditional plan, the cost per pupil under the Platoon Plan will be $75.

The administrative value of the Platoon Plan, while not so evident as its economic value, is even more important. Because the Platoon Plan affords a larger group to deal with it is easier to group pupils according to ability. For the same reason a wider range of elective subjects may be offered without a corresponding increase in costs. The flexibility of this plan makes it easy to provide for individual differences in pupils. Programs are better balanced.

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The disadvantages of the Platoon Plan are not inherent in the plan itself. They frequently arise out of the attempt to use a building designed for the usual type of organization. When buildings are designed for platoon organization in the first place, practically all difficulties will disappear.

ADJUSTING THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL BUILDING TO THE EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM

E. E. LEWIS, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, ROCKFORD, ILLINOIS

Several factors must be considered in adjusting the building to the educational program. Among these factors are the number of pupils, the length of the school day, the length of the periods, the type of academic activity, the type of industrial and vocational activity, and the types of extra-curricular activity. It is impossible at this stage in the evolution of the junior high school to say what any given community should do. Whatever is done now will probably be greatly modified in ten or twenty years. No matter how carefully the educational program is determined for today, changes in administration and personnel will make considerable changes in policies. The modern fire-proof reinforced-concrete school building should last several hundred years. Such buildings are bound to outlive the educational policies of today.

It is evident that all junior high school buildings should be built on the flexible plan and on the unit basis. It should be possible to use a given room for many different kinds of work and to enlarge or decrease the size of rooms rather easily. It is also important to so design the building that it can be added to at any time without destroying its architectural unity, or affecting the efficiency with which it can be heated, lighted or otherwise administered. Classrooms, and especially new types of classrooms, should not be built in such a manner that they cannot be economically rebuilt ten years later, and adapted to some other type of activity. This means flexibility of classroom as well as flexibility of the building itself. This is not a difficult problem for the architect to solve. By putting heat, light, water, gas, and other service mains in tunnels and in corridor partitions, rather than in the partitions between rooms, the architect will make it possible to extend or contract the size of classrooms at minimum cost.

THE STATUS OF THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

THOMAS H. BRIGGS, TEACHERS COLLEGE, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY
NEW YORK CITY

The establishment of junior high schools has proceeded quite as fast as is wise, perhaps in some instances too fast. It is quite obvious that reorganization in some places has been in name only. Those in authority either without

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a sound understanding of the underlying philosophy and its possibilities or without the necessary industry have by imperial ukase (no lesser term can characterize their action) taken advantage of a popular movement and ordered the name over the school door to be changed. Others, especially those influenced by the demand of Big Business for retrenchment, have used the junior high school as an excuse for procrastinating the erection of necessary new high school buildings, and have had ninth grade pupils taught in elementary schools by teachers on a lower salary schedule. That these ill-advised and short-sighted actions have done incalculable harm cannot be denied. They have not only restricted education for ambitious children, but they have also discouraged the hesitant schoolman and strengthened the opposition to educational reform and betterment.

But even in these bad situations there is some comfort. In several cities that have blundered in this way intelligent teachers and principals have seized the opportunity to do what they could to improve subject-matter and especially the direction of the social life of pupils. It would not be difficult to find fault with the achievements as falling short of ideal possibilities, but we should pay high tribute to those pioneers who without official support, often in the face of discouragement, without direction and stimulus from their official superiors, without desirable new equipment and books have improved the occasion to better the education of youth whom the law no longer compels to attend school, to make them happier in their work, and to develop in them an ambition for further preparation for their responsibilities. The proverbial millstone will be a trifle compared to the weight which a just Providence will hang about the necks of those who have failed to support or who have discouraged these benevolent efforts.

The other picture is more pleasant to contemplate. Some cities have devoted months and even years to preparation for reorganization. Teachers have been offered courses, given locally or in colleges, to afford them an understanding of the possibilities in the new type of school; committees have been formed coöperatively to prepare new curricula and courses of study; appropriate text-books and supplies have been provided; suitable buildings have been erected; and, most of all, encouragement and direction have been given, either directly or through special assistants, by superintendents who have resisted the tremendous pressure that tends to make them diplomats, financiers, and directors of objective matters rather than educators. These cities have usually experimented in reorganization with one or a few schools, manned with a principal and teachers especially chosen because of their competence to pioneer, before widely extending the new system. In such a plan there is not only hope, but from it there has been real accomplishment.

The junior high school is here, and apparently here to stay. Supported by a theory that has not been seriously attacked, with a need emphasized more strongly every year by the increasing horde of youth persisting beyond the period of compulsory education, it offers an opportunity unparalleled in our generation for constructive independent work soundly based on a few simple principles. This is not achieved by copying courses of study. The

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most important of these principles are that by means of material in itself worth while the intermediate school shall explore the interests, aptitudes, and capacities of the pupils, that by material otherwise justifiable it shall reveal to pupils the possibilities in various fields of higher activity, and that because of the indeterminate persistence of pupils it shall make every course so far as possible profitable to the extent to which it is pursued. All of these principles are based on a full recognition of the great variety and extent of individual differences, innate and developed, that exist in pupils of early adolescence. They are based, too, on a conviction that education will profit the State and the individual to the extent to which it directs and stimulates each pupil to the mastery of the highest type of education for which he may be made competent.

THE PLACE AND SIGNIFICANCE OF EXTRA-CURRICULAR ACTIVITIES IN THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

WILL FRENCH, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, WINFIELD, KANSAS

Extra-curricular activities ought to receive a large share of attention in the junior high-school administration because of the possibilities which they afford of re-enforcing the work of the curriculum. The same arguments which justify varied types of curricula for these institutions justify the inclusion of a rich program of extra-curricular activities. Secondary education in a democracy ought to have both unifying and specializing functions calculated respectively to perpetuate society and to provide for maximum individual development. Types of extra-curricular activities which will serve both of these purposes ought to occupy a prominent place in any program undertaken. In order to get maximum results from a program of extra-curricular activity a special period ought to be inserted in the school day. This can usually be done by lengthening the home-room or reporting period or by taking time which is devoted on other days of the week to assembly. With such a period devoted to extra-curricular activities, larger benefits will be received by all the pupils of the junior high school, the work will continue with less interruption, a new dignity will be added to this type of activity and a better learning situation will have been created.

SQUARE PEGS AND ROUND HOLES

H. B. BRUNER, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, OKMULGEE, OKLAHOMA

How many of you know a lawyer who should be in some other profession? How many are acquainted with a teacher who should be in another field? How many have acquaintances whose talents lie in directions other than those in which they are applying them? That the world has many misfits is a fact that has all too much supporting evidence. Tens and hundreds, yes,

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literally thousands are teaching school because Dame Chance has introduced them to this field only and has neglected her social obligations by failing to make them acquainted with her guests, Engineering, Surgery, Business and the many others. No peculiar fitness has led them to make this choice. Likewise, many a lawyer might serve his country and his family better if he were banking, while many a business man is using only one of his ten talents in selling life insurance where all ten might be brought into play if he were a surgeon. Square pegs in round holes, round pegs in square holes, an anomaly so common that sometimes we think it is almost a rule and the world accepts it with a sigh, saying, "Of all sad words of tongue or pen, the saddest are these, It Might Have Been."

This article does not pretend to offer a final solution for the network of problems which arise here but it purposes to present a humble experiment, which has been successful as far as carried out. This experiment has been conducted for the last four years at Okmulgee, Oklahoma, and consists of presenting to the boy and girl of the seventh, eighth and ninth grades cross-sections or glimpses of many occupations, businesses, professions and future courses of study. These are called finding and broadening courses. In addition to English, citizenship and mathematics, each boy and girl in the seventh grade takes four nine-weeks courses chosen from the offering of twenty-eight; and in the eighth grade, either four more of these courses or two courses of eighteen weeks each. It is the aim of these courses to show the youngsters what is in store for them in the several different lines if they continue their schooling.

This work in the high schools should be only a beginning. Our metropolitan newspapers during the last three months have carried extensive comments upon the statements of certain college and university presidents that too many pupils were going to college and attempting higher education. In the cases of those students having low intelligence quotients the contention of these university leaders must be granted. It is conceivable, however, that a scheme could be evolved whereby even our higher institutions of learning might begin to think of the problem of having their curricula more nearly conform to the needs of the students applying for admission rather than compelling these students to fit into their more or less inflexible programs. If a course of study could be worked out for Freshmen college students wherein they were given, first, a course in English where they were taught to speak and write correctly their mother tongue; second, a thorough course in citizenship; and third, a series of short courses from various fields wherein the college freshman could get a glimpse of what would be offered in case he entered law or medicine or theology or business, quite an improvement would be made.

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A UNIFIED, UNIVERSALLY EDUCATED, EFFICIENT NATION DEMANDS A NATIONAL SYSTEM OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS

SAMUEL P. CAPEN, CHANCELLOR, UNIVERSITY OF BUFFALO
BUFFALO, NEW YORK

I disagree totally with the proposition stated as the subject for discussion. The United States does not need and should not have a National system of public schools. The strength of American education lies chiefly in its diversity, its flexibility and its freedom. The schools of Nevada have never been and should never be like the schools of Massachusetts. The schools of Alabama ought not to be like the schools of New York. The schools of any locality should be conditioned by the needs of the community that they serve. Their primary task is to fit pupils for the circumstances of living that prevail in that community. The United States is made up of a group of regions having different concerns, different industries and exhibiting wide differences in the composition of the population. The boundaries of these regions do not correspond with State boundaries, to be sure, but under the plan of educational control which recognizes the State as the largest administrative unit it is still possible to adjust public education to regional needs.

The diversity and freedom that have characterized American education are dependent upon local initiative and local responsibility. A National system controlled from Washington would shortly destroy both. A most superficial study of the educational systems of other civilized Nations confirms this assertion. French education, for example, despite its many excellences, suffers from a blight of centralization which dries up all local public interest and routinizes the teaching force. To a less marked degree, but increasingly, the same influences are at work in England.

But if further proof were needed of the dangers to this country of National control the unbiassed observer would find it in the educational enterprises that have grown up in the United States during the last few years under government subsidy and direction. I refer to the vocational training carried on under the terms of the Smith-Lever Act and the Smith-Hughes Act, and to the colossal failure of the rehabilitation of veterans. May I stress the word unbiassed. There are guerilla bands that harry the country in the interest of Federal enterprises of one kind or another. There are advocates of special educational projects, or of special groups of institutions, who can see no way to obtain the desired support for their undertakings except by tapping the presumably inexhaustible Federal purse. These persons naturally minimize or ignore the drawbacks of present experiments in Federal support and control. But aside from the special pleaders no sane person wants such undertakings as the Smith-Hughes work or the rehabilitation of veterans extended; and even the extension of the more beneficent Smith-Lever activities would find few advocates.

We face a great National need. We need research, facts, comprehensive organized information, ideas, advice. There is one clear way to get these

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things. We must set aside a body of our best investigators and thinkers. We must put them in a position to acquire a cosmic point of view. And we must give them the means and the prestige to make themselves heard. One important product of their labors should be a series of valid definitions of standards and objectives, progressively altered to meet new social developments. The galvanizing power of such statements of common ideals we have always lacked. This is a type of nationalization that would be both safe and fruitful.

A NATIONALIZED SYSTEM OF EDUCATION: THE SPIRIT OF DEMOCRACY, AS WELL AS THE AMERICAN CONSTITUTION, REQUIRES THAT EDUCATION BE LEFT TO THE STATES

M. G. CLARK, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, SIOUX CITY, IOWA

Concerning the organization and support of the American public schools, the writer is willing to defend certain definite positions.

The initiative and the direct control of the public schools should remain, a local unit, governed by a board of education, elected by the people, for the purpose of administering to the educational needs of the community in which the school exists. This is the first factor. The educational needs of the community may vary as communities vary. It is the duty of the board of education of the district, and its administrative officers, to study their community and to organize and develop a system of schools that shall make for its educational betterment. It is their duty to provide such an educational curriculum as will best fit the youth of their community to make their life work efficient and happy. The local unit alone can respect and know local parenthood. The local unit alone can react to family needs, to family desires, to family ambitions and meet family prejudices. In other words, the organizing unit of the individual school must always remain in the hands of the local district.

The larger values of the educational policy of a community return to the community itself, the community or local center should bear the larger part of the financial responsibility for the maintenance of the school. In working out a plan for the financial distribution of the cost of a school system, that approximately four-sevenths of this cost should be regarded as a legitimate local contribution.

The State is the second factor of importance in the education of the child. It is the business of the State to secure uniformity of opportunity for all its children; to guarantee to every child of the State a certain minimum educational inheritance. The local units may expand this minimum education as it sees fit, but the State should guarantee that every district in the State maintains this minimum of educational welfare. Consequently, the work of the State is largely to set and to maintain minimum educational standards. It is also the privilege of the State to keep before its citizens the

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larger educational vision. The fruit of educational inspiration is both material and immaterial wealth. It is the privilege of the State to plant " educational vision " that this sort of wealth may be increased and harvested. It is through this work of the State that the social and economic values of education find their proper function. The State, likewise, should bear a financial responsibility toward the education of its children. Its responsibility should be no less than one half that of the local community. The financial responsibility of the State should be placed at two sevenths of the educational cost.

The Federal government is, without question, the third factor in educational administration. It is the business of the Federal government to lend its influence and its financial support to the production of American citizens. The test of the product of the schools is not to be found in its arithmetic, its algebra or its Latin. The test of the public school system is in the loyal service of its product. It is this phase of education in which our Federal government should be particularly interested. Citizenship can be begotten only through the personality of loyal, red blooded, true hearted teachers who represent the highest type of American manhood and womanhood. The teaching body of the State should be characterized as the clear visioned, right thinking, fearless leaders in community service. The crying need of America today is not, more teachers, but more teachers of a higher standard of personality: real men and real women in mind, heart, education, and service. We want men and women chosen from the upper third of human power, culture, and leadership. It should be the duty of the Federal government to place the profession of teaching upon a par with law, medicine, and other professions in its desirability as a life service. Until this is done it is fruitless to discuss the raising of the standard of the American teacher. The Federal government should definitely plan to encourage the very best of American boyhood and American girlhood to enter the teaching profession—to become citizenship leaders for future generations. The function of the Federal government is to encourage and to insure this higher type of personality and of citizenship service among the teachers of the Nation.

To this end, the Nation should be willing to contribute one half as much toward the cost of education as is contributed by the State. One seventh of the total cost of education, therefore, should be borne by the Federal government and this one seventh should be applied particularly to the encouragement of a higher type of teaching personality and of leadership in the schools and community.

Four sevenths of the educational cost should be borne by the local district, two sevenths by the State and one seventh by the Federal government. This will be an equitable distribution and it represents in a fair way the respective educational responsibilities.

In conclusion it is urged that the final organization of educational administration and educational support in this America of ours shall be found " in the larger spirit of democracy " that extends from the child to and through the community, the State and the Nation, to a future National efficiency that shall insure the perpetuity of our country.

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THE PRE-SERVICE TRAINING OF TEACHERS

AMBROSE L. SUHRIE, DEAN, CLEVELAND SCHOOL OF EDUCATION
CLEVELAND, OHIO

Those of us who have to do with the development of the program in colleges for teachers must give more attention to better methods of selecting those who shall be admitted. Almost nothing has been done in the matter of interpreting to teachers and administrative officers in the high schools the significance of certain personal qualities on the part of those who would become teachers. The *Intelligence Quotient* does not tell the whole story.

The personal health program of the individual prospective teacher has been neglected. There is every reason why we should be as exacting in medical examinations given to those who enter our teacher training colleges as we are in medical examination given to those who enter the teaching service and in the case of minor remedial defects emphasis should be placed upon corrective work in the very beginning of the course and should be continued until definite results have been accomplished.

There can be nothing more fundamental in the training of a teacher than the development of initiative and a sense of responsibility. There is no possibility of securing adequate results in the development of these indispensable qualities so long as our normal schools and teachers colleges are so organized and administered as to give young people little or no practice in initiating plans for the solution of educational and social programs wholly apart from the curriculum itself. There should be club and class meetings and a student council organization and on the shoulders of the officers who are the chosen representatives in each of these groups the members of the faculty should learn to place chief responsibility for the inside administration of the school and the conduct of its work. Isn't it absurd that we should continue to tell prospective teachers exactly what they are to do, that is to prescribe their whole program for them and then expect them on the completion of a diploma course to suddenly become independent thinkers, have the power of initiative and to be able and willing to carry the responsibility for the independent conduct and management of classroom activities in practice. Whatever else the teacher training college does not do it should treat every member of its student body as though she were already in the teaching service in the sense that it should place upon the collective group full and complete responsibility for the management of the administration of the school and for the conduct of much of its class work and many of its activities.

The teachers college must not hesitate to advise and if necessary enforce the withdrawal of those who prove to be very unpromising or unworthy. The State is not justified in expending money in a teachers college for the general conduct of those who are not interested in or likely to become good teachers.

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THE TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT OF TEACHERS AFTER ENTERING THE PROFESSION

DANIEL J. KELLY, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, BINGHAMTON, NEW YORK

There are two groups or classes of teachers to be considered, the beginners and the experienced. The novice comes out of the normal school or the college far from a finished product. She usually knows at least something of the subject-matter she is expected to teach and has a speaking acquaintance with the method though this is largely theoretical. She does not understand, or so it appears, some of the simplest rudiments of school management or class-room technique.

Her best teaching qualification is her enthusiasm which, if coupled with excess self assurance, may become more of a liability than an asset.

In the experienced group are found three types: the zealous and progressive who always recognize that there is room for improvement and are ever striving to attain it; the complacent who are satisfied with everything especially themselves; and the whiners who appear never to be satisfied with anything. The first are entitled to the opportunity they desire; the others should be offered the stimulant they need; whether they take it or not may be for them to decide but their response is an aid in evaluating their worth.

In Binghamton we have made a thorough study of the problem and have developed a systematic plan which is comprehensive enough to include all of our teachers regardless of class or type and sufficiently definite to give each the individual touch she most needs or desires. This is done through five points of contact. 1. Careful placement: Every effort is made to place each teacher where she may do her best. The beginner is closely observed and her personality, training and other qualifications are considered before she is assigned. She is then carefully followed, her shortcomings noted and first aid administered as needed. Should trouble and disaster seem certain, a change of assignment is made and another start undertaken. In short, we believe that teachers should not be in situations for which they are unfitted. It is our aim to give each teacher the most satisfactory setting both for her own welfare and for the good of the system. We regard this as the basis upon which our scheme for training must rest.

2. Clear instructions: For all uniform and standardized details in management, such as keeping records, making reports, etc., carefully prepared regulations have been compiled and are placed in the hands of each teacher. This is only fair to teachers, who should not be left to flounder, uncertain of what is expected of them. Such matters become more vital and necessary as the system increases in magnitude and complexity.

3. Expert supervision: Our Supervisory staff is composed of two groups of experts: the principals and the directors, or as they are sometimes called, the supervisors. The principals who are naturally persons of mature experience and ability stand ready to give their teachers all the guidance needed in that which pertains to administration, such as discipline of pupils, contact with patrons, relations to associates, etc. In fact, for every problem arising

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in classroom management or the general conduct of the school wise counsel is given and a steadying influence is exerted. The corps of directors consists of one specialist for each subject. They are not only specialists in their respective subjects but are also experts in the art of teaching, well knowing from actual experience the difficulties and limitation of the class room for both teacher and pupils. Through them our teachers receive their most direct and effective training.

4. Extension work: The system offers opportunity for study in the evening schools by providing courses especially for the teaching staff, conducted by the directors or other specialists employed for the purpose. This instruction usually goes deeper and further than the class-room supervision or group conference and the teacher is enabled to strengthen the foundation for her class-room work. Magazine Clubs and Reading Circles have been effective agencies for improvement in the various schools.

Syracuse University brings to us their extension courses. These not only give help in teaching but make University credit possible.

5. Recognition of merit: The last act in our teacher training program is presented through a practicable and extremely satisfactory scheme for rating teachers. Once every year the work of the individual teacher is thoroughly reviewed from many angles and appraised. Superintendent, principals and directors collaborate and their composite judgment is determined. Each teacher is then personally interviewed by the Superintendent and informed of her rating. Excellent features are commended, weaknesses pointed out and discussed and constructive suggestions offered. All members of the staff thereby know how they are regarded, and their services evaluated. Of course it may be argued that all of this tends to create too much uniformity, restricting teachers unduly and destroying their individuality and initiative. We believe that the contrary is true. An ever present danger in human affairs is unrestrained personality. Coöperation is the keynote in a democracy; safety on the highway demands observance of uniform traffic regulations; efficiency in an institution requires "the everlasting team work of every bloomin' soul."

THE YEAR-ROUND SCHOOL

H. C. WEBER, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, NASHVILLE, TENNESSEE

The graded school is a factory for quantity production of education at such cost as the taxpayer can afford. It is not ideal—it is rigid, arbitrary, and tends to level all to an average. It is the duty of educators to improve the quality while economically keeping up the quantity. The system should be modified from time to time to make it responsive to the changing needs of the community's life.

To make the system more elastic, it is proposed that the work now done in nine months of the session would continue to be done in the same nine months, but an additional three months' work would be provided, so there

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would be one and one third of the present year's work covered in one calendar year. This would not increase the speed of the machinery of this factory but would only run the factory longer. What man, other than the proverbially impractical school teacher, would run his factory only nine months out of the year, when the world was crying for its product and the workers of the factory anxious for continuous work and pay, and the raw material lying in the yards rusting?

There is every argument that the school plant should not be idle three months each year. This plan would grant each individual student his God-given right to advance as rapidly as he could, and not be bound down with the dull or the lazy. Here the strong and capable could become productive in the world one, two, or three years sooner than under the present arrangement. One or two or three years saved at the beginning of life is just as valuable as one or two or three years added at the end of life. The system, which denies the individual the opportunity and the right to progress faster or farther than his neighbor, leads unmistakably to socialism and bolshevism. The world will not advance by repressing the bright so as to keep up the delusion of all men being equal. All men are born equal only in their right to equal privileges, and this very right demands that these privileges be available as each individual is ready for them.

Therefore, equal available opportunities for all, at any age, at all times of the day or night, all days of the week, and all weeks of the year—this and nothing short of it is complete democracy.

BUSINESS PRINCIPLES APPLIED TO EDUCATIONAL ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION

W. W. BORDEN, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, SOUTH BEND, INDIANA

A school city corporation is a big business organization and should be conducted by methods similar to any other business concern. I realize that the product manufactured by the schools cannot be measured as tangibly as other manufactured products; but the same business principles can be applied to our school accounting as are applied in cost-accounting in other business enterprises. The board of education in the great majority of our American cities corresponds to the board of directors in a large business or manufacturing concern.

The chief function of the directors of a bank, a manufacturing organization, or a business firm is to select a president, superintendent, director, or manager. So the chief duty of the board of education is to select a suitable person as the superintendent of schools who shall act as the chief executive of the board of education, and who shall be held responsible for the management of the city school in all its relationships.

The board of education should be the legislative body for a school system and not the executive body; just as is the board of directors in a business corporation. What is legislative function, and what is executive function,

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should be made definite and clear. In other words the board should see that things are done and not attempt to do them itself.

A superintendent of schools cannot afford to continue from time to time to make recommendations which are not approved by his board. You know what would happen to the manager of a corporation if he did this. In no place will a mistake of judgment by the superintendent manifest itself more than in proposals along lines of business. The lack of clear cut views on business administrative policies often cause a lack of confidence on the part of a board of education, because seldom is there a school board without one or more men of superior business ability—men of much better business judgment than the average superintendent.

There is no phase of the business department that is of any greater importance than the method of budgetary procedure. Well-planned and carefully administered budgets will attract the attention and secure the respect and support of hard-headed business men.

The budget should be based on the fiscal year. In most cities the date for the fiscal year begins July 1st. There should be uniformity among all cities in this respect. Overlapping of expenditures from one fiscal year to another makes accounting of funds difficult and also makes accurate comparisons with other cities impossible. The essential factors in the making of the budget are: 1. Knowledge of all money available from revenue derived from taxation; and revenue derived from other sources than by taxation; 2. Compilation of the budget should be made under the direction of the superintendent. He should secure estimates from the various department heads and officers of the school organization. These estimates should be secured in order to make each assistant feel a responsibility and because no one is better prepared to give the estimate than the person directly in charge of the department. 3. A continuous budget record should be kept in order to compare the various budget items with the same items for previous years. 4. Budget reports from other cities should be kept on file for making comparisons with other cities of similar rank. 5. The estimate of expenditure should be based upon the plan which is most widely used throughout the United States. The items of the budget should come under the following classifications: General control, instructional service, operation of plant, maintenance of plant, auxiliary activities, fixed charges, debt service, and capital outlay.

MAKING THE SCHOOL CURRICULUM

H. B. WILSON, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, BERKELEY, CALIFORNIA

The problem of the curriculum is as old as the beginnings of formal education. Its function is to specify the exercises and activities which shall be undertaken because of their probable educative and socializing value. It also indicates the subject-matter and other sources which should be used in connection with the exercises and activities that they may possess the largest educational value.

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The most helpful type of modern course of study attempts to go beyond the bare outline of essentials suggested. It seeks to be a hand book, guide and inspiration to the teacher in planning her daily work. To this end it not only suggests what should be done, but also indicates how the work should be undertaken. Standards of achievement are indicated in both qualitative and quantitative terms. Illustrations of procedure are concretely set forth. Results achieved are likewise indicated in sufficient detail to set a standard and pattern for all teachers.

The importance of the course of study as an administrative supervisory device can scarcely be overestimated. That its significance is not appreciated is evident to anyone who will examine the courses of study in use throughout the country. This device determines more than all other influences and agencies of the school combined how the pupils and teachers spend their time during the working hours of the school day. The directions issued in bulletin form from time to time and the plans made in the occasional teachers' meetings are quickly forgotten. It is the course of study which exercises a permanent, regulating influence.

The course of study is a constant problem. It will ever be so in the progressive school system so long as progress in society and thinking obtain. The course of study which is fixed and complete is to be found only in the school system which is already dead even though it may not be buried.

The curriculum came to be as it is under the influence of earlier aims and theories of education. The present content took form under the influence of these aims and theories. Although we have progressed in our own insights beyond them, the practices which they set up are still specified in the courses of study. Those now teaching and directing schools were trained for their work under the influence of these earlier aims and theories. The texts now in use cater to the type of theoretical training of the teacher now in charge of the schools. The inertia of all sorts to be found in any teaching group is a difficult force to overcome.

If, the responsibility of maintaining the continued growth and improvement of the course of study is felt by the entire teaching, supervisory, and administrative staff, the notion is not established that this is a responsibility of the directing head. In consequence the rank and file become ambitious and concerned to keep the course of study always abreast of the times. The preparation of the course of study was formerly regarded as a responsibility of the directing head, it is now definitely recognized as an obligation of the entire teaching staff, supplemented by the interested, intelligent citizens of the community.

The thoughtful business man of any community can make a good contribution to the content and method which should be employed in commercial courses in the high school, even to the arithmetic courses in the elementary school. A corresponding group of men can and will be interested to contribute of their thinking to the establishment of the manual training and industrial courses. A similar group of progressive women can render valuable service in developing the home economic courses which should be offered for the girls. If the course of study is to do for the teachers all that was in-

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dicated and implied above, it cannot be an emasculated, skeletonized statement. It must possess body and be inspirationally presented. It must be filled with concrete materials.

From the standpoint of form the exercises, activities, and subject-matter specified should be definitely related to the fundamental objectives of society. These should be indicated. What the psychological outcomes in terms of knowledge, habits, and attitudes are which should be realized if the objectives are to be achieved and how they are to be realized should be made clear and definite. If this point of view is correct from the standpoint of the form in which the course of study should be issued it must be evident that each subject or field of activity should have a pamphlet devoted to it. This is necessary to clearness and coherency of view. Only thus can the teaching staff get an organized view throughout the grades concerned, of the objectives, in view of the total range of activities, exercises, and subject-matter which are to be employed in the process. Unless this view is possessed, the teacher of each grade cannot go about the organization of her own contribution with certainty that it is to take its place in an organic way in the total undertaking.

RESPONSIBILITY OF THE SUPERINTENDENT TO THE PUBLIC

DAVID A. WARD, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, WILMINGTON, DELAWARE

Two types of activity, however, are fundamental to the establishment of confidence in the schools, namely, the improvement of the teaching staff, and the establishment of a closer contact between the school and the public. In our own city a large percentage of teachers are doing professional work either in summer school or university extension work. The establishment of a research department, with an experienced and competent man at its head, has injected into the teaching and supervising forces a new inspiration and a carefully planned effort for uniformly good results. In connection with this department, and contributing largely to its favorable reception, a university extension course in tests and measurements was organized and attended by a large number of teachers from all the schools of the city.

Schools unaccustomed to frequent visits by parents do not encourage such visits. There is often a fear on the part of teachers that if they receive visitors their work will be inspected with an unduly critical attitude. There is an equal hesitancy on the part of parents to visit schools for fear of unnecessary disturbance of teacher and pupils. It is an unwarranted timidity in both cases, and it is the business of the superintendent to break down the imaginary barrier to a free and wholesome relationship between the school and its patrons. Visiting days and weeks, community meetings and social mingling of parents and teachers bring valuable results in this respect. But these activities will not proceed unless given impulse and direction by the head of the school system, whose business it is to coördinate and direct all the educational forces of the city toward the accomplishment of the end in view.

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This means that a definite program is necessary. Their promotion demands the presence of the superintendent in many meetings, conferences and interviews. But it is a responsibility to the public from which he cannot escape, of would he desire to escape it if he could.

The superintendent must meet the public. He must serve on committees, affiliate with clubs and societies and be a part of various organizations. The number of meetings, associations and conferences in which he is expected to have a part and the boards and committees on which he is asked to serve constitute a serious drain on his time. This demand, however, is within the legitimate right of the public and the superintendent owes the fullest response that an equitable distribution and an industrious use of his time will permit. Assimilation with the community is essential to a healthy reaction of the public toward the professional services of the superintendent, and he is responsible for such reaction.

THE SUPERINTENDENT'S RELATION TO HIS SUPERVISORS

JUSTIN F. KIMBALL, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, DALLAS, TEXAS

In the development from a single administrator to an administration through supervisors, the supervisory staff must become both sensory and motor nerves to the superintendent administrative officer.

This officer needs a clear and sympathetic understanding of conditions and details which he cannot acquire through the personal touch. Upon him rests the responsibility of seeing visions and dreaming dreams, of bringing things to pass in human life through those whom he may not see day by day in the details of their work. It must be done through the supervisors.

By virtue of their training and fitness for their places these are specialists, each with a specialist's high but narrow interest in a particular phase of work. Few of them have ever " gone out with the team," eaten with the team, slept wherever the team slept just because the team did that particular thing. The problem of the superintendent is that of the team captain, to bring about a mutal interest and understanding of each other's hopes, plans and dreams. The most valuable single hour in my week's work, one the public, the teaching corps and even the board of education can never estimate, is the hour when the entire supervisory staff, sit together around a conference table to talk for " the good of the order."

Here we " fight it out in the family " on matters of common and general policy. Here too the superintendent finds his opportunity to direct, his opportunity to mold the trend of thought throughout the schools. Here he finds his opportunity to teach these high-strung, gifted enthusiasts, by precept and example the technique and meaning of team loyalty, and to see that each department shall never lose sight of the fact that its first, last and sole reason for existence is that it may render genuine human service to the individual child.

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THE SUPERINTENDENT'S RELATIONSHIP TO HIS PRINCIPALS

CHARLES S. CLARK, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS
SOMERVILLE, MASSACHUSETTS

The school principal today is one of the most important factors of school progress. The relationship of a superintendent to his principals should be such as will best promote the purposes for which each exists as a school official. Upon the principal depends the successful management of problems of re-organization of school curricula and the securing of hearty coöperation of teachers therein. He is the leader of his group and whither he goes his teachers must and will go. It is of vital importance to the superintendent that his principals shall be educational leaders of their teachers and that they shall lead their teachers in the right direction. It is the duty of the superintendent to know the facts of this matter as they exist in the principalships under his charge and to do his best to make those facts what they ought to be. His relationship to his principals will consist of the things which he does concerning the matter, and of the spirit in which he does them.

Some of the things which a superintendent should do to secure from his principals the kind of work which it is their function to perform are as follows:

1. The superintendent should let his principals know unmistakably what he wants and expects them to do. If he wants them to be educational leaders of their groups, he should make that fact plain to them and to their teachers. He should also set forth what he conceives to be the educational aims for which they should strive.

2. He should see that principals have time to do the educational work which he expects of them. He should eliminate useless routine work and take constructive measures to give the principals the opportunity to do educational supervision.

3. He should accord to each principal as large a measure of educational autonomy as is consistent with the duty of securing harmonious action in the organization as a whole. Initiative, ingenuity in planning, skill in operating, enthusiasm in leading, commonly emanate from within and are not imposed upon the human mind from without. No principal will ever make an outstanding success who is not in a large measure self-driven.

4. The fourth indispensable element of such relationship is that the superintendent shall give credit where credit is due. Encouragement begets confidence and confidence is the soul of achievement. Such encouragement will go a long way to make principals what they ought to be, educational leaders of their groups. The corollary of this proposition is that the superintendent should not withhold criticism from a principal who needs it through any timidity or shrinking. The superintendent should take care, however, that the exercise of this function should not be regarded as his only or chief show of courage and strength.

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5. The superintendent should perform all these functions in a spirit of broad professional fraternity, sympathy, and insight. He should represent himself to his principals as a man like unto themselves rather than a potentate in a high seat or an autocrat on the throne. Principals will expect a superintendent to show an understanding of their difficulties and a sympathy with their efforts and a charity for their failures. Performed in such a spirit, the acts which have been set forth will go a long way in producing the kind of relationship which the superintendent ought to bear towards his principals. Such a relationship will make principals the strong agency in a broad constructive educational program, which, from the nature of their positions, they ought to be, and which it is of first importance to the superintendent that they should become.

SOME PROBLEMS IN REORGANIZING SECONDARY EDUCATION

FRANK G. PICKELL, ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS
CLEVELAND, OHIO

We talk of aims and principles, yet, we do about as we did before. One change has come. Its influence has been felt everywhere. Formerly subjects were taught for their general disciplinary value. Dr. Edward L. Thorndike, a few years ago, denied the transfer of training and soon school men had swung from the theory of "general training" to that of "specific training." As a result of Thorndike's theory the present-day program of studies of the high school is more inclusive than that of the college of a few years ago.

Recently I found the number of subjects in a program of studies of a cosmopolitan high school to be 168 and the hours represented to be 720. At the average pupil's rate of progress, of completing the requirements for graduation, it would take more than fourteen years of study to cover that number of subjects. The reason is clear. Subjects can no longer be taught for their general value. They must have specific training value. General chemistry is no longer justifiable. It must be divided and subdivided into chemistry of agriculture, engineering, household and so on, all upon the theory that a subject to be of value to the pupil must treat of the material which the pupil will use later in life. This theory of specific discipline and individual differences has brought upon us the most expensive and extravagant system of secondary education. The majority of our courses in the secondary school have degenerated into information courses, until it would seem that we all regard the imparting of information as the primary factor in the educative process.

In the final analysis the greater part of what we learn in school is soon forgotten and I am afraid we have been building our structure upon flimsy foundation. After all we are engaged in training future citizens, men and women who can live and work together, who can think and act straight in social situations. Our task is not so much the imparting of information as it is the developing of right and effort, training children to think,

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to image, to plan, to execute. And what determines one's success in life, whether financial or spiritual? Is it the amount of factual information one gets in school or is it personality, initiative, thinking power, tact, ability to image, to execute. The school should emphasize the development of character and exercise the child's power to think, to image, to plan, to execute. Above all it should arouse and foster interests that will last. If the school will do these things, we may take our chances upon the outcome. If we succeed in training the child to think and in arousing interests that last, he will take care of any deficiency in his general information and practical training. As a matter of fact our greatest scientists and students have learned, the most of what they know in their particular fields, after leaving school. They had only begun to study and work when they were graduated. Too many of our high school pupils are spending their time in expensively equipped shops when they had better be spending their time in studies calling forth their greatest mental powers in solving abstract problems. For whom is technical training intended? For the bright pupil? If so, we should remember that he will go on through college. He will become the highly skilled worker, the thinker, the designer, the key man in industry and in many instances the future executive. Is technical training intended for the slow pupil? If so, he is destined to fill an engagement with Pound's Iron Man and for the most part to do a one act operation job, the training for which is simple and of extremely short duration.

We have probably overstepped the bounds of reason in accepting wholeheartedly Thorndike's theory.

Our chief concern in the present effort to do something about secondary school problems is not what form shall be chosen, but what shall be the curriculum policy, what shall be the content of subjects, how can we better guide pupils in the junior high school, how can we give the pupils the best possible training in those qualities necessary for leadership and above all how can we organize the curricula so that pupils may be required to do some genuine thinking instead of genuine cramming or genuine butterfly flitting and at the same time not reduce our elective system beyond what is reasonable. We are interested in the form of the organization of these upper six years in so far as the form does effect our effort to accomplish the foregoing chief purposes of the secondary schools.

A COMPREHENSIVE SCHOOL SURVEY AND ITS CONSEQUENCES

GEORGE D. STRAYER, DIRECTOR DIVISION OF FIELD STUDIES, INSTITUTE OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH, TEACHERS COLLEGE, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

The survey of the public schools of Baltimore was undertaken during the school year 1920-1921. It was noteworthy in that it was requested by the Superintendent of Schools, Dr. Henry S. West. It was because of the hearty coöperation of the superintendent of schools and his staff that those engaged

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in the survey were able to interpret correctly the local situation. Through the complete and hearty coöperation of the Superintendent and the Board of School Commissioners those responsible for the inquiry were placed in a most favorable position before the public. From the very beginning of the work plans were laid for acquainting the public with the findings of the survey. One of the most important methods employed in carrying the story to the public was the holding of monthly luncheons. These meetings were attended by the Mayor of the city, members of the Board of Estimate, the Board of School Commissioners, and by leaders in every important group throughout the city. A very careful list was made up in the superintendent's office and invitations were issued for subscriptions to a series of six luncheons. The largest dining space available in the city was filled to over-flowing on each of these occasions. The newspapers gave splendid coöperation in reporting the discussions which took place. During the survey and since that time the following notable developments have taken place:

1. Twenty-two million dollars have been voted for the erection of new school buildings. This money is being expended in accordance with the program developed by the survey. In the development of this building program Baltimore has for the first time in her history provided adequate school sites. Elementary schools are being located with as much as six acres of land, junior high schools with from eight to twelve acres; and three senior high school sites have been taken, one with twelve acres, one with thirty-six, and one with thirty-nine acres. On the two larger sites it is anticipated that other buildings may be located at a later date.

2. The school system has been reorganized so as to provide elementary schools with kindergartens and the first six years of elementary education; a three-year junior high school course; and a three-year senior high school course. The administrative staff has been developed and strengthened. Unusually able men have been appointed as assistant superintendents, one for the high schools, and one for the upper grades. A woman of unusual ability and experience has been made assistant superintendent in charge of the lower grades. A director of physical education thoroughly qualified not only in the field of physical education, but in the field of medical inspection and health service has been appointed. Directors of household and of industrial arts have been added. A supervisor of colored schools has been appointed.

4. Courses of study have been prepared by the supervisory staff in coöperation with committees of principals and teachers and are being subjected to careful experimentation in the school system. A more satisfactory articulation of elementary schools, junior high schools, and senior high schools than before existed has been brought to pass.

5. A director of the bureau of educational research has been appointed. Adequate offices have been equipped and several important investigations carried through. These are among the important changes that have taken place. Many other developments have occurred during the period which has elapsed since the completion of the survey. The members of the

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survey staff have from time to time been in conference with the superintendent of schools and his associates. I think I correctly represent all of those who worked on the survey when I say that it is not often that a survey staff has had the satisfaction that has come to those of us who worked in Baltimore. We have had the high privilege of working with a progressive superintendent of schools for the development and improvement of a great public school system. The results which have been secured seem to us to have fully justified the coöperative enterprise proposed and carried through as a school survey.

THE PRINCIPAL'S MULTIPLE FUNCTIONING

OLIVE M. JONES, PRINCIPAL OF SCHOOL NO. 120 AND ANNEXES
NEW YORK CITY [1]

Ten or fifteen years ago the superintendent, in company with the rest of the country, woke up to the position and the importance of the classroom teacher. We became aware of the more or less ignoble position of servitude into which the classroom teacher had been allowed to drift and we also realized, with our new knowledge of democracy, that the teacher, more than any other worker of presumably professional rank, had been treated with an amazing lack of consideration.

About the same time we, discovered that the public regard of our profession is based upon popular rating of the teacher's job, upon the popular attitude toward the teacher and estimate of the teacher's personality and culture. For years we used to complain that in the preparation for large public functions, in the appointment of mayor's committees and public commissions, the point of view of the school was seldom considered and the superintendent was seldom included. Not until we woke up to the importance of the classroom teacher did we realize the cause of this neglect. The truth was that the public held the teacher lightly, and hence, both the school and the superintendent. In the public logic, the school meant the teacher, and the superintendent meant the teacher. Since the teacher was negligible and lightly regarded, so also was the superintendent.

But ten years ago we woke up to all these things and gave the classroom teacher the recognition that was her due. It was the best thing that ever happened—not only because of the improved position of the school in public esteem, but because the teacher was forced to live up to her new responsibility. It made teachers study educational principles so as to hold their ground in debate. It made them study law so as to vote intelligently on matters for their own welfare and the welfare of children. It made them learn legislative procedure so that they would know how to secure the passage of effective laws for the welfare of education. It made them broaden out into a realization of the many interests which are kindred to education, without a knowledge of which no teacher can properly secure the best means of training the children entrusted to her care.

[1] Miss Jones' address is published in full in the April, 1923, issue of the Bulletin of the Department of Elementary School Principals.

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During the early days of our new interest in the classroom teacher, a lot of foolish fear was aroused that the teachers would become insubordinate and indulge in radicalism. Sometimes a superintendent expressed this fear. Indeed, it is true that the discovery of the classroom teacher forced many a superintendent to look to his laurels. He was compelled to inquire into his own motives before he advertised his action or issued a ruling—certain that the teachers would inquire and discover those motives. It compelled the superintendent to study education anew himself, because he must justify his educational procedure to these new-thinking classroom teachers. It compelled the superintendent to consider measures from the point of view of the children to be educated, and the teacher to do the educating, before he advocated them, and to discount influences which would contravene those interests, even though they promised him personal promotion.

In consequence we have reached a point of better understanding between the superintendent and his subordinates than ever before in the history of the schools, but in reaching this understanding and in taking advantage of it there is risk of a new danger. It is true that the superintendents have come into closer contact with the classroom teacher. They have also come into closer union with one another. The danger that I see is that they may disregard the connecting link.

That danger lies in the weakening of the influence and the authority of the principal and the lessening of the respect for the principal which the teacher should hold. It is the superintendent who can prevent this risk, just as it is the superintendent to whom the temptation may come to act against the principal, and it is the superintendent who will suffer the heaviest loss if the position of principal is not maintained and supported with proper respect.

If the principal's opinion is not informed and consulted, who will explain the aims and ideas and ideals of the superintendent to the teacher? No superintendent can do it, because he cannot do his own work and the principal's and this is essentially the principal's job.

Shattering though it may be to the superintendent's new confidence in his relations with his teachers, nevertheless it is still true that the superintendent is, to most teachers and to practically all beginners, a shadowy person, a sort of most mighty man, but really mattering little, if the principal is satisfied and especially if the superintendent is satisfied with the principal.

THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPAL'S CONTRIBUTION TO PUBLIC EDUCATION

IDE G. SARGEANT, PRINCIPAL OF PUBLIC SCHOOL NO. 10
PATERSON, NEW JERSEY

In all history, there have been certain strategic positions. If those in charge of these positions held, civilization won. If those in charge of these positions failed civilization lost. In the scheme of modern education the

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principalship is one of these strategic positions. Our National safety depends upon our having in these positions men and women with brains to see, power to inspire, courage and the dogged persistency to win. Without doubt the principal's most important contribution to public education during the coming decade will be the working out of this ideal.

It will be his work: 1. To have defined and recognized the status of the principalship in a complete school system. 2. To secure, through the aid of the board of education and the superintendent, suitable buildings with proper equipment to do the broader work which the schools must do. 3. To arouse and inspire his fellow principals to a true conception of what the position implies. As yet too many of our principals are asleep to the spirit of the time. They are mediocre in effort if not in ability. They are not good mixers, or good business men, or good publicity men for school work, or good fighters for better education. These men must bestir themselves to become high power dynamos in education or be relegated to the woodshed along with Dr. Winship's ox carts. 4. To give his teachers a more helpful and complete leadership, that they in turn may catch a clearer vision of the possibilities within their grasp in training the children for the kindlier, holier life and the better code which is to be. It is in the field of helping and training teachers in service that the principal's happiest and greatest work should be done. 5. To lead the community, the board of education and the superintendent, if it is not already their policy, to see that they must fix standards of admission and pay the price which will secure for education, the ability, the constructive imagination and the executive training which the position demands.

The principalship carries with it the right to an adequate salary. Equal in every respect to that received by expert business executives and judges of our courts. Certainly a large public school is of as much importance to a city as a large store or manufacturing plant. That the principal is paid less than the holders of similar positions in the business and professional world is contrary to a sound public policy. We want big, clear seeing, constructive souls in these strategic principalships if our civilization is to advance. And we must pay the price which that sort of leadership commands in other lines or the schools wont get it. It is not the sordid dollar for which I am pleading but the bigger ability which thus far we have not had in the schools as generally as we ought and which we can never have until we pay a winning competitive price. One of the greatest contributions that the principal can make to public education is to drive home to his people unceasingly that they cannot afford to buy anything but the best ability for educational positions. It will be their own children who will suffer if they do.

Recently in reply to a heart-breaking cry from the wives of a group of college professors, their president wrote: "It may be said at once and positively that universities cannot compete with the financial rewards of private business." Many public school men coincide with this opinion in regard to the public schools. If we do believe that deplorable doctrine. If

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we do believe our colleges and public schools must be run on a poverty-stricken charity basis, then let us be honest with our public and tell them that so long as such a policy is obtained that the colleges and the public schools will always be manned by second rate and low grade ability. Furthermore before we forget to be honest with our public let us tell them that most of the shortcomings in education of which they complain are not due to "fads and frills" but to the poor ability and the poor training which they have been buying for their schools. The theory that the schools must be conducted on a poverty basis is a mistake. Public school men who believe this are doing incalculable harm to education and have read the signs wrong. The public will give us all the financial support required if we prove to them the need and our worth. It is time we school people rid ourselves of the notion that we are martyrs in a hopeless maelstrom of poverty, fill our ammunition boxes and get out to fight for our schools as men do for success in business. Do this and the poverty spectre in American education will disappear.

THE PLACE AND VALUE OF EXTRA-CURRICULAR ACTIVITIES IN THE HIGH SCHOOL

H. E. WINNER, PRINCIPAL, SOUTH HILLS HIGH SCHOOL
PITTSBURGH, PENNSYLVANIA

With the development of the modern high school, there have come many additions to the early curriculum as originally planned. These additions are the natural growth in educational procedure, and are the resultant of changed social conditions. In order that we may distinguish these more recent acquisitions we have chosen to speak of them as extra-curricular activities. As a fundamental, our high schools should be centers for training in leadership and service, not altogether for the future but for the immediate present. It is only as young people live within school that they are able to live well without school. Any type of activity therefore which affords an opportunity for development of essential qualities of leadership and service would seem justifiable within the school. These activities are as varied as the individual differences of your pupils. Not all are interested in the same thing.

Extra-curricular activities should come as a felt need rather than a definite program being presented to the student body by some overzealous teacher or principal who has a great penchant for organization.

As a corollary to every activity being the result of a felt need, no activity should be countenanced in any high school that does not have the approval of the administrative head of the school and to whose meetings a delegated faculty member, one in sympathy, with the activity shall not be present.

It is only by such a policy that the high school shall not openly be in the position of encouraging fraternities and sororities by passively permitting organization of exclusive social clubs, wherein the school's influence soon ceases to be felt.

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Among extra-curricular activities that will appeal to the entire school may be mentioned the school assembly. This is an excellent opportunity for the development of school spirit, and also affords an outlet for initiative upon part of smaller groups in that they may present matters of common interest to the student body. The assembly always is of greater value when it provides for student participation. The use of the school orchestra, choral clubs and literary clubs may thus be turned to good account in the general work of the school.

Another general activity that has been of great service in the Pittsburgh High Schools has been the organization of Junior Civic Clubs or Boards of Trade. These have been fashioned somewhat after the Senior Civic Club of our City which has been a most helpful organization for city betterment for many years. The organization within the schools provides for student participation. It may be of interest to note that in one high school, this Junior Civic Club conceived the idea that a better approach was needed from the street car stop to the summit of the hill where the high school building was located. They accordingly prepared their campaign; counted the steps in the stairway; counted the traffic morning and evening for day school pupils, as well as evening school pupils; prepared a petition to be signed by those concerned; arranged an interview with the City Council through its president; selected a small committee, and presented their request to council by whom they were complimented for the business-like way in which the matter was presented.

Of course all extra-curricular activities require time for organization and direction. Anything of value must have time for its development. So important is this work deemed in the high schools of Pittsburgh that a special period or activity period is provided in the daily schedule. This period may be used for assembly purposes when needed: for meeting of musical clubs; debate clubs; leaders clubs; language and science clubs; meetings in interest of school athletics, school magazine, in fact for all activities approved by the school. In providing thus a special period for such work there is developed a finer coöperation between regular school work and extra-curricular work. Faculty members are more prone to appreciate real values by such an arrangement.

Reference has been made to the special or activity period provided for the high schools of Pittsburgh. This period not only conserves the features of extra-curricular activities, in providing a time and place for them, but also provides for full time for the regular work of the school. This is a distinct advantage in that the sale of tickets for athletics, concerts, class plays; meetings of clubs; student government groups; honor societies, etc., may be held without encroaching upon the time of regular instruction periods. This develops a spirit of coöperation within the entire school in all departments which makes for real progress.

In all the activities of the special period hour, the largest degree of initiative and leadership should be granted pupils in order that a maximum of right habits of living be encouraged. Administrators and teachers must

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recognize that leadership and service can be found in high-school boys and girls and this ability must have play. There are times in any high school when a large project, such as an exhibition of work, or a pageant presenting the work of the school is to be given. Such events are of supreme importance in that they call for a united effort upon all departments. This movement gives expression to all lines of possible endeavor and produces a real problem of living. Excellent training in planning; business detail, construction of stage, scenery, lighting, costuming, advertising, and other details afford plenty of educational material and have a value commensurate with any possible subject in the curriculum.

Too long has the greater share of the Principal's time been consumed in trying to care for that lowest tenth of his pupil group.

THE STABILIZING FACTOR IN EDUCATION

CHARLES H. LAKE, FIRST ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS
CLEVELAND, OHIO

The world is hungering for educational leadership which shall discover the simple formula for developing the character and creative thinking capacity in her people which is to serve as the antitoxin to the ills of the times. Character and the thinking process are essential and they must be the first aims of the education of the upper grades of school work. The subject-matter may well be considered the valuable first by-product. If we are to attain to these results, we must first center our attention so that it may not be distracted from these essentials of education. It may be that science has developed so much faster than the rest of our knowledge that we are permitting it to distract our minds from the more fundamental processes. It is a rapid-fire age. We are so anxious to escape from the accusations of dullness that we permit our minds to skip along over so many things, that rarely are there enough facts bearing on one subject to furnish the basis for a thought, as they say the dogs along the Nile drink as they run to escape the crocodiles. We skim through the papers to get the current news, most of which will be valueless tomorrow, we listen to a speech at luncheon, scan some more news, and later tune in on several other types of broadcasting. Our schools are affected in the same way, since they are a cross-section of our life.

Fear of every sort must be eliminated if the educators are to lead the world in the liberation of intelligence. Fear is the foe of that confidence which is essential to real leadership. Fear springs from the consciousness of one's own inferiority and weaknesses and paralyzes mental and physical activity of a constructive nature. A few years ago, I heard the superintendent of a large city school system say that the first essential of a superintendent's work was to hold his job. Of course, in a sense, that is important, but education will not develop very rapidly on that sort of philosophy. We shall not be acclaimed the leaders we hope to be until fear is banished, fear of the loss of a position, fear which results in the avoidance of positive stands on

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the questions which involve the work of education. Fear sets up in the imaginations of all of us many monsters, which prove to be quite harmless if met with courageous sincerity.

At the present time, we have more available knowledge, ingenuity, and greater material resources with which to work, to build a world far greater in all aspects that make for permanent greatness than any preceding age has ever had. What are the elements that, acting with these already mentioned, would serve to bind them all together and produce a world fairer and better for human habitation? Is it change of attitude that must come about? And if so, what is to bring about this desirable situation? The solution to the problem seems to lie in leadership—a superman—a Francis Bacon—with strength of character enough and vision enough to impress the world with his sincerity and ability. As Bacon suggested, we must cease "tumbling up and down in our own reason and conceits" and be willing to handle the materials of social and political science with the same freedom as we now handle the question of natural science. We must be willing to study them from the basis of the facts at hand and discard the prejudices of the past centuries.

The hope lies in intelligence, but it must be permitted to consider all the facts of our social fabric. Character, in sufficient quantities to stabilize the Nation and the world, cannot be developed if we are to say to the minds of our young men and women "It is all right to think, but don't think about practical politics, don't think about religion, don't think about our social problems, but stay within the paths that have been tried for centuries concerning which there can be no more than an academic difference of opinion." The education of my boy shall present for him some fundamental present problems. These fundamentals must be used as the working basis for independent creative thinking and the development of character as the first aim of the process of education. This is the stabilizing factor which must bind together all the auxiliary products of education if we are to achieve progress.

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Department of Vocational Education and Practical Arts

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PROGRAM FOR CLEVELAND MEETING

FIRST SESSION—MONDAY AFTERNOON, FEBRUARY 26, 1923

EXTENDING SCHOOL SERVICE IN PART-TIME AND EVENING SCHOOL CLASSES—A. H. Edgerton, Supervisor of Vocational Guidance, Curricula, and Information, Detroit Public Schools, Detroit, Michigan.

WHAT IS VOCATIONAL TRAINING DOING FOR OUR GIRLS?—Mrs. E. S. H. McCauley, Beaver, Pennsylvania.

IS VOCATIONAL EDUCATION AN ESSENTIAL PART OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOL PROGRAM?—E. E. Lewis, Superintendent of Schools, Rockford, Illinois.

SECOND SESSION—TUESDAY AFTERNOON, FEBRUARY 27, 1923

THE RESPONSIBILITY OF A STATE FOR A COMPLETE PROGRAM IN VOCATIONAL EDUCATION—H. B. Wilson, Superintendent of Schools, Berkeley, California.

MEETING THE NEEDS OF INDUSTRY THROUGH PUBLIC EDUCATION—J. W. Barritt, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.

THE VOCATIONAL EDUCATION OF TOMORROW—C. A. Prosser, Director, Dunwoody Industrial Institute, Minneapolis, Minnesota.

EXTENDING SCHOOL SERVICE IN PART-TIME AND EVENING SCHOOL CLASSES

A. H. EDGERTON, SUPERVISOR OF VOCATIONAL INFORMATION, CURRICULA AND GUIDANCE, DETROIT PUBLIC SCHOOLS, DETROIT, MICHIGAN

Destructive criticism, as well as that of a constructive nature, will continue to be directed toward those vocational education activities which still fail to reflect the coöperative needs and competitive interests in the different divisions of occupational life. On the other hand, administrators and teachers who possess sufficient insight and vision to provide adequate instructional and guidance facilities, both as a means of general education and as a definite preparation for profitable employment, are no longer prone to blink at the ever-challenging facts pertaining to opportunities and requirements in the social, economic, and larger personal aspects of important life callings. In fact, many of these progressive school representatives have realized notable improvements from time to time by being less occupied with their earlier

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attempts to justify established courses of study and arbitrary methods of procedure and by becoming more alive to the urgent need for extending school service to include worthwhile investigations and analyses of local occupational pursuits, in order to secure up-to-date information concerning current conditions and demands.

It is a growing commonplace that, for the vast majority of pupils of compulsory attendance age, the most urgent need today is not so much for a high degree of manipulative skill as it is for reliable information with which to judge relative requirements, opportunities, and limitations in suitable callings or vocations. In addition to the general considerations in choosing life work and preparing adequately for it, surveys of local establishments and reports on investigations of type occupations as to nature of work, main advantages, and disadvantages, qualifications and training needed, possibilities, and requirements, remuneration, hours of work, seasonal demands, entrance age, time required to learn duties, permanence of work, and deficiencies of workers are helping many pupils to form sound judgments on the character and future of positions open to them. While knowledge of the requirements in the various divisions of commercial, industrial, and household occupations always is essential, the school should not be concerned merely with the suitability of children for given positions, but, in the last analysis, it likewise is obligated to ascertain the desirability of such available pursuits for the boys and girls in question. Hence, it is quite generally believed that all pupils who decide to enter courses designed to prepare them for entrance into wage-earning pursuits should make such choices as a result of intelligently understanding their resources and limitations, together with a knowledge of the economic facts, personal relationships, and relative values involved not only in selecting suitable callings but also in preparing properly for them. Furthermore, there is increasing evidence that all instruction functions to a much higher degree in preparing for occupational efficiency, as well as for intelligent consumption and worthy citizenship, when pupils have previously acquired a reasonable basis for purposeful election of courses, proper choices of occupations, and later adjustments in employment.

Following the general try-out courses and occupational considerations in the intermediate schools, from which these children have come, the studies, interviews, conferences, and talks in the Junior Continuation Schools not only become more intensive but give increasing attention to the presentation of facts in keeping with the general and specialized interests and abilities of all pupils. In presenting occupational information to the part-time boys and girls, for example, it is assumed (1) that all pupils should have a general understanding of the nature of the work, methods of employment, and requirements for success in the important divisions of occupations, (2) that they should have a fair appreciation of the problems and conditions confronting persons engaged in these positions; and (3) that they should become somewhat acquainted with the relative possibilities that are open in such pursuits. Questions concerning our industrial, commercial, agricultural, household, and professional development, sources and preparation of raw materials, manufacturing, transportation, communication, and the character

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and lives of the workers arise in a natural way by broadening each school study to give some outlook on life occupations. These not only vitalize the respective school courses but also contribute to an intelligent understanding of the different aspects of the world's work.

Since the efficiency of part-time education depends to a large extent upon the development of an effective system of coördination and guidance along with individual instruction, the counseling for part-time pupils is considered an important part of the programs for both the Boys' and Girls' Continuation Schools. It is the duty of the counselors to provide individual and group conferences for stimulating all pupils enrolled in these schools. Therefore, the success of the vocational guidance program will be determined largely by the training and experience of the counselors in charge, and the provision for collecting, evaluating, and imparting the information involved. The coördinators, with the aid of the counselors, attempt to connect the activities of the school, the occupation, the home, and the community. The nature of coördinator's positions allows them to assist the school officials and teachers in maintaining instruction which reflects the requirements made upon the junior wage-earners, and also to inform the employers of the educational opportunities which are and can be provided by the school system with their coöperation.

In addition to these extensions in school service to meet the needs of junior continuation groups, there are the specific problems of the large number of more mature young persons and adults who have left the schools but whose education and training are quite inadequate for efficient service in their specific work, and often in their citizenship duties. The organization of shop, laboratory and related courses for these workers necessarily has been on the small unit basis and, so far as possible, adapted to the immediate and definite needs of the various individuals and groups.

There are two distinct groups of workers from which the evening trade trainees are recruited:

1. Helpers and assistants who have limited background of practical experience but who need to be taught further tool manipulation, advance layout, and methods of construction.

2. More advanced workmen who need special training in related subjects, such as trade mathematics, trade drawing, and layout work.

Both of these groups of workers are being upgraded on the unit plan in the evening and Saturday afternoon school, or during the dull season on all-day schedule in some trades.

Although the evening school students frequently misjudge their needs and often are unable to plan their own upgrading programs, it is recognized that the workers' confidence, even in the short unit courses, can be gained only by making the instruction obviously worth while to them. When this supplementary school work is once sold to the trainees on the upgrading basis, as already outlined, other needs will be made evident to all concerned, and, as a result, satisfactory solutions can be provided one step at a time.

The most successful supplementary courses in our public evening schools are those which not only emphasize necessary technical skill and related

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information, but also stress the much needed adaptability and self-adjustment in industry by developing thought-provoking situations at every opportunity. However, you and I must recognize the fact that today production work in industrial occupations unquestionably is becoming more and more automatic for a large number of machine operators and semi-skilled workers. In our eagerness to safeguard the interests of our trainees, let us not accept opinions blindly, but seek the facts in preference whenever possible. For example, we must recognize that dictaphonists are gradually replacing stenographers, also that comptometrists are slowly replacing bookkeepers, irrespective of what our personal attitude toward these changes might be. Vocational training, in order to be most successful, should furnish a definite program for a student that will lead by successive steps, through the development of the occupation, often to the status of a journeyman. The school can accelerate this process by giving preliminary training in the use of tools, the handling of materials, reading of drawings, and by teaching trade terms. School training for skilled occupations must always be supplemented by definite instruction on the job. While apprentice training in its early form has been almost wholly neglected during the recent years of industrial development, it now is a generally accepted fact that the employer cannot escape the cost, in time and money, necessary for systematic supplementary apprentice training in the factory or office.

The American Engineering Council, in making public a report of its committee on the elimination of waste in industry with special reference to labor turnover, recently declared that "You're fired" and "I quit" cost metal trade firms in this country $100,000,000 in one year.

"Experts estimated the cost of labor turnover vary from $50 to $250 for each employe hired, trained, and separated," the committee report stated.

An average figure of only $50 applied to 2,000,000 employes in the metal trades industry, means an average waste of $100,000,000 in this one industry.

This committee recommended that employers study employment methods and reasons for quitting work. In any case, the public schools in a democracy can ill afford to neglect the continued extension of all legitimate forms of educational service which can assist the larger numbers of young workers and adults who have definitely left our regular day schools, but still are far too inadequately equipped either as effective workmen or as worthy citizens. In our opinion, this is essential not alone for the protection of the worker's welfare but for the protection of the interests of society as well, since both are dependent upon increased individual and collective efficiency in our industrial organization, which, in turn, is inherently tied up with the new and increasing demands upon family and civic relationships.

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WHAT THE VOCATIONAL SCHOOLS ARE DOING FOR OUR GIRLS

MRS. E. S. H. McCAULEY, BEAVER, PENNSYLVANIA

The wording of our topic reminds me of the man who when asked what his son was going to do with four years of Latin replied: "I am not half as much concerned about what my son is going to do with Latin, as I am what Latin will do with and for my son." When Emerson wrote:

> New occasions teach new duties,
> Time makes ancient good uncouth.

he brought to our attention a truth that is of wide application.

An ever-increasing number of women are every year going into new fields of labor due to the pressure of industrial and economic necessity.

1000 WOMEN WANTED. You might have read it on a great canvas sign that was stretched across an industrial establishment in lower Manhattan at the time our boys were leaving for war.

The owner of the factory, who put it there, only knew that he was advertising for labor, of which he found himself suddenly in need. But he had all unwittingly written a proclamation that is a sign of the times. Prior to this the cities of Europe, for four years, had placarded the sign. "Women Wanted" "Women Wanted." All over the world it was seen on street cars, barns and in colleges. It hung not only above the factories and the coal mines, but also in the halls of Government, the farmyards, the arsenals and even in the war office. The Pennsylvania Railroad, which had so rigidly opposed the employment of women on its staff, in June, 1917, announced a change of policy and took in its various departments five hundred women and girls.

We may no more return to the methods and ideas of ante-bellum days than we may turn back the hands on the clock of time. This has not been the result of a woman's movement. It has been the outgrowth of a constructive time plan by Him who moves in a mysterious way.

Our Federal Board for Vocational Education has made the statement: "This social and economic movement of our day is placing tremendous responsibilities upon society for the construction of a program of purposeful education that will insure the best type of womanhood and maintain the integrity of the woman worker."

The passage of the act in February, 1917, came simultaneously with a National awakening and at a time when social, economic, and educational institutions were being brought to a strict accounting for their contributions to our National efficiency.

The Federal Vocational Education Act was passed in order to provide an opportunity for the preparation and improvement of workers for effective participation in wage-earning pursuits. It likewise anticipated the continuous development and expansion of the industries of the United States.

The act provides for the development of two services. The first of these is the administration of Federal funds to encourage States to inaugurate

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schools and classes designed primarily (a) to prepare persons for entrance to a chosen field of employment, through day trade classes; (b) to increase the trade and technical knowledge of those already employed, through part-time and evening schools; (c) to prepare teachers, supervisors, and directors for the organization and conduct of such classes. The second service is to extend, through State and local authorities, the friendly offices of the Federal Board for Vocational Education to industries interested in developing programs for training their own workers. For this purpose the act provides for the making of studies, investigations, and reports with particular reference to the determination of courses of instruction and the establishment of classes in the four general industrial fields—namely, (1) agriculture, (2) trade and industry, (3) commerce, and (4) home economics."

Many are particularly interested in the field of home economics. At the earliest possible time each school district should install such a department in their schools. All of the millions of girls between ten and fourteen years of age should have an opportunity to have at least a minimum of two years of home economics as a part of their general education. It has not been possible to secure an accurate record on which to base even an approximate estimate as to the number of girls in the seventh and eighth grades that are enrolled in home economics classes. Home economics is now being offered in evening schools; secondary schools; junior high schools; continuation schools and work of county vocational supervisors.

School offers to young girls the only assured opportunity for the instruction and training which will serve to meet their immediate needs and responsibilities in their personal and family life. For many, the instruction they receive during these years, may be the only basis for preparation for their deferred but ultimate occupation, homemaking.

In this group belong the girls who must leave school early to earn a living; girls who are likely to drop out of school early, because the academic type of instruction given does not interest them; girls who will, in the senior high school, prepare for a commercial or industrial pursuit which they will follow for a period of several years before taking up the vocation of homemaking; girls who will, in the senior high school, concentrate their efforts in preparing for college.

A special responsibility rests upon our United States to reach the girls and women who have left school and who are between 16 and 45 years of age. Special unit courses in vocational homemaking should be available for those who desire this instruction.

It has been estimated that at the present time only one out of every four hundred is now having the opportunity to enrol for courses in homemaking designed to meet their specific needs as homemakers.

The following groups of women should have such instruction available:

(1) Groups of young women who are following a gainful occupation and who desire and need instruction and training in homemaking just prior to taking up this vocation.

(2) Groups of women who are wage-earners outside the home and have in addition many responsibilities in the home. They need training to help them perform their work in the home with greater ease and proficiency.

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(3) Groups of foreign girls and women who desire and need to be initiated into American standards and methods of homemaking.

(4) Groups of homemakers who are urgently in need of instruction to help solve their home problems in the care and feeding of children.

(5) Groups of women in domestic service who are untrained in such service and who desire training that will help them to dignify their position and earn a living wage.

(6) Groups of girls coming from well-to-do modern homes, who are in school but do not practice homemaking. The school and innumerable other activities demand the time and attention of our girls to the exclusion of household tasks, and home economics in the school provides the training that is essential.

Did it ever occur to you in trying to think out, and through, this school problem, that by capitalizing the mistakes of our forefathers, we might preserve and perpetuate our State and Nation? For example, our sons have been expected to establish and maintain a government—a democracy—under the supervision of a few trained specialists in governmental affairs, with the average voting male citizen considered a suitable participant, in spite of the fact that having become twenty one years of age was his only qualification.

Equally lax have been the requirements for homemaking. Hitherto, girls have been considered qualified for the manifold responsibilities of homemaking if old enough to repeat the marriage vows.

These things being true, great is the wonder that our Ship of State has so long weathered the storm, and that the home, the most sacred of our institutions, has withstood the test. America should train her children, not only to be able to make a living, but to live.

Our girls should be trained for homemaking; practicing an occupation, for which one is not trained, is drudgery. When we have more respect for the job of homemaking—the greatest vocation in the world—we will see that our girls are trained for it.

Homemaking is a business and social enterprise. As the manager of a business enterprise, the homemaker must determine the expenditure of much of the family income, and must direct or perform the labor required in running the home. She is responsible also for the care and rearing of children.

Ignorance and poverty are the chief contributing factors in the mismanagement of a home; and poverty is the offspring of ignorance in most instances.

Home economic departments aim to develop intelligent executive ability; to produce conscientious buyers who will realize their responsibility toward labor and capital which has produced goods which she buys. In this department our girls are taught food values; that inadequate or unsuitable food is the chief direct cause of malnutrition.

They are taught business procedure and principles, sufficient to enable them to intelligently develop the plans for the household in a business-like way.

It is also the ambition to start girls out in life with a working knowledge of the fundamental principles of Art which underlie the selection of suitable,

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because tasteful and economical, clothing and house furnishings; the conservation of child-life and material wealth.

Our National and international peace and prosperity is commensurate with our National and international intelligence and education. All education fails that does not confer upon us the ability to solve more successfully the everyday problems of home, State, and Nation. That type is best that produces continued growth of the dignity and usefulness of the individual, and an ever-increasing solidarity and stability of society.

IS VOCATIONAL EDUCATION AN ESSENTIAL PART OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOL PROGRAM?

E. E. LEWIS, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, ROCKFORD, ILLINOIS

The answer is "yes." Public education in the United States has for more than a hundred years answered this question in the affirmative. West Point and Annapolis are public vocational schools for soldiers and sailors. There are now over three hundred public vocational schools for teachers in the United States, some of which are nearly a hundred years old and yet they do not begin to supply the demand. Public vocational schools for lawyers, doctors, engineers, farmers, and other trades and professions have been in existence for nearly half a century. It would be almost impossible to find a higher educational institution in America that does not offer one or more vocational courses. Of the 13,000 high schools in the United States, it is estimated that approximately half of them offer some sort of vocational training, meager and inadequate as it may be. It is a truism in education that what higher education does in one generation the secondary school attempts in the next.

It would seem that whenever public safety or public welfare demands trained workmen in any field, and public consciousness is aroused to this demand, the taxes are levied, the buildings built, the teachers hired, the courses organized and the student-workmen go into training at public expense.

It would seem that there are no limits to the amount and kinds of education provided at public expense except the limits imposed by the will of the public. The wealth of the public is not, as we have so long assumed, the important factor governing the amount and kind of education provided by the public. However important wealth may be, day by day in every way it is becoming clearer and clearer that the will of the public is more important than the wealth. There is considerable discussion just now as to who should be allowed to go to college. College authorities think they can answer that question. But public school officials know from their intimate contact with the public that the answer given by college authorities will probably not prove acceptable to the masses. The masses will answer it in their own way. Those who will go to college cannot be denied. If the will is not focused no matter how great the wealth, little will be

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accomplished. If the will is fixed and determined, regardless of the wealth, great things will be accomplished. Will and not wealth is the voice of the people, the *Zeitgeist* that the schoolman must obey.

Recently at an educational meeting a college professor spent an hour elaborating the proposition that the public should be taxed to support only those forms of education which clearly return a full economic value to society, and that the individual or his parents should pay in full for those other forms of education who are individualistic in end and which do not return full economic value to society. He upheld the public elementary school through the years of the junior high school, insisting, however, that these courses should be changed in such a manner as to make these schools, schools of citizenship—a change to which we will all readily assent. He suggested that perhaps these schools should carry the youth to about the age of 16 by which time the principles of government and economic law should be so well grounded that children so taught would henceforth be good citizens. He endorsed public support for the graduate school with emphasis upon research laboratories, holding that they had already demonstrated that they return full economic value for the investment made by public taxation.

Concerning two remaining types of education which are now largely supported by public taxation—high school and college courses—he had serious doubts of either the willingness or the propriety of continuing public support. He emphatically stated that the public would not, yes, *could not* continue the present trend of publicly supported educational opportunities for an ever increasing proportion of the population, and that the high school and college course do not pay for themselves in returns to either the individual or to society.

This is a serious challenge, not to vocational education alone, but to all forms of secondary and collegiate liberal arts courses as well. However, there is nothing new in this particular college professor's viewpoint. The public schools have for a hundred years faced the same contention. With what results? Has support been withdrawn? Has the public done less and less each new generation? On the contrary, the public has spent more and more each generation for both high-school and college courses. Why has the public done this? Have they been fooled by their educational leaders into believing in general education beyond that which is really warranted? The answer cannot be found in terms of the increased wealth of the public. The fact remains that the will of the public has demanded these expenditures.

It is apparent that the masses want education and that each generation has demanded more and more not only in amount but also in kind. Today the educational platform of the public is "an unbroken system of free public schools from the kindergarten to and through the university free and equally open to all and suited to the needs of each." We are yet a long way from the realization of this ideal but surely the trend is in that direction.

Vocational education is needed by all workers in a greater or lesser degree. Some can best and most economically learn their trades in practice. Others can profit materially by coöperation, and still others can learn their trade almost entirely in school. The variations depend on the individual

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and on the trade. Many of the problems in vocational education would be cleared away if the following were observed:

1. Better coöperation between those interested in promoting vocational and non-vocational education.
2. Less floundering and bluffing about what constitutes vocational education for a given trade.
3. Greater coöperation between the school and the shop and business in vocational training.
4. Less emphasis on general vocational education and more emphasis upon specific vocational education.
5. Less emphasis upon general or cultural values of vocational education.
6. Less hand training in proportion to mind training.
7. Better and closer educational supervision over children between the ages 14-18
8. More consistency in policies. At present we change policies almost daily.
9. More carefully measured results.
10. Greater attention given to the financial problems of support, especially to the education of the public along vocational lines.

RESPONSIBILITY OF THE STATE FOR A PROGRAM OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

H. B. WILSON, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, BERKELEY, CALIFORNIA

In general, it may be said that the relation of a State Department of Vocational Education with the supervisor or director in charge is essentially the same as the relation of a city superintendent of schools to the system of which he is in charge. The general responsibility, therefore, of this department through its directing head is to bring vision, outlook, breadth of view, fundamental understanding of the meaning and types of vocational education, and their successful administration. If this view be correct, a State vocational department should consider it of merely incidental importance to gather statistics and check up the work under way to see if it is entitled to State and National benefits.

While these statistical and financial matters should not be neglected, the larger functions of such a department require the doing of the following:

1. Selling the idea of vocational education of all sorts to local school communities and to the employers therein. This implies the function of leadership in relation to local schools and a responsibility for establishing right relationships between the schools and those who should be served by them.

2. Providing proper guidance in reference to the details of the program of vocational education which should be put on in each community. This requires that there shall be wisdom in the State office which shall insure that each community understands the types of work which are needed by the interests and occupations represented in the community.

3. Setting proper standards of attainment. This may be done through syllabi and bulletins and also by reporting excellent types of work done elsewhere which are put forward for emulation.

4. Providing ways and means for insuring the training of efficient teachers. The State office should have an intimate, constructive working relation with

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the State facilities for training teachers and should aim to see to it that the need of teachers of vocational education is properly recognized.

5. Setting up types of research such as may be necessary to provide proper and fundamental guidance. Community studies and studies in job analysis should result from the research efforts.

6. Seeing that proper attention is given to such legislation as is necessary to provide adequate funds and otherwise insure the success of the program. Such legislation will not only come out of the regular sessions of the legislature, but also legislation of certain types will result from the action of the State board.

Nothing less than assuming definite responsibility for all of these large lines of leadership can be considered sufficient from the standpoint of a State Department of Vocational Education.

PROGRAM FOR SAN FRANCISCO MEETING

MONDAY AFTERNOON, JULY 2, 1923

TO WHAT EXTENT DOES VOCATIONAL TRAINING IN AGRICULTURE CONTRIBUTE IN PRODUCING A TRAINED RURAL CITIZENRY?—C. H. Lane, Federal Board for Vocational Education, Washington, D. C.

DISCUSSION—J. B. Lillard, State Supervisor of Agricultural Education, California.

EDUCATION AND THE WORLD'S WORK—Melvin S. Lewis, State Director of Vocational Education, Idaho.

DISCUSSION—John C. Beswick, State Director of Industrial Education, California.

INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION IN THE PHILIPPINE ISLANDS—Luther Parker, Division Superintendent of Education, Cabanatuan, P. I.

TRAINING IN HOME MEMBERSHIP FOR BOYS—Mary Ruth Fisher, Toledo, Ohio.

DISCUSSION.

TO WHAT EXTENT IS THE PUBLIC SCHOOL RESPONSIBLE FOR OCCUPATIONAL TRAINING?—Arthur D. Dean, formerly of Columbia University, New York City.

DISCUSSION.

TUESDAY AFTERNOON, JULY 3, 1923

Joint Meeting With National Council of Education Under Auspices of Committee on Vocational Education

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON VOCATIONAL EDUCATION.

PART-TIME EDUCATION IN TRADES AND INDUSTRIES—D. O. Brillhart, Director of Part-time Education, Oakland, California.

PART-TIME EDUCATION IN HOME ECONOMICS—Maude I. Murchie, State Supervisor of Home Economics, California.

GENERAL DISCUSSION.

THURSDAY AFTERNOON, JULY 5, 1923

Joint Meeting With Vocational Education Association of California

INTRODUCTORY REMARKS—L. H. Dennis, President of Department of Vocational Education and Practical Arts, National Education Association.

PRESENTATION AND ADDRESS—Edwin A. Lee, President of Bay Section of Vocational Education Association of California, Department of Vocational Education, University of California, Berkeley, California.

AN EVALUATION OF THE CALIFORNIA PROGRAM FOR VOCATIONAL EDUCATION—Stanley B. Wilson, California State Board of Education, Los Angeles, California.

THE NEED FOR VOCATIONAL EDUCATION FOR GIRLS AND WOMEN—Ruth Mary Weeks, Instructor in English and Sociology, Junior College, Kansas City, Missouri.

THE FUTURE FOR VOCATIONAL EDUCATION IN THE WEST—Edwin R. Snyder, Commissioner of Industrial and Vocational Education, State of California.

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TO WHAT EXTENT DOES VOCATIONAL EDUCATION IN AGRICULTURE CONTRIBUTE IN PRODUCING A TRAINED RURAL CITIZENRY

H. M. SKIDMORE, AGENT, AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION, FEDERAL BOARD FOR VOCATIONAL EDUCATION, WASHINGTON, D. C.

Vocational education in agriculture has for its whole aim the production in common cause with some other agencies, a better equipped rural citizenry, better equipped to produce, better equipped to market his products, better equipped to take his place in the community, better equipped to live.

A committee of workers in the field of agricultural education recently stated the aim of vocational education in agriculture in these words, "It is the purpose of courses in vocational agriculture to aid in developing a type of American farmer, who shall possess managerial ability and business capacity, an aptitude for farming and the necessary technical knowledge and skill to produce and market his products, and also one who is capable of adapting himself to our constantly changing social and economic life." In other words, such courses were intended to not only render the farmer capable of producing more and better crops and live stock and marketing them more intelligently than he has done heretofore, but that they should enable this same farmer to be a better citizen. The production of citizen-farmers is the ultimate goal.

We cannot at this time, as the topic assigned suggests, say "to what extent" these courses are succeeding in doing this thing which is manifestly their excuse for being. Vocational education in agriculture, as such, is a young movement only well along in its fifth year. But, we can review certain evidences that seem to point to a satisfactory answer to the query: Are such courses tending to produce an educated rural citizenry?

1. These courses are brought to those who may wish them. They are offered in connection with the local schools. Expensive transportation to distant educational institutions is eliminated. Furthermore, courses are designed to fit the existing needs. They may be extensive, carrying through the school year covering a systematic course of instruction, leading to more advanced study; they may be short, intensive courses for the adult farmer dealing with one or more local problems, or they may occupy an intermediate ground, extending over a considerable period of time, say three months or more, and thereby permitting the use of allied subject matter and other matter that will contribute to the development of the students' civic and vocational intelligence in addition to the solution of any pressing problem.

Again, the courses may be given in the day time; they may be given in the evening; they may occupy the whole day or they may be arranged to take but a couple of hours; they may be given in winter, summer, or any time the needs of the group may dictate. They may be given to groups of any age from fourteen years up. In fact, if a need exists it can be met; where a vocational center is established there is no excuse for the people not being served. And to be so served means that their opportunity for growth

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and development is extended and it is bound to follow that better citizenship will result.

The development of such centers is limited at present only by a dearth educational vision and leadership. Funds will be forthcoming when the peop people know and demand. The institutions of higher learning which touch directly only a small fraction of the rural population, are supported handsomely, as they should be, and must. Then how important it is that the secondary system, the high schools, the "peoples' colleges"—be supported in like handsome manner when they serve so much greater a body of the people and that in a direct, effective way. Unfortunately perhaps, the high schools have heretofore served mainly as preparatory schools to the colleges and universities, and still they have been well supported. How much more support may we expect when in addition to preparing this small percentage of the school population for college entrance, they contribute something more to the other eighty per cent than they have done before.

2. These vocational courses are not only brought to the rural people, but the Federal act provides that only one half the time of the student shall be given to the study of the vocational subjects, the other half being devoted to nonvocational subjects, such as will contribute to the building of a well rounded course and as will contribute to his "civic intelligence." If the student gives one half his time to the study of agricultural problems, (in itself a splendid opportunity for mental development) he may give the balance to the study of English, economics, history, sociology, mathematics, or language. It is not intended that these subjects shall be designed for college preparatory primarily, but there is no intention to in any way put any obstruction in the path of those who may wish to pursue advanced study. They are encouraged so to do. But, since so pitifully few attain that end, it is highly important that the ninety and nine be ministered to in such ways as will enable them to live fuller, more useful lives in their own communities. We believe that vocational courses do that thing, and while they are doing that they are at the same time contributing some of that mysterious thing called "culture."

3. The methods of instruction being evolved for vocational classes in agriculture constitutes one of the important contributions to educational procedure of this generation. Students are taught the principles and facts in procedure involved in the agriculture of their home farms and those of the community—not primarily, as heretofore, facts *about* the agriculture of the world. Each boy is required to engage in some phase of agricultural practice, carry a "project" as it is termed. This project becomes the center about which the boy's individual instruction revolves. For the sake of economy of the teacher's time, each boy is expected to choose a project in the field of the major line of instruction for that year, whether it be animals or plants, thus permitting of more group instruction than would otherwise be possible. However, individual instruction is essential. The major enterprises of the community are analyzed, the principal jobs required for their performance are pulled out, and these are studied thoroughly in the light of community practice and the means of improving such practice. The

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TO WHAT EXTENT DOES VOCATIONAL EDUCATION IN AGRICULTURE CONTRIBUTE IN PRODUCING A TRAINED RURAL CITIZENRY

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CATION IN CALIFORNIA

AY SECTION OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION
IA, DEPARTMENT OF VOCATIONAL
IVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA

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common scientific principles involved are studied and something of the beauty and harmony of nature is revealed. The boy sees *reasons* for doing things. He sees something in farming besides the eternal drudgery that looms so large in most farm boys' minds, and which accounts in part for the annual drift of 400,000 from the farm to the city.

In the ideal project, ownership on the part of the student is involved, business methods are required, and the managerial features are stressed. Thus the boy's interests are fixed by ownership and his attention pointed directly to the importance of thoughtful management, and a basis of evaluating certain practices is set up at once. It is not uncommon for the enthusiasm and success of a group of boys being so taught to influence certain phases of practice throughout a whole community.

For the last year that statistics on this supervised practical work are available, the net income from the project of these vocational students was $2,250,935.45. Immediate financial gain is not one of the primary aims of agricultural instruction. This sum was a by-product of their education, but the very fact that gain resulted from their efforts gave point to the instruction as nothing else could do.

Evidence is accumulating that tends to show that the study of things vocational vitalizes the study of non-vocational subjects. Interest is a powerful factor and there seems to be a carry over of enthusiasm from the study of a definite and live subject to the study of that which is not.

Pure science is essential to the scientific investigation but it would seem that a farm boy might better trace the ancestry and fix the pedigree of a pure-bred domestic animal than that he painstakingly trace the life history of most of the lower forms of animal life.

4. Leadership of a sane sort is the crying need of the rural community. Leadership in organizing and maintaining an effective social life; leadership in things economic—to organize and develop community producing, buying and marketing. Farmers are notorious for their lack of cohesion, lack of ability for collective bargaining, and have been the easy prey for the sharper so long in fact that many of them are likely to be distrustful of any move touching their interests. Leadership among them and of their kind must be developed.

In this field vocational education in agriculture is succeeding signally. The teacher to succeed must be an outstanding individual trained in the science and practice of agriculture, a trained teacher able to teach both the adolescent and the adult. So trained he easily assumes an important place in any community. Furthermore, he must be employed on a twelve months' basis so that he becomes a part of the community. But, he is only one and cannot do all the things desirable to be done in a community, so to him falls the lot of training leaders.

This is being done in innumerable ways. The boys get training in carrying on their project work, in their organization as a group and such like. Numerous teachers organize their boys into associations for various purposes. One association fattens a carload of baby beef for the live stock show and the market; another buys and finishes feeders for the market; another

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poultry. One California teacher required each of his senior boys to undertake the accomplishment of some needed civic improvement from the inception of the plans to their completion, appearing before such bodies and individuals as was necessary to secure support, and put the enterprise across. This is leadership training of the highest order. Another trained individuals and teams to give demonstrations and talks on the latest methods of performing certain important agricultural operations such as grafting, culling the non-layers from the farm flock, demonstrating the many uses of rope, and the like. Boys have been sent, usually in pairs, to investigate some new problem reported by a farmer and study ways and means of solution returning their findings to the farmer. It may be that such work could not be credited toward an academic degree, but let that be as it will, those boys are receiving a training for leadership that no amount of study of a theoretical problem can impart—neither the reading of books and the subsequent recitation of their contents. And, who will doubt that such work on the part of these boys today is producing a trained rural citizenry for tomorrow?

The above citations do not by any means exhaust the field, but we believe they are sufficient to justify the statement made in the beginning to the effect that evidence points to the conclusion that vocational courses in agriculture *do* contribute to the development of a trained rural citizenry.

What agricultural education is doing for the boys of the farm and industrial education is doing for the boys of the city, home economics education is doing—and more—for the girls of the country and of the town. Theirs is a more nearly universal demand.

If vocational education accomplishes these desirable ends as vocational education and as an integral part of the public-school system, what excuse is there for the existence of vocation *as such?* Why does not the importance of the work done justify the wholesale and whole hearted adoption of these principles and methods by the schools? There seems to be only the one answer—namely, school people have so long worshipped the fetish of academic training that their minds are closed to the possibilities that there is any other way under heaven by which man may be educated. It is not too much to hope and believe that the new generation will universally adopt the principles of vocational education.

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION IN CALIFORNIA

EDWIN A. LEE, PRESIDENT OF BAY SECTION OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION OF CALIFORNIA, DEPARTMENT OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION, UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA

Vocational education may be said to have had its historical beginning in California in 1912, when the people of the State approved a constitutional amendment giving the next legislature the power to create a State board of education. In accordance with this action the legislature in 1913 created such a board and provided for three commissioners, one of whom was given

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the title Commissioner of Industrial and Vocational Education. In December of the same year the commissioner was appointed and on January 1, 1914, took office. Thus began the movement which in less than a decade has given California National prominence in the field of vocational education.

The first few years immediately following the commissioner's appointment were, according to the current annual reports, spent in arousing public interest in vocational education. In 1911 a measure for the promotion of vocational education had been introduced into the legislature but had failed to pass. In 1913 a similar measure was considered by the law-makers but with similar results. Again in 1915 such a measure was proposed and actually reached the governor, where after resting a short time it was vetoed.

In 1917 the Smith-Hughes Federal Act was passed. Its provisions were immediately accepted by California and the necessary appropriations approved. The terms of acceptance designated the State board of education to be the State Board for Vocational Education and the program gathered impetus.

In 1919 the California Part-time Law was passed and immediately took its place as one of the most wisely prepared laws in part-time education yet passed by any State. The final legal step in the complete program for vocational education was taken when the legislature in 1921 accepted the provisions of the Federal act for the promotion of vocational rehabilitation of those injured in industry. How important this rehabilitation problem is had never been realized until Congress under the impetus of the results evidenced from the Soldier and Sailor Rehabilitation appointed a committee to investigate the industrial rehabilitation problem.

The findings were astounding. It was found that each year there are injured seriously enough to be incapacitated for further participation in the occupation previously followed more individuals than were injured during the entire participation in the war. Nearly three quarters of a million adults each year under the ordinary peace-time conditions suffer injuries which make it impossible for them to continue in the work to which they are accustomed. California immediately sensed the social problem involved and a supervisor of industrial rehabilitation was appointed, responsible to the Commissioner of Industrial and Vocational Education. The first report of this supervisor reads like a romance. Unfortunately economy dictates the discontinuance of this necessary service at the end of the fiscal year 1923-1924.

The administrative organization of the Department of Vocational Education has a place in this report. At the top is the State Board of Education with its executive officer, the State Superintendent of Public Instruction. Responsible to and working with the State Superintendent is the Commissioner of Industrial and Vocational Education. Under the direction of the commissioner are four supervisors: one for agricultural education, another for trade and industrial education; a third for home economics, and the one mentioned above, the supervisor of industrial rehabilitation.

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Certain features of the program warrant attention. First in importance is the fact that from the beginning there has been a permanent policy and program unassailable by a changing personnel in the various communities. The program has been conceived as a continuing activity, and as a consequence changes in principalships, superintendents, and even vocational teachers has had little effect upon a program once started.

A second feature of the California plan is the teacher training program. From the beginning it was realized that the teacher is the keystone of the arch—that fine buildings, splendid equipment, clearly defined courses of study are all for naught if at the heart of the program there is not a teacher qualified and well trained. Accordingly there has been set up a carefully conceived plan of teacher training by which the State Board of Education has delegated the responsibility of teacher training in large part to the University of California with which institution it works in closest coöperation.

The State Board of Education has also adopted the policy that it and the money at its disposal exist for purposes of promotion and not for support of vocational education, which means that the emphasis is laid not on caring for programs of vocational education already provided for, not easing what may seem to be financial burdens, but aiding the cause of vocational education by the investment of time and money in those places where the greatest benefit to the State as a whole will accrue.

Through it all there has been evident real leadership on the part of those charged with leadership. The commissioner and his supervisors have set the pace, they have kept up the standards, they have not rested content with bare beginnings. Given a program wisely conceived, and loyal and indefatigable administrators to carry out such a program, what may not a State accomplish?

The report of the Special Committee on Vocational Education which follows is, of course, but a bare summary of findings and conclusions and as such will be barren of argument or description. Enough is herein indicated, however, to make clear that with all that has been said up to this point, California has made but a beginning in the field of vocational education. With an increasingly accelerating population, with a great industrial activity just coming into being, with the natural outlet for industrial and agricultural products to the Orient and the consequent commercial problems which are the outgrowth, and with a philosophy of public education which is complete in its implications there is reason to believe that California will in the next decade assume a position of true leadership in vocational education.

The summary of findings and conclusions follows:

General purpose of vocational education—Vocational education of secondary grade, for the purpose of this report, may be defined as that part of education which, while recognizing that the fundamental aim of secondary education is citizenship, lays particular emphasis on that phase of citizenship having to do with preparation for occupational proficiency. Vocational education recognizes the right of every individual to go to college if he so wills, but it demands that the secondary school, supported by the taxes of all the people, shall adequately meet the needs of all the children of all the people. It cannot overlook the fact that an overwhelm-

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ing majority of those in atendance upon high schools of the State will never go to a higher institution of learning but will enter upon the natural but serious business of building homes and supporting families, and entering into the world of varied activities and responsibilities of citizenship in the commonwealth. The program of secondary education can no longer escape the obligation to prepare these individuals for the life they will live.

Vocational education further maintains that no individual who has creditably completed a four-year high-school course should be denied the right to a higher education. Any training gained under the spur of a compelling interest and held to a high standard of attainment should constitute adequate training for entrance to college. The test should not be whether or not an individual has progressed through a set curriculum imposed from above, but rather whether or not an individual once admitted to college is able to do satisfactorily the work required in the course of training selected. Vocational education, therefore, deems it unjust and indefensible that graduates of vocational programs of secondary grade should be penalized or handicapped because four years before entering college one choice was made rather than another. This is not to say, however, that certain conditions imposed in individual cases are not legitimate, as, for example, the case of a graduate of a four-year secondary course in agriculture who, desiring to train himself in some branch of engineering, finds himself inadequately prepared in mathematics. But it should be noted that the emphasis is on what is to be done rather than what has not been accomplished and that it is in terms of the individual to be trained and not in terms of the course of training.

Vocational education has no quarrel with culture, if by culture we mean acquaintanceship with and love for those things which society has consistently counted fine in the fields of literature, music, art, the drama, architecture, and in the realms of human relationships. It faces, however, the fact that poverty and intelligent leisure are no kin, that occupational inefficiency does not make possible the possession of the finer things of life, that culture in the truest sense comes only from the contentment of mind and heart which is the priceless possession of him who is an economically independent member of society.

Vocational education rightly conceived and rightly carried through, therefore, makes possible a higher degree of culture than could otherwise be possible. The two terms are not antagonistic, they are interdependent. Centering the attention of secondary education on the claims of the individual to be trained rather than on the claims of the particular types of subject matter will do much to demonstrate the interdependence of cultural and vocational education.

Specific purposes of vocational education—In terms of agricultural education the ultimate object is the creation of a prosperous and contented rural citizenship. In terms of trade and industrial education the main objective is to make individuals proficient in a useful, previously selected, industrial occupation. In terms of commercial education the controlling purpose is to fit individuals for intelligent and effective participation in the manifold activities of the modern commercial world. In terms of home economics education the aim is to teach girls and women efficiently and intelligently to discharge the duties and responsibilities involved in making the modern home a positive factor in the life of the family and the community. In terms of prevocational education the aim is to discover every child to himself particularly from the point of view of vocations. In terms of part-time education the aim is to make available to every employed youth that type of education which he needs most from a civic, social, physical, or vocational point of view.

In agricultural education the findings indicate that (a) there is an extensive conscious need of education among farmers of the State; (b) the extent of this conscious need indicates there has been a corresponding inadequacy in provisions for agricultural education in this and other States; and (c) farmers' needs center around certain definite major farming units.

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In industrial education the findings indicate that (a) there is an overabundance of courses offered in certain trades, *i. e.*, auto mechanics, machinists, and electricians; (b) in certain other trades there is a great scarcity of trained workers indicating a need for courses of training in such occupations as plumbing, plastering, tailoring, sheet metal, carpentry, and mill cabinet work; (c) a more careful study of trade conditions must be made in order to determine the details of trade and industrial education for each community attempting to solve the problem.

In home economics education the findings indicate that (a) there should be a distinct separation between general home economics education and vocational home economics; (b) there should be a clear definition of the objectives of general home economics.

In part-time education the findings indicate that (a) there is considerable correlation in the larger communities between the part-time program and the occupations followed by part-time students, which correlation decreases as the communities become smaller; (b) details in a report by a special committee.

In prevocational education the findings indicate that (a) the program in prevocational education in California is not extensive enough to warrant conclusions which can be defended on the basis of fact; (b) there is a need for thorough analysis and scientific experimentation in the field of prevocational education; and (c) the junior high school is the logical educational division in which the greatest development may be expected.

THE NEED FOR VOCATIONAL EDUCATION OF WOMEN AND GIRLS

RUTH MARY WEEKS, INSTRUCTOR IN ENGLISH AND SOCIOLOGY, JUNIOR COLLEGE, KANSAS CITY, MISSOURI

This is a topic upon which it is impossible for anyone to speak authoritatively without solving the whole problem of woman's life, and I confess that neither personally nor generally, practically nor theoretically, have I arrived at any such solution. Since Mr. Lee asked me to address you on this subject, I have waylaid all comers, lay and professional, for their opinions, and no two have held even remotely similar ideas as to the life for which women should be trained. Now it is idle to inaugurate vast schemes of public vocational education of women until we know definitely what we wish women to do and what effect training them will have upon our social organization. All countries have straddled the issue, or neglected it, and it seems to me they have done so with a certain wisdom so long as this basic problem remains unsolved.

There are those like Mr. Hutchinson, the popular author of "If Winter Comes," who believe that a career is destructive of efficient homemaking. Mr. Hutchinson has even written a book called "This Freedom" to prove

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his point, in which the blame for all the evils of the lax post-war period as they manifest themselves in one English family, is laid upon the mother's business pursuits. Ellen Key, the great Scandinavian writer upon the woman problem, maintains that it is not only woman's duty but woman's right to have a child, and that the State, if necessary, should subsidize motherhood to make this possible. If this be true, if not only the duty of woman to the race, but the happiness of women depends upon what is in normal society represented by family life, it is well before planning any new and widespread scheme of training to ask what will be the effect upon marriage and home life of its universal application? If women are generally trained for immediate wage earning work upon the completion of school, will they tend to marry later or not at all? Will they themselves be more or less willing to marry, and will men be more or less willing to marry them? At present, the unmarried women are on the whole at the top of the social and educational scale, while the unmarried men are at the bottom. Will training all women to economic competence tend to increase this wasteful disproportion? Even if working women marry, what will be the effect upon the birth rate of widespread training for trade and professional pursuits outside the home? In New York City, women teachers are allowed to marry, but I am informed that children in such families are rare. At the time of the last tabulated Federal census, over twenty-three million women were working at gainful pursuits in the United States, of whom over half were married. If this number were substantially increased, as it would surely be increased by the inauguration of general vocational education of women, what would be the effect upon our great breeding grounds of population and upon the homes in which the mass of our children grow to maturity?

There is, on the other hand, another school of thinkers who consider homemaking destructive of a career. Among these is numbered the board of education in the city where I teach. Every woman teacher in Kansas City has to sign a contract not to marry before she is hired. If she is rash enough to make the fatal plunge and if no single substitute can be found for her, she may continue teaching on half pay—another startling dollar-and-cent estimate of the effect of marriage upon professional capacity. Every employer who pays women below the average rate reflects the belief that not only marriage itself but even the expectation of matrimony depresses woman's working efficiency.

Before dogmatizing about vocational education for women, it is well to ask for a moment whether we wish to enact on a large scale and for the sex as a whole, the tragedy of the gifted woman. There was a time when I should have speculated gaily upon these matters from the abstract standpoint of woman's right to economic independence and have felt that other issues would care for themselves. But issues do not care for themselves. On the contrary, they have a way of producing wreckage and unhappiness if not remembered.

Yet in spite of these doubts and questions, certain salient facts as to women's work must somehow be faced. In the first place, women are

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generally underpaid. In the second place, women are irrationally distributed in occupations. At the time of the last tabulated United States census reports, there were 303 gainful occupations listed, but only sixty-three of these had over 5000 women in them, and forty-seven of the occupations accounted for ninety-five per cent of the working women of the country. As a matter of fact, six occupations engaged three fifths of America's women workers. Servants and waitresses lead with a million and a half. Textile trades come next with about half a million. There followed dressmaking, laundry work, teaching, and farming. Comparatively few of the skilled trades which men pursue showed a high per cent of women, but this could not be due to the inability of women to follow these callings, since there were only nine out of the 303 listed occupations which employed no women, thus proving that there are few kinds of work whose nature of itself debars them.

Not only are women poorly distributed throughout industry, but unquestionably the efficiency of the woman at work is not so great as we could wish. This is conspicuously true of the woman in the home. In a home, the woman is supreme executive, and this autocratic position makes possible slip-shod methods of household management and child training. There is no one to call the homekeeper to account, and unskilled and untrained as women usually are in responsibility and executive power, all too many housewives fail because of this very freedom of action in home life. In the shop and office, the efficiency of woman is lowered not only by her frequent impermanence as a worker, but also by the crowding of women into certain easy or traditional occupations for which many of them are entirely unfitted. This for instance, is especially true of our own calling of school teaching, where the average efficiency of women in the profession would be far higher if only those taught who really are gifted teachers and love the work, and if the women to whom teaching is quite uncongenial were trained vocationally along some other line.

Moreover, not only the individual efficiency but the collective efficiency of women, especially in social and public service, is seriously handicapped by a lack of training for organization and leadership. It is just this training which has in the past given to the graduates of women's colleges their great professional advantage over the university or high-school woman. It is partly the lack of such training which prevents the more general rise of women to executive positions. Teaching, certainly in the lower schools, is largely a woman's profession, and I think that our lack of democracy and freedom in educational administration has been partly traceable to this inability of women to organize effectively and to the scarcity of trained leadership among them. Grade school teachers in particular, have been a sort of subject race, afraid to call their souls their own, afraid to refuse to teach excessively large classes, afraid to criticize, afraid to experiment, afraid to insist upon those things which they know to be necessary for successful education. This is not because grade school principals are particularly vicious tyrants, but because women teachers have been untrained to coöperative effort, and each feels timid in her isolation. A great deal of the conservatism

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and deadening routine of school procedure has been traceable to just this lack of educational democracy and self assertion on the part of teachers, and this lack must be repaired by an adequate program of vocational education for any calling.

The first great gain from a more varied program of vocational training for women is distributing women more evenly throughout those occupations which it is possible for them to follow—and this apparently means all but nine out of America's gainful callings. Many a teacher and many a clerk would be happier in a skilled trade, but so far as I can see, women will never get into skilled trades unless they come to the factory door already trained, as employers hesitate to train a woman who may marry at any moment.

In the second place, women would be much better paid if they were more diversely trained for wage work, as they would have a greater choice of occupations, and wages would not be kept down in certain overcrowded trades by cut-throat competition. Men can go into nearly anything they wish, but there are fewer openings for women, partly because of prejudice and tradition, but largely because women are trained for fewer trades. This largely explains woman's low wage as compared with man's, the average hourly wage of women of the United States being fifteen cents as against man's twenty-seven. The overcrowding of women in these traditional occupations also means not only a low woman's wage but the undercutting of men in these callings, and frequently even driving men out of the field, as has happened in the grade school and even high-school teaching to the great loss of education. That the efficiency of women in the professions, business and industry, would be increased by vocational training is scarcely open to discussion, and I feel that even if a woman married and devoted herself exclusively to housekeeping, the training in systematic work and manual dexterity which a trade course would give her would not be lost. A good bookkeeper will be a better housekeeper than a woman who has never been trained specially to do anything thoroughly and well. Education that counts is not so much information as method, and good systematic methods of work are certainly transferable from job to job. However, if vocational education for women is to accomplish those results, it will have to include a background of general intelligence which will make possible the transference of skill and the adaptation to new conditions and new work for which woman may not have been particularly trained; and it will have to include the preparation for organization and leadership which is essential for successful homemaking or for rising to the top in any other occupation.

I should like to quote a college teacher of household science from a conspicuous western university who said to me a few days ago, that the chief trouble she had with her students was that the Smith-Hughes girls who came to her classes from the State high schools lacked a sound basis of general information and mental discipline, and that therefore she could never train them to more than mechanical routine accomplishment. Of course, many individuals of both sexes are incapable of anything but mechanical routine,

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but since one of the great hopes of the educator is not that vocational training will free many women from the necessity of such routine, we must have a care in organizing our courses that routine is not the only thing for which they train. To my mind, the great present lack in vocational schools is the socializing and developing activities which more and more mold character and develop initiative and coöperation in our ordinary grade and secondary schools. It is difficult to offer such activities to vocational students, well nigh impossible to offer them to part-time students. But unless vocational education is to breed a race of mere docile technicians, such training must somehow be secured through a democratic method of school administration and a socialized method of class instruction. Certainly, in the case of women, we want to de-docilize them; not to docilize them more.

However, the problem of the vocational education of women, special though it is, cannot be settled without reference to the whole trend of vocational training. We have as a result of fifteen or twenty years of experience, arrived at a turning-point in our conceptions of the whole subject. With the introduction of machinery and the specialization of industrial processes, apprenticeship in industry decayed. To correct this situation, first Europe and then the United States established schools designed as a substitute for industrial apprenticeship, schools which took three or four years of study and which graduated a master craftsman, conversant with every process of the whole trade, as well as the scientific and artistic principals involved. I confess that this idea had a great charm for me. It was a good idea. The only trouble was that meanwhile in industry trades practically ceased to exist; there was only a multitude of simple machine processes practically identical for every industry. For such work, elaborate training was scarcely necessary, and so far as the manual aspect of industrial education went, we were led to simple manual training on the one hand, and on the other to the unit or vestibule school in which students are taught as rapidly as is humanly possible how to run some one machine or do some one job well enough to make a living.

But simultaneously with this mechanical development came the organization of labor, the increasing influence of the worker through collective bargaining and shop committee schemes in directing business policy. Likewise in the political world came government ownership of utilities and government control of business through legislation. Thus both industrial and political life made demands upon the economic intelligence of the worker which mere manual training or skill in running a machine will not enable him to meet. Educators are everywhere aware of this, and the emphasis is being increasingly laid on social science teaching, on a background of social and economic information; in other words, on a general education for vocational students.

It seems to me that the logical future outgrowth of this realization is, first: the approach of the trade school to the high-school pattern and the final merging of the two in a tremendous junior high enrolment; and second, a greater development of the part-time and vestibule school under public

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auspices and perhaps in connection with an academic high school. Certainly such part-time and unit courses seem in this day of uncertainty, the safest thing to organize for women; the surest to survive under the new order which is coming—schools in which women in need of a living can learn quickly some definite industrial process.

But for the most of our workers, one problem seems most pressing. Trade education has been very aristocratic. But surely we must do something for the highly specialized workers in industry, whether men or women, yearly becoming more numerous, whose toil is so simplified as to be almost mechanical—surely we must do something to give their work meaning, to bind them in thought, at least, if not in performance, with the business as a whole. The answer of labor to this problem is the cry for a share in industrial control; the answer of capital is the effort of progressive employers to develop shop committee schemes for linking up the mechanically separated fractions of industry in one understanding unit. And the answer of the schools is not the old one of teach the students all the processes of trade, but teach them social science. In other words, through a long detour, we have revolved in a spiral and are returning again to academic instruction, but we return to it on a higher level—to academic instruction of a far more vital sort. Indeed the trade school movement has already effected a revolution in all educational procedure and even though it disappears in the old form in which we first thought of it, it will survive in a more living and purposeful scheme of general education, which through training for industrial democracy, restores to labor its human birthright of meaning and joy in work.

If we fail in this effort, what is ahead of civilization? Industry, in its struggle for speed and efficiency, has simplified processes until in some plants the workers can endure the deadly monotony only by rotating every week from machine to machine. And the tragedy of it is, the greater the machine, the littler the man needed to tend it; the higher the speed of production, the tinier and more monotonous the act the man performs. Great employers of labor are perfectly cynical on this point. If psychological tests go into industry, it will be to select the moron for the minute operation. Agriculture has not yet succumbed to this organizing tendency, but the natural evolution of manufacture has reduced jobs to the point where one of two results must follow: Either our labor force must be absolutely docile and subservient, mechanically minded, mere hands, and all the men and women of independent minds who demand a thought life as well as an animal existence will be driven out of industry; or industry must counteract the mechanical specialization of processes by rotating men throughout the plant as is now done by Mr. Ford, and by instituting a system of democratic business management which will give meaning to the individual job. Under the first alternative, I see nothing but social catastrophe ahead; only low types of mentality can stand the monotony of much factory labor; and as a large part of our population must live by industry, under this alternative, we shall insure as definitely as though we deliberately selected it, the survival of an unmistakably low grade human stock, lacking in initiative and imagination,

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lacking in the very qualities that make for the greatness of a race. The professions, commerce, and agriculture cannot support the surplus of superior workers which this contingency will force out of industry. It will simply mean a slow and obscure race suicide of our better working classes. From this fate, however, I believe we shall be saved. In spite of the terrible grip of the old industrial order upon the world today, in spite of the terrifying dominance of the machine and the subservience of the man, I know that flesh and blood is stronger than steel and that by the mighty power of a new educational spirit, we shall be able peacefully to remodel industry while preserving its efficiency, until our factories can stand the great and final test, not of what do they make of material, but what do they make of women and of men?

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Index

[Names of authors are set in SMALL CAPITALS]

Active membership for life, 135
Act of Incorporation, 1
ADAIR, CORNELIA S. The status of the classroom teacher, 487
ADAMS, JOHN. Suspended animation in English education, 523
Address of welcome (WILLIAM W. CAMPBELL), 205; (JOHN L. DAVIE), 140; (WILL C. WOOD), 141
Adjusting the junior high school building to the educational program (E. E. LEWIS), 999
Administration and supervision, Rural school (N. C. MACDONALD), 318
Administration of city supervision in work with the foreign born (NINA J. BEGLINGER), 695
Advantages of geographic districting in the supervision of rural schools (ELIZABETH K. RUCKER), 779
Agenda of World Conference on Education, 414
AGNEW, THOMAS. The project method from the principal's point of view, 660
ALDER, LOUISE M. How the needs of the kindergarten period are being met? 716
ALEXANDER, CARTER. Publicity for rural education, 271
ALLAN, H. A. Report of business division, 108
American citizenship, What constitutes (ALVIN M. OWSLEY), 900
American education week, 106
American Legion, Report of committee to coöperate with the (J. M. GWINN), 399
American public school, Ideals of the (HARRISON S. ROBINSON), 137
American public schools and old-world culture, The (H. B. WILSON), 700
American School Citizenship League, Report of the committee to coöperate with the (FANNIE FERN ANDREWS), 396
American school program from the standpoint of the city (WILLIAM L. ETTINGER), 195
American school program, Educational research and the (CHARLES H. JUDD), 168
American school program from the standpoint of the Nation, The (ELLWOOD P. CUBBERLEY), 180
American school program from the standpoint of the rural school, The (FLORENCE M. HALE), 202
American school program from the standpoint of the State, The (THOMAS E. FINEGAN), 188
American schools, The financing of the (GEORGE D. STRAYER), 158
American woman teacher, The status of the (ANNA LAURA FORCE), 543
American woman teacher, Report of committee on the status of the (ANNA LAURA FORCE), 484
American women teachers, Certain aspects of the professional and social status of (A. L. THRELKELD), 486
Americanization program of Fresno County, California, The (HARRIET W. MERRILL), 701
ANDREWS, FANNIE FERN. Report of the committee to coöperate with the American School Citizenship League, 396
Apprenticeship, The decline of, 497
Arousal of interest on the part of the people in their own schools (GEORGE S. DICK), 280
Assistant superintendent, What I most desire of my (THOMAS R. COLE), 920
Attendance, Growth of, 207
Attitude of the teacher toward supervision (JESSE H. NEWLON), 548
Auditor's report, 63

BAGLEY, WILLIAM C. Report of the Editorial Council, 257
BAILEY, HENRY TURNER. Leisure time, 925
BAIR, FREDERICK H. Stimulating the growth of teachers, 915
BAKER, NEWTON D. Education for democracy, 929

Digitized by Google

BAKER, SAM A. Certification, 321
BATE, W. G. The junior high school as an aid in the solution of individual pupil adjustment, 994
BAYLOR, ADELAIDE S. Consolidation of rural schools, 285
Beginnings of a county school system, The (CHARLES L. COON), 801
BEGLINGER, NINA J. Administration of city supervision in work with the foreign born, 695
Behavior in early childhood, The nature and importance of (HILDA M. HOLMES), 707
BENGTSON, AMALIA M. Keeping the curriculum alive, 968
BENNION, MILTON. Report of committee on character education, 250, 491
BENTLEY, J. H. Responsibility of the board of education in modern school organization, 986
BEVERIDGE, J. H. The need of professional leadership in education, 429
BIEDENBACH, C. L. Secondary school counseling based on scientific tests, 868
BINZEL, ALMA L. Education for parenthood, 148
BLITZ, ANNE DUDLEY. Social conditions arising from the inter-racial contacts on the campus, 632
Board of Directors, Meeting of, 82
Board of education and school organization, 986
Books and libraries, Instruction in the use of (MARY L. HARRIS), 725
BORDEN, W. W. Business principles applied to educational organization and administration, 1009
BORGHESE, PRINCESS SANTA. Women in education, 228
Boy scouts (FRANK CODY), 910
BRADFORD, MARY C. C. The status of the woman teacher in rural districts, 490
BREITWIESER, J. V. The psychology of habit formation, 558
BRIGGS, THOMAS H. The status of the junior high school, 999
BRILLHART, D. O. Objectives of part-time education for boys, 527
BROOKS, CHARLES E., and HERMAN L. EKERN. Federal aid for teachers' pensions, 378
BROWN, MARY LOUISE. Talks to freshmen—their content and value, 634
BRUNER, H. B. Square pegs and round holes, 1001; Two phases of what the schools do in relation to what they cost, 938
BRYAN, ELMER BURRITT. Supreme values in education, 889
Budget and expenditures, 1922-23, 95
Budget making and spending by the county (A. F. HARMAN), 955
Budget making and spending by the State (FRANK P. GRAVES), 960
Budget, The city school (ARTHUR B. MOEHLMAN), 949
BUNKER, FRANK F. The Pan-Pacific Union and education, 139
BURRIS, BENJAMIN J. Necessity of the county unit for the efficient administration of rural schools, 789
Business principles applied to educational organization and administration (W. W. BORDEN), 1009
BUSWELL, GUY T. School provisions for the exceptional child, 997
By-Laws, 5

CALDWELL, OTIS W. Considerations which led to the proposal of a six-year science sequence, 851; Principles and types of curricular development, 962
Calendar of meetings, 15
California, Vocational education in (EDWIN A. LEE), 1039
CAMPBELL, MACY. The standardization of consolidated schools, 809; Rural recreation and social life, 358
CAMPBELL, WILLIAM W. Address of welcome, 205
CAPEN, SAMUEL P. A unified, universally educated, efficient nation demands a national system of public schools, 1003
CARLSON, PHILIP E. Report of the committee on pensions, 376
Carnegie Foundation and the Pritchett report, 102
CERTAIN, C. C. The elementary school library defined in dollars and cents, 646
Certification (SAM A. BAKER), 321
CHADSEY, C. E. Report of the committee on the status of the superintendent, 903
CHAMBERLAIN, ARTHUR H. Report of the committee on thrift education, 393
Character education needed, 238
Character education objectives, Three reports on, 253

Digitized by Google

Character education, Report of committee on (MILTON BENNION), 250, 491
Charter certificated, 14
Chicago's public school classes for crippled children (PETER A. MORTENSON), 916
Child and the commercial moving picture, The (OLIVE M. JONES), 538
Child Hygiene, Department of, 568
Citizen? What is a (ARTHUR D. DEAN), 676
Citizenship ceremonies (ANNE M. GODFREY), 699
Citizenship classes to bring about citizen's participation, Practical suggestions for the organization of (FREDERICK P. WOELLNER), 676
Citizenship through education (WILL C. WOOD), 208
City school budget, The (ARTHUR B. MOEHLMAN), 949
City school system, The new rural school and its interdependence with the (GRACE G. STANLEY), 643
City supervision in work with the foreign born, Administration of (NINA J. BEGLINGER), 695
City supervision, The work of (FLORA D. SMITH), 694
City supervisor, The work of a (D. L. HENNESSEY), 698
City, The American school program from the standpoint of the (WILLIAM L. ETTINGER), 195
CLARK, CHARLES S. The superintendent's relationship to his principals, 1014
CLARK, LILLIAN P. Types of State organization, 686
CLARK, M. G. A Nationalized system of education: the spirit of democracy, as well as the American Constitution, requires that education be left to the states, 1004
Classical investigation, The (ANDREW F. WEST), 219
Classroom teacher, The (JAMES J. DAVIS), 579
Classroom teachers, Department of, 569
Classroom teacher toward the progress of education as seen by the classroom teacher of Hawaii, The contribution of the (EMILY EWALIKO), 616
Classroom teacher toward progress in education from the viewpoint of labor, The contribution of the (E. P. MARSH), 580
Classroom teacher toward progress in education from the viewpoint of agriculture, The contribution of the (O. J. KERN), 584
Classroom teacher toward progress in education from the viewpoint of the American Legion, The contribution of the (JAMES K. FISK), 578
Classroom teacher toward progress in education—in the interest of the Towner-Sterling Bill, The contribution of the (MATTIE M. MONTGOMERY), 610
Classroom teacher toward progress in education in securing equal salary for equal service, Contribution of the (JULIA E. SULLIVAN), 606
Classroom teacher toward progress in education, The contribution of the (EFFIE MACGREGOR), 618
Classroom teacher toward progress in education from the viewpoint of business, The contribution of the (ARVID REUTERDAHL), 588
Classroom teacher toward progress in education from the viewpoint of the business and professional woman, The contribution of the (O. LATHAM HATCHER), 593
Classroom teachers' organizations (ALBERT R. LANG), 594
Classroom teacher, The status of the (CORNELIA S. ADAIR), 487
CODY, FRANK. Boy scouts, 910
COLE, THOMAS R. What I most desire of my assistant superintendent, 920
College and secondary school science, Relation between (JOEL H. HILDEBRAND), 856
Commercial education as a sales manager sees them, The fundamentals of (R. H. MOUSER), 556
Commercial education as viewed by the personnel manager (ROY WILLMARTH KELLY), 554
Committees of the N. E. A., 22
Community center work, Visual education in (SUSAN M. DORSEY), 534
Comparative study of instruction in consolidated and one-teacher schools, A (JOHN M. FOOTE), 812
Comprehensive school survey and its consequences, A (GEORGE D. STRAYER), 1016
Concerning the Council (J. M. GWINN), 427

Digitized by Google

Conclusions based on questionnaire concerning certain aspects of the professional and social status of American women teachers (A. L. THRELKELD), 486
CONDON, RANDALL J. Janitor service, 913
Conduct between nations, 417
Conference on reading circles (WILLIS H. KERR), 731
Congenital responses of children, Internal factors underlying (CALVIN P. STONE), 710
Conservation of talent, The (LEWIS M. TERMAN), 152
Considerations which led to the proposal of a six-year science sequence (OTIS W. CALDWELL), 851
Consolidated and one-teacher schools, A comparative study of instruction in (JOHN M. FOOTE), 812
Consolidated schools, The standardization of (MACY CAMPBELL), 809
Consolidation of rural schools (ADELAIDE S. BAYLOR), 285
Continental Trust Company's report, 67
Continuity of education in its relation to education for citizenship, The (J. M. GWINN), 511
Contribution of the classroom teacher toward progress in education (EFFIE MACGREGOR), 618
Contribution of the classroom teacher toward the progress of education as seen by the classroom teacher of Hawaii (EMILY EWALIKO), 616
Contribution of the classroom teacher toward progress in education from the viewpoint of agriculture, The (O. J. KERN), 584
Contribution of the classroom teacher toward progress in education from the viewpoint of business, The (ARVID REUTERDAHL), 588
Contribution of the classroom teacher toward progress in education from the viewpoint of the American Legion, The (JAMES K. FISK), 578
Contribution of the classroom teacher toward progress in education from the viewpoint of the business and professional woman (O. LATHAM HATCHER), 593
Contribution of the classroom teacher toward progress in education from the viewpoint of labor (E. P. MARSH), 580
Contribution of the classroom teacher toward progress in education in securing equal salary for equal service (JULIA E. SULLIVAN), 606
Contribution of the classroom teacher toward progress in education—in the interest of the Towner-Sterling Bill (MATTIE M. MONTGOMERY), 610
Contribution to public education, The elementary school principal's (IDE G. SARGEANT), 1019
COOK, KATHERINE M. Suggestions for county survey, 342
COON, CHARLES L. The beginnings of a county school system, 801
Coöperate with the motion picture producers, Report of committee to (CHARLES H. JUDD), 243
Coördination of research agencies, Report of the commission on the (JESSE H. NEWLON), 390
COOVER, J. E. A method of teaching typewriting based upon a psychological analysis of expert typing, 561
Cost and the fiscal administration of schools; some facts from the educational finance inquiry, The (GEORGE D. STRAYER), 929
Cost of education, 158
Cost of education in Okmulgee, Okla., 938
Country schools, Elements of rural civilization in the course of study for (O. J. KERN), 834
County, Budget making and spending by the (A. F. HARMAN), 955
County school system, The beginnings of a (CHARLES L. COON), 801
County superintendent in rural school supervision, Part of the (A. G. YAWBERG), 772
County superintendent, The (H. R. STEINER), 320
County surveys, Suggestions for (KATHERINE M. COOK), 342
County unit for the efficient administration of rural schools, Necessity of the (BENJAMIN J. BURRIS), 789
County unit in Montana, The (MAY TRUMPER), 805
County unit, The (T. H. HARRIS), 706
Course of study and how? Who shall make the (ERNEST HORN), 971
Course of study for country schools, The elements of rural civilization in the (O. J. KERN), 834
CRABTREE, J. W. Secretary's report, 86

Digitized by Google

CRAM, FRED D. Tests and measurements in rural schools, 322
CRANDALL, ERNEST L. Visual aids and how to handle them, 540
Crippled children, Chicago's public school classes for (PETER A. MORTENSON), 916
CUBBERLEY, ELLWOOD P. The American school program from the standpoint of the Nation, 180
Curricular development, Principles and types of (OTIS W. CALDWELL), 962
Curriculum alive, Keeping the (AMALIA M. BENGTSON), 968
Curriculum, How modern business may aid in reconstructing the (CHARLES H. JUDD), 975
Curriculum making, The human element in (WILLIAM MCANDREW), 980
Curriculum, Making the school (H. B. WILSON), 1010
Curriculum, Recreational reading as part of the present-day (JAMES F. HOSIC), 724
Curriculum revision, 433, 441
Curriculum, The new elementary school (H. B. WILSON), 644
Curriculum, The rural school (HAROLD W. FOGHT), 303

DAVIDSON, ISOBEL. A State program for improving instruction in reading, 766
DAVIE, JOHN L. Address of welcome, 140
DAVIS, H. RALPH. Relation between schools and other social agencies, 690
DAVIS, JAMES J. The classroom teacher, 579
DEAN, ARTHUR D. What is a citizen? 676
Deans of women, Department of, 621
Delegates to World Conference on Education, 411
Democracy, Education for (NEWTON D. BAKER), 929
Democracy, Report of the committee on the teaching of (A. DUNCAN YOCUM), 447
Demonstration schools, Rural teacher training and (JOHN F. SIMS), 308
Departments: Business education, 553; child hygiene, 568; Classroom teachers, 569; Deans of women, 621; Educational publications, 637; Elementary education, 643; Elementary school principals, 653; 665; Higher education, 667; Immigrant education, 669; Kindergarten education, 705; Music education, 733; Normal schools, 737; Physical education, 744; Rural education, 745; School administration, 842; Science instruction, 843; Secondary, 861; Superintendence, 881; Vocational education and practical arts, 1025
Department of superintendence, Report of executive secretary, 132
DICK, GEORGE S. Arousal of interest on the part of the people in their own schools, 280
DICKSON, VIRGIL E. School counseling and the problem of individual differences, 864
Dissemination of education information, 416
Divisions at headquarters, 98, 108; Business, 108; Publications, 113; Research, 119; Elementary school service, 122; Field secretary, 125; Legislative secretary, 128; Department of superintendence, 132
DORSEY, SUSAN M. The place of the junior college in public education, 214; Visual education in community center work, 534
Dues, No change in, 91
DUNN, FANNIE W. What is instructional supervision? 758

Economic and administrative value of the platoon plan in junior high schools (C. J. TIDWELL), 998
Economic background of rural education, The (AARON SAPIRO), 750
EDGERTON, A. H. Extending school service in part-time and evening school classes, 1025
Editorial council, Report of the (WILLIAM C. BAGLEY), 257
Education and world progress (AUGUSTUS O. THOMAS), 237
Education, Citizenship through (WILL C. WOOD), 208
Education for citizenship, The continuity of education in its relation to (J. M. GWINN), 511
Education for democracy (NEWTON D. BAKER), 929
Education for parenthood (ALMA L. BINZEL), 148
Education in 1922, Progress in (A. E. WINSHIP), 893
Education in the United States Government, The reorganization of (JOHN J. TIGERT), 894
Education, Supreme values in (ELMER BURRITT BRYAN), 889

Digitized by Google

Education, The Pan-Pacific Union and (FRANK F. BUNKER), 139
Education, Women in (PRINCESS SANTA BORGHESE), 228
Educational finance inquiry, 929
Educational implications of the social program of the high school (SARAH M. STURTEVANT), 878
Educational journals, Report of the committee on standards for (JOY ELMER MORGAN), 637
Educational organization and administration, Business principles applied to (W. W. BORDEN), 1009
Educational program, Adjusting the junior high school building to the (E. E. LEWIS), 999
Educational progress in 1922 (THOMAS E. FINEGAN), 515
Educational publications, Department of, 637
Educational research and the American school program (CHARLES H. JUDD), 168
Efficient administration of rural schools, Necessity of the county unit for the (BENJAMIN J. BURRIS), 789
Efficient nation demands a national system of public schools, A unified, universally educated, (SAMUEL P. CAPEN), 1003
EKERN, HERMAN L., CHARLES E. BROOKS and. Federal aid for teachers' pensions, 378
Elementary education, Department of, 643
Elementary education, Report of committee on the reorganization of (OLIVE M. JONES), 255
Elementary school curriculum, The new (H. B. WILSON), 644
Elementary school library defined in dollars and cents, The (C. C. CERTAIN), 646
Elementary school principal's contribution to public education, The (IDE G. SARGEANT), 1019
Elementary school principals, Department of, minutes, 653, 665
Elementary school principalship from the superintendent's point of view, Possibilities of the (HERBERT S. WEET), 654
Elementary school service division report, 122
Elements of rural civilization in the course of study for country schools, The (O. J. KERN), 834
Elgin report, 101
ENGELHARDT, N. L. Suggestions on the report of the committee on the status of the superintendent, 905
ENGLEMAN, J. O. Report of field division, 125
English education, Suspended animation in (JOHN ADAMS), 523
Equal salary for equal service, 606
ETTINGER, WILLIAM L. The American school program from the standpoint of the city, 195
EVENDEN, E. S. Report of committee on salaries, 241
EWALIKO, EMILY. The contribution of the classroom teacher toward the progress of education as seen by the classroom teacher of Hawaii, 616
Exceptional child, School provisions for the (GUY T. BUSWELL), 997
Executive committee, Report of the, 77
Extending school service in part-time and evening school classes (A. H. EDGERTON), 1025
Extra-curricular activities in the high school, The place and value of (H. E. WINNER), 1021
Extra-curricular activities in the junior high school, The place and significance of (WILL FRENCH), 1001
Extra-mural activities of a dean of women—what shall they be? (MARY YOST), 631

FARGO, LUCILE F. "Seventeen" and the reference librarian, 721
Federal aid for teachers' pensions (CHARLES E. BROOKS and HERMAN L. EKERN), 378
Federal *vs.* State control of education, 1005
Field secretary, Report of field division, 125; Legislative division, 128
Final report of the committee on rural education (JOHN F. SIMS), 270
Financial policy and budget, 91
Financing of public education, The tax problem in relation to the (ROBERT M. HAIG), 933
Financing of the American schools, The (GEORGE D. STRAYER), 158
FINEGAN, THOMAS E. Educational progress in 1922, 515; The American school program from the standpoint of the State, 188

Digitized by Google

FISK, JAMES K. The contribution of the classroom teacher toward progress in education from the viewpoint of the American Legion, 578
FOGHT, HAROLD F. The rural school curriculum, 303
FOOTE, JOHN M. A comparative study of instruction in consolidated and one-teacher schools, 812
FORCE, ANNA LAURA. Report of committee on the status of the American woman teacher, 484; The status of the American woman teacher, 543
Foreign born, Administration of city supervision in work with the (NINA J. BEGLINGER), 695
Foreign relations, Report of committee on (AUGUSTUS O. THOMAS), 402
FRENCH, WILL. The place and significance of extra-curricular activities in the junior high school, 1001
Fresno County, California, The Americanization program of (HARRIET W. MERRILL), 701
Fundamental objectives in commercial education as viewed by the personnel manager (ROY WILLMARTH KELLY), 554
Fundamentals of commercial education as a sales manager sees them, The (R. H. MOUSER), 556
Funds of the Association, 58

Gary system, 444
General sessions, Program of, 30
Genius and chance, 153
Geographic districting in the supervision of rural schools, The advantages of (ELIZABETH K. RUCKER), 779
GLASS, JAMES M. Report of committee on the reorganization of the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades, 433
GODFREY, ANNE M. Citizenship ceremonies, 699
Governmental aid for educational research, 175
Graph record card, The Brooks individual, 329
GRAVES, FRANK P. Budget making and spending by the State, 960
Growth of Association, 86
Growth of teachers, Stimulating the (FREDERICK H. BAIR), 915
GWINN, J. M. Concerning the council, 427; Report of committee to cooperate with the American Legion, 399; The continuity of education in its relation to education for citizenship, 511

Habit formation, The psychology of (J. V. BREITWIESER), 558
HAIG, ROBERT M. The tax problem in relation to the financing of public education, 933
HALE, FLORENCE M. The American school program from the standpoint of the rural school, 202
HAMILTON, JESSIE M. Supervision by the principals, 545
HARMAN, A. F. Budget making and spending by the county, 955
HARRIS, MARY L. Instruction in the use of books and libraries, 725
HARRIS, THOMAS H. Organizing a State school system for effective service, 990; The county unit, 796
HARRISON, GAIL. How are the needs of the primary school period being met? 717
HARTWELL, E. C. What may be done to improve the quality of teaching, 922
HATCHER, O. LATHAM. The contribution of the classroom teacher toward progress in education from the viewpoint of the business and professional woman, 593
Hawaiian schools, 616
HAYES, HARRIET. The social life of the high school and some of its problems, 873
Headquarters: Business division, 108; Department of superintendence, 132; Elementary school service, 122; expansion of plant, 100; field, 125; legislative, 128; organization, 96; publications, 113; research, 119; staff participation in elections prohibited, 100.
Health and sanitation, Rural (JOSEPHINE CORLISS PRESTON), 352
Health aspect of the world's children (RAY L. WILBUR), 219
Health education, 420
Health problems in education, Report of the committee on (THOMAS D. WOOD), 259, 503
Health, The women's foundation for (MARGARET D. NORDFELDT), 627
HENNESSEY, D. L. The work of a city supervisor, 698
Higher education, Department of, 667
High school and some of its problems, The social life of the (HARRIET HAYES), 873
HILDEBRAND, JOEL H. Relation between college and secondary school science, 856

Digitized by Google

HINES, L. N. Report of visual education, 531; The most effective administrative and taxing unit, 281
HOLLOWAY, WILLIAM J. What are the activities of the State supervisor that directly influence the results of instruction? 764
HOLMES, HILDA M. The nature and importance of behavior in early childhood, 707
Hope of the nations, The (M. SAWAYANAGI), 222
HORN, ERNEST. Who shall make the course of study and how? 971
HORVATH, HELEN. The plea of an immigrant, 680
HOSIC, JAMES F. Recreational reading as part of the present-day curriculum, 724; The teacher as a student, 164
How are the needs of the primary school period being met? (GAIL HARRISON), 717
How modern business may aid in reconstructing the curriculum (CHARLES H. JUDD), 975
How the needs of the kindergarten period are being met (LOUISE M. ALDER), 716
Human element in curriculum making, The (WILLIAM MCANDREW), 980

Ideals of the American public school, The (HARRISON S. ROBINSON), 137
Illiteracy commission, Report of the (CORA WILSON STEWART), 266
Immigrant education (EDWARD A. STEINER), 994
Immigration, State laws for, 686
Immigrant education, Why State leadership is needed for (E. C. VERMILLION), 682
Improvement of teachers, 167
Improving instruction in reading, A State program for (ISOBEL DAVIDSON), 766
Incorporation, Act of, 1
India and the world (HEMENDRA K. RAKHIT), 231
Individual and group behavior, What dominates (V. H. PODSTATA), 708
Individual differences, School counseling and the problem of (VIRGIL E. DICKSON), 864
Individual method, Pupil progress by the (A. J. STODDARD), 996
Individual pupil adjustment, The junior high school as an aid in the solution of (W. G. BATE), 994
Instruction in the use of books and libraries (MARY L. HARRIS), 725
Instructional supervision, What is (FANNIE W. DUNN), 758
Internal factors underlying congenital responses of children (CALVIN P. STONE), 710
International coöperation, 414
International ideals, 418
Inter-racial contacts on the campus, Social conditions arising from (ANNA DUDLEY BLITZ), 632
Is vocational education an essential part of the public school program? (E. E. LEWIS), 1032

JACKSON, JOSEPHINE A. The use of the subconscious as an ally in education, 712
Janitor service (RANDALL J. CONDON), 913
JONES, OLIVE M. Report of committee on the reorganization of elementary education, 255; The child and the commercial moving picture, 538; The principal's multiple functioning, 1018
JONES, ROBINSON G. A program for the coming year, 907
JORDAN, DAVID STARR. What can the colleges and universities do to elevate the moral tone of the students? 667
JUDD, CHARLES H. Educational research and the American school program, 168; How modern business may aid in reconstructing the curriculum, 975; Report of committee to coöperate with the motion picture producers, 243
Junior college in public education, The place of the (SUSAN M. DORSEY), 214
Junior high school, 437
Junior high school as an aid in the solution of individual pupil adjustment, The (W. G. BATE), 994
Junior high school building to the educational program, Adjusting the (E. E. LEWIS), 999
Junior high school, The place and significance of extra-curricular activities in the (WILL FRENCH), 1001
Junior high school, The status of the (THOMAS H. BRIGGS), 999
Junior high schools, Economic and administrative value of the platoon plan in (C. J. TIDWELL), 998

Digitized by Google

Keeping the curriculum alive (AMALIA M. BENGTSON), 968
KELLY, DANIEL J. The training and development of teachers after entering the profession, 1007
KELLY, ROY WILLMARTH. Fundamental objectives in commercial education as viewed by the personnel manager, 554
KERN, O. J. The contribution of the classroom teacher toward progress in education from the viewpoint of agriculture, 584; The elements of rural civilization in the course of study for country schools, 834
KERR, W. H. A measuring stick for libraries of teacher-training institutions, 737; Conference on reading circles, 731
KIMBALL, JUSTIN F. The superintendent's relation to his supervisors, 1013
Kindergarten education, Department of, 705
Kindergarten period are being met, How the needs of the (LOUISE M. ALDER), 716

LAKE, CHARLES H. The stabilizing factor in education, 1023
LANG, ALBERT R. Classroom teachers' organizations, 594
LATHROP, EDITH A. Standardization of rural schools, 345
LAWRENCE, MARY S. United States school libraries in the Pacific Ocean, 727
Leadership in education, 1023
LEE, EDWIN A. Vocational education in California, 1039
Legislative commission, Report of, 397
Legislative division, Report of field secretary, 128
Leisure time (HENRY TURNER BAILEY), 925
LEWIS, E. E. Adjusting the junior high-school building to the educational program, 999; Is vocational education an essential part of the public school program? 1032
Library defined in dollars and cents, The elementary school (C. C. CERTAIN), 646
Library department, program, 719
Library problems in training teachers (MABEL ZOE WILSON), 730
Library resources and objectives (JOY ELMER MORGAN), 727
Libraries in the Pacific Ocean, United States school (MARY S. LAWRENCE), 727
Libraries of teacher-training institutions, A measuring stick for (W. H. KERR), 737
Life membership movement, 93
Life memberships, Active, 135
Local associations, 101

MCANDREW, WILLIAM. The human element in curriculum making, 980
MCCAULEY, Mrs. E. S. H. What the vocational schools are doing for our girls, 1029
MACDONALD, N. C. Rural school administration and supervision, 318
Making the school curriculum (H. B. WILSON), 1010
MARSH, E. P. The contribution of the classroom teacher toward progress in education from the viewpoint of labor, 580
MAXWELL, G. W. Report of committee on American teachers' colleges, 483
Meaning of the world conference, The (E. J. SAINSBURY), 225
Measuring stick for libraries of teacher-training institutions, A (W. H. KERR), 737
Meeting of board of directors, 82
Membership, Confusion in, 89
MERRILL, HARRIET W. The Americanization program of Fresno County, California, 701
Method of teaching typewriting based upon a psychological analysis of expert typing (J. E. COOVER), 561
MILLIKAN, ROBERT A. Science and human affairs, 845
Minutes of the new board of directors, 85
Minutes of new executive committee, 82
Minutes of representative assembly, 36
MOEHLMAN, ARTHUR B. The city school budget, 949
Montana schools, 805
MONTGOMERY, MATTIE M. The contribution of the classroom teacher toward progress in education—in the interest of the Towner-Sterling Bill, 610
Moral tone of the students? What can the colleges and universities do to elevate the (DAVID STARR JORDAN), 667

Digitized by Google

MORGAN, JOY ELMER. Report of committee on standards for educational journals, 637; Report of division of publications, 113; Library resources and objectives, 727
MORSE, EDNA RICH. The needs of the nursery period, 714
MORTENSON, PETER A. Chicago's public school classes for crippled children, 916
Most effective administrative and taxing unit, The (LINNAEUS N. HINES), 281
Motion picture producers, Report of committee to coöperate with (CHARLES H. JUDD), 243
Motion pictures, 542
Moving picture, The child and the commercial (OLIVE M. JONES), 538
MOUSER, R. H. The fundamentals of commercial education as a sales manager sees them, 556
Music education, Department of, program, 733

Nation, The American school program from the standpoint of the (ELLWOOD P. CUBBERLEY), 180
National Council of Education, officers and members for 1923-24, 508
National Council of Education, secretary's minutes, 425, 506
National Education Association, A program for the (WILLIAM B. OWEN), 924
National system of public schools, A unified, universally educated, efficient nation demands a (SAMUEL P. CAPEN), 1003
Nationalized system of education: the spirit of democracy, as well as the American Constitution requires that education be left to the States (M. G. CLARK), 1004
Nations, The hope of the (M. SAWAYANAGI), 222
Nature and importance of behavior in early childhood, The (HILDA M. HOLMES), 707
NEALE, P. W. Social needs in rural life, 363
Necessity of the county unit for the efficient administration of rural schools (BENJAMIN J. BURRIS), 789
Need for vocational education of women and girls, The (RUTH MARY WEEKS), 1043
Need of professional leadership in education, The (J. H. BEVERIDGE), 429
Needs of the nursery period, The (EDNA RICH MORSE), 714
Needs of the primary school period being met? How are the (GAIL HARRISON), 717
New board of directors, Minutes of, 85
New executive committee, Minutes of, 82
NEWLON, JESSE H. Attitude of the teacher toward supervision, 548; Report of the commission on the coördination of research agencies, 390
Non-school activities, Ways and means for a closer union between the school and (WILLIAM WIRT), 444
NORDFELDT, MARGARET D. The Women's foundation for health, 627
Normal schools and teachers colleges, Practical standards for the development of rural education departments in (ROSAMOND ROOT), 784
Normal schools, Department of, program, 737
North Carolina schools, 801
NORTON, J. K. Report of research division, 119
Nursery period, The needs of the (EDNA RICH MORSE), 714

Objectives of part-time education for boys (D. O. BRILLHART), 527
Officers of the Association for 1922-23, 17; for 1923-24, 27
Old-world culture, The American public schools and (H. B. WILSON), 700
One-teacher schools, Instruction in, 812
Open forum on part-time education, 501
Opening addresses, Department of superintendence, 892
Organization, Responsibility of the board of education in modern school (J. H. BENTLEY), 986
Organizing a State school system for effective service (THOMAS H. HARRIS), 990
Outdoor gymnasium (THEODORE SAAM), 911
OWEN, WILLIAM B. A program for the National Education Association, 924
OWSLEY, ALVIN M. What constitutes American citizenship, 900

Pan-Pacific Union and education, The (FRANK F. BUNKER), 139
Parenthood, Education for (ALMA L. BINZEL), 148
Parent power—a school auxiliary (MRS. A. H. REEVE), 176

Digitized by Google

Part of the county superintendent in rural school supervision (A. G. YAWBERG), 772
Part-time and evening school classes, Extending school service in (A. H. EDGERTON), 1025
Part-time education for boys, Objectives of (D. O. BRILLHART), 527
Part-time education, Open forum on, 501
Part-time education, The possibilities of (ROBERT O. SMALL), 494
PATTERSON, EDITH MCCLURE. Thrift education, 147
Pensions, Report of the committee on (PHILIP E. CARLSON), 376
Permanent fund, 58, 62
Personality in teaching, Woman's (A. E. WINSHIP), 544
Personnel manager, Fundamental objectives in commercial education as viewed by the (ROY WILLMARTH KELLY), 554
Physical education, Department of, minutes, 744
PICKELL, FRANK G. Some problems in reorganizing secondary education, 1015
Place and significance of extra-curricular activities in the junior high school, The (WILL FRENCH), 1001
Place and value of extra-curricular activities in the high school, The (H. E. WINNER), 1021
Place of the junior college in public education, The (SUSAN M. DORSEY), 214
Platoon plan in junior high schools, Economic and administrative value of the (C. J. TIDWELL), 998
Plea of an immigrant, The (HELEN HORVATH), 680
PODSTATA, V. H. What dominates individual and group behavior, 708
Possibilities of part-time education (ROBERT O. SMALL), 494
Possibilities of the elementary school principalship from the superintendent's point of view (HERBERT S. WEET), 654
Practical standards for the development of rural education departments in normal schools and teachers colleges (ROSAMOND ROOT), 784
Practical suggestions for the organization of citizenship classes to bring about citizen's participation (FREDERICK P. WOELLNER), 676
Pre-service training of teachers, The (AMBROSE L. SUHRIE), 1006
President's address of music department (GLENN H. WOODS), 734
PRESTON, JOSEPHINE CORLISS. Rural health and sanitation, 352
Primary school period being met, How are the needs of the (GAIL HARRISON), 717
Principal and the superintendent, 1014
Principal's contribution to education, 1019
Principal's multiple functioning, The (OLIVE M. JONES), 1018
Principal's point of view, The project method from the (THOMAS AGNEW), 660
Principals, Supervision by the (JESSIE M. HAMILTON), 545
Principles and types of curricular development (OTIS W. CALDWELL), 962
Pritchett report, 102
Professional and social status of American women teachers, 486
Professional leadership in education, The need of (J. H. BEVERIDGE), 429
Program for the coming year, A (ROBINSON G. JONES), 907
Program for the National Education Association, A (WILLIAM B. OWEN), 924
Program of general sessions, 30
Progress in education from the viewpoint of the American Legion, The contribution of the classroom teacher toward (JAMES K. FISK), 578
Progress in education in 1922 (A. E. WINSHIP), 893
Progress in education, The contribution of the classroom teacher toward (EFFIE MACGREGOR), 618
Project method from the principals' point of view, The (THOMAS AGNEW), 660
Psychological analysis of expert typing, A method of teaching typewriting based upon a, 561
Psychological testing, 173
Psychology of habit formation, The (J. V. BREITWIESER), 558
Public education, The elementary school principal's contribution to (IDE G. SARGEANT), 1019
Public education, The place of the junior college in (SUSAN M. DORSEY), 214
Publications division, 113
Publicity for rural education (CARTER ALEXANDER), 271

Digitized by Google

Public school program, Is vocational education an essential part of the (E. E. LEWIS), 1032
Pupil progress by the individual method (A. J. STODDARD), 996

Quality of teaching, What may de done to improve the (E. C. HARTWELL), 922

RAKHIT, HEMENDRA K. India and the world, 231
RARICK, C. E. Selling rural education to the public in Kansas, 827
Reading, A State program for improving instruction in (ISOBEL DAVIDSON), 766
Reading circles, Conference on (WILLIS H. KERR), 731
Recreation and social life, Rural (MACY CAMPBELL), 358
Recreational reading as part of the present-day curriculum (JAMES F. HOSIC), 724
REEVE, MRS. A. H. Parent power—a school auxiliary, 176
Reference librarian, "Seventeen" and the (LUCILE F. FARGO), 721
References on rural education, 369
Relation between college and secondary school science (JOEL H. HILDEBRAND), 856
Relation between schools and other social agencies (H. RALPH DAVIS), 690
Religious education in Gary, Indiana, 444
Reorganization of education in the United States Government, The (JOHN J. TIGERT), 894
Reorganization of elementary education, Report of committee on the (OLIVE M. JONES), 255
Reorganization of the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades, Report of committee on the (JAMES M. GLASS), 433
Reorganizing secondary education, Some problems in (FRANK G. PICKELL), 1015
Report of auditor, 63
Report of commission on the coördination of research agencies (JESSE H. NEWLON), 390
Report of committee on American teachers colleges (G. W. MAXWELL), 483
Report of committee on character education (MILTON BENNION), 250, 491
Report of committee on foreign relations (AUGUSTUS O. THOMAS), 402
Report of committee on health problems in education (THOMAS D. WOOD), 259, 503
Report of committee on pensions (PHILIP E. CARLSON), 376
Report of committee on resolutions, 54
Report of committee on salaries (E. S. EVENDEN), 241
Report of committee on standards for educational journals (JOY ELMER MORGAN), 637
Report of committee on tenure (HARLAN UPDEGRAFF), 370
Report of committee on the reorganization of elementary education (OLIVE M. JONES), 255
Report of committee on the reorganization of the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades (JAMES M. GLASS), 433
Report of committee on the status of the American woman teacher (ANNA LAURA FORCE), 484
Report of committee on the status of the superintendent (C. E. CHADSEY), 903
Report of the committee on the teaching of democracy (A. DUNCAN YOCUM), 447
Report of committee on thrift education (ARTHUR H. CHAMBERLAIN), 393
Report of committee to coöperate with the American Legion (J. M. GWINN), 399
Report of committee to coöperate with the American School Citizenship League (FANNIE FERN ANDREWS), 396
Report of committee to coöperate with the motion picture producers (CHARLES H. JUDD), 243
Report of Continental Trust Co., 67
Report of editorial council (WILLIAM C. BAGLEY), 257
Report of executive committee for the board of directors, 77
Report of illiteracy commission (CORA WILSON STEWART), 266
Report of legislative commission (GEORGE D. STRAYER), 397
Report of secretary, 86
Report of treasurer, 72
Report of trustees, 58
Report on visual education (L. N. HINES), 531
Reports: American Legion, 399; American school citizenship league, 396; American teachers' colleges, 483; auditor, 63; character education, 250, 491;

Digitized by Google

Continental Trust Co., 67; coördination of research agencies, 390; editorial council, 257; executive committee for board of directors, 77; foreign relations, 402; health problems, 259, 503; illiteracy, 266; legislative, 397; motion picture producers, 243; pensions, 376; reorganization of elementary education, 255; reorganization of seventh, eighth, and ninth grades, 433; resolutions, 54; salaries, 241; secretary, 86; standards for educational journals, 637; status of the American woman teacher, 484; status of the superintendent, 903; teaching of democracy, 447; tenure, 370; thrift education, 393; treasurer, 72; trustees, 58; visual education, 531
Representative assembly, Minutes of, 36
Research agencies, Report of the commission on the coördination of (JESSE H. NEWLON), 390
Research division report, 119
Reserve fund recommended, 92
Resolutions committee, Report of, 54
Resolutions of the department of superintendence, 887
Responsibility of the board of education in modern school organization (J. H. BENTLEY), 986
Responsibility of the State for a program of vocational education (H. B. WILSON), 1034
Responsibility of the superintendent to the public (DAVID A. WARD), 1012
Response to address of welcome (ALBERT E. WINSHIP), 145
Retirement system, 379
REUTERDAHL, ARVID. The contribution of the class room teacher toward progress in education from the viewpoint of business, 588
RICHARDS, FLORENCE LORING. The teaching load of a dean of women in a State teachers college—what shall it be? 635
RITTER, WILLIAM E. Why teach science at all? 854
ROBINSON, HARRISON S. The ideals of the American public school, 137
Rôle of science in education, The (PERCY E. ROWELL), 848
ROOT, ROSAMOND. Practical standards for the development of rural education departments in normal schools and teachers colleges, 784
Round holes, Square pegs and (H. B. BRUNER), 1001
ROWELL, PERCY E. The rôle of science in education, 848
RUCKER, ELIZABETH K. The advantages of geographic districting in the supervision of rural schools, 779
Rural citizenry and vocational education in agriculture, 1036
Rural civilization in the course of study for country schools, The elements of (O. J. KERN), 834
Rural districts, The status of the woman teacher in (MARY C. C. BRADFORD), 490
Rural education, Department of, minutes, 745, 826
Rural education departments in normal schools and teachers colleges, Practical standards for the development of (ROSAMOND ROOT), 784
Rural education, Final report of the committee on (JOHN F. SIMS), 270
Rural education, Publicity for (CARTER ALEXANDER), 271
Rural education, References on, 369
Rural education, The economic background of (AARON SAPIRO), 750
Rural education to the public in Kansas, Selling (C. E. RARICK), 827
Rural health and sanitation (JOSEPHINE CORLISS PRESTON), 352
Rural life conservation, 424
Rural life, Social needs in (P. W. NEALE), 363
Rural recreation and social life (MACY CAMPBELL), 358
Rural school administration and supervision (N. C. MACDONALD), 318
Rural school and its interdependence with the city school system, The new (GRACE G. STANLEY), 643
Rural school curriculum, The (HAROLD W. FOGHT), 303
Rural school supervision, Part of the county superintendent in (A. G. YAWBERG), 772
Rural school, The American school program from the standpoint of the (FLORENCE M. HALE), 202
Rural schools, Consolidation of (ADELAIDE S. BAYLOR), 285
Rural schools, Necessity of the county unit for the efficient administration of (BENJAMIN J. BURRIS), 789
Rural schools, Standardization of (EDITH A. LATHROP), 345
Rural schools, Tests and measurements in (FRED D. CRAM), 322

Digitized by Google

Rural schools, The advantage of geographic districting in the supervision of (ELIZABETH K. RUCKER), 779
Rural teacher training and demonstration schools (JOHN F. SIMS), 308

SAAM, THEODORE. Outdoor gymnasium, 911
SAINSBURY, E. J. The meaning of the world conference, 225
Salaries, Report of committee on (E. S. EVENDEN), 241
Sales manager sees them, The fundamentals of commercial education as a (R. H. MOUSER), 556
SAPIRO, AARON. The economic background of rural education, 750
SARGEANT, IDE G. The elementary school principal's contribution to public education, 1019
SAWAYANAGI, M. The hope of the nations, 222
School administration, Department of, 842
School costs, 929, 938, 944
School costs reduced, 104
School counseling and the problem of individual differences (VIRGIL E. DICKSON), 864
School provisions for the exceptional child (GUY T. BUSWELL), 997
School survey and its consequences, A comprehensive (GEORGE D. STRAYER), 1016
Scientific tests, Secondary school counseling based on (C. L. BIEDENBACH), 868
Science and human affairs (ROBERT A. MILLIKAN), 845
Science in education, The rôle of (PERCY E. ROWELL), 848
Science instruction, Department of, 843
Science, Relation between college and secondary school (JOEL H. HILDEBRAND), 856
Science sequence, Considerations which led to the proposal of a six-year (OTIS W. CALDWELL), 851
Secondary education, Department of, 861
Secondary education reorganized, 1015
Secondary school counseling based on scientific tests (C. L. BIEDENBACH), 868
Selling rural education to the public in Kansas (C. E. RARICK), 827
Secretary's report, 86; business division, 108; department of superintendence, 132, elementary school service, 122; field division, 125; legislative division, 128; publications division, 113; research division, 119
"Seventeen" and the reference librarian (LUCILE F. FARGO), 721
SHANKLAND, S. D. Report of department of superintendence, 132
Silent reading, 769
SIMS, JOHN F. Final report of the committee on rural education, 270; Rural teacher training and demonstration schools, 308; summary and recommendations, 364
SKIDMORE, H. M. To what extent does vocational education in agriculture contribute in producing a trained rural citizenry, 1036
SMALL, ROBERT O. The possibilities of part-time education, 494
SMITH, FLORA D. The work of city supervision, 694
Social agencies, Relation between schools and other (H. RALPH DAVIS), 690
Social conditions arising from the interracial contacts on the campus (ANNE DUDLEY BLITZ), 632
Social life of the high school and some of its problems, The (HARRIET HAYES), 873
Social needs in rural life (P. W. NEALE), 363
Social program of the high school, Educational implications of the (SARAH M. STURTEVANT), 878
Some problems in reorganizing secondary education (FRANK G. PICKELL), 1015
Square pegs and round holes (H. B. BRUNER), 1001
Stabilizing factor in education, The (CHARLES H. LAKE), 1023
Standardization of consolidated schools, The (MACY CAMPBELL), 809
Standardization of rural schools (EDITH A. LATHROP), 345
Standardizing school costs, 938
Standards for educational journals, 637
STANLEY, GRACE G. The new rural school and its interdependence with the city school system, 643
STARK, WILLIAM E. The superintendent and his teachers, 995
State, Budget making and spending by the (FRANK P. GRAVES), 960
State departments of vocational education, 1034
State leadership for immigrant education needed, 682

Digitized by Google

State organization, Types of (LILLIAN P. CLARK), 686
State program for improving instruction in reading, A (ISOBEL DAVIDSON), 766
State school system for effective service, Organizing a (THOMAS H. HARRIS), 990
State supervisor's activities, 764
State, The American school program from the standpoint of the (THOMAS E. FINEGAN), 188
Status of American women teachers, 486, 543
Status of the classroom teacher, The (CORNELIA S. ADAIR), 487
Status of the junior high school, The (THOMAS H. BRIGGS), 999
Status of the woman teacher in rural districts, The (MARY C. C. BRADFORD), 490
STEINER, EDWARD A. Immigrant education, 994
STEINER, H. R. The county superintendent, 320
Stereopticon views, 542
STEWART, CORA WILSON. Report of illiteracy committee, 266
Stimulating the growth of teachers (FREDERICK H. BAIR), 915
STODDARD, A. J. Pupil progress by the individual method, 996
STONE, CALVIN P. Internal factors underlying congenital responses of children, 710
STRAYER, GEORGE D. A comprehensive school survey and its consequences, 1016; Report of the legislative commission, 397; The cost and the fiscal administration of schools: some facts from the educational finance inquiry, 929; The financing of the American schools, 158
STURTEVANT, SARAH M. Educational implications of the social program of the high school, 878
Subconscious as an ally in education, The use of the (JOSEPHINE A. JACKSON), 712
Subsidizing the department of superintendence, 907
Suggestions for county surveys (KATHERINE M. COOK), 342
Suggestions on the report of the committee on the status of the superintendent (N. L. ENGELHARDT), 905
SUHRIE, AMBROSE L. The pre-service training of teachers, 1006
SULLIVAN, JULIA E. Contribution of the classroom teacher toward progress in education in securing equal salary for equal service, 606
Superintendent and his teachers, The (WILLIAM E. STARK), 995
Superintendent, Report of committee on the status of the (C. E. CHADSEY), 903
Superintendent's point of view of the elementary school principalship (HERBERT S. WEET), 654
Superintendent's relationship to his principals, The (CHARLES S. CLARK), 1014
Superintendent's relation to his supervisors, The (JUSTIN F. KIMBALL), 1013
Superintendent's responsibility to the public, 1012
Supervision, Attitude of the teacher toward (JESSE H. NEWLON), 548
Supervision by the principals (JESSIE M. HAMILTON), 545
Supervision of rural schools, 795
Supervision of rural schools, The advantages of geographic districting in (ELIZABETH K. RUCKER), 779
Supervisors, The superintendent's relation to his (JUSTIN F. KIMBALL), 1013
Supreme values in education (ELMER BURRITT BRYAN), 889
Surveying school systems, 172
Suspended animation in English education (JOHN ADAMS), 523

Talent, The conservation of (LEWIS M. TERMAN), 152
Talks to freshmen—their content and value (MARY LOUISE BROWN), 634
Tax problem in relation to the financing of public education, The (ROBERT M. HAIG), 933
Taxation, County unit of, 790
Taxes cut, 104
Taxing unit, The most effective administrative and (LINNAEUS N. HINES), 281
Teacher as a student, The (JAMES F. HOSIC), 164
Teacher training and demonstration schools, Rural (JOHN F. SIMS), 308
Teachers after entering the profession, The training and development of (DANIEL J. KELLY), 1007
Teachers colleges, Report of committee on American (G. W. MAXWELL), 483
Teachers' organizations, 594
Teachers' pensions, Federal aid for (CHARLES E. BROOKS and HERMAN L. EKERN), 378

Digitized by Google

Teaching, Improving the quality of, 922
Teaching load of a dean of women in a State teachers college. What shall it be? The (FLORENCE LORING RICHARDS), 635
Teaching of democracy, Report of the committee on the (A. DUNCAN YOCUM), 447
Tenure, Report of the committee on (HARLAN UPDEGRAFF), 370
TERMAN, LEWIS M. The conservation of talent, 152
Tests and measurements in reading, 768
Tests and measurements in rural schools (FRED D. CRAM), 322
Testing gifted children, 152
THOMAS, AUGUSTUS O. Education and world progress, 237; Report of committee on foreign relations, 402
THRELKELD, A. L. Conclusions based on questionnaire concerning certain aspects of the professional and social status of American women teachers, 486
Thrift education, (EDITH MCCLURE PATTERSON), 147
Thrift education, Report of the committee on (ARTHUR H. CHAMBERLAIN), 393
TIDWELL, C. J. Economic and administrative value of the platoon plan in junior high schools, 998
TIGERT, JOHN J. The reorganization of education in the United States Government, 894
To what extent does vocational education in agriculture contribute in producing a trained rural citizenry? (H. M. SKIDMORE), 1036
Towner-Sterling Bill, 610
Training and development of teachers after entering the profession, The (DANIEL J. KELLY), 1007
Training for teachers, 186
Training of teachers, The pre-service (AMBROSE L. SUHRIE), 1006
Training teachers, Library problems in (MABEL ZOE WILSON), 730
Treasurer's report, 72
TRUMPER, MAY. The county unit in Montana, 805
Two phases of what the schools do in relation to what they cost (HERBERT H. BRUNER), 938
Types of State organization (LILLIAN P. CLARK), 686
Typewriting based upon a psychological analysis of expert typing, A method of teaching (J. E. COOVER), 561

Unified, universally educated, efficient nation demands a national system of public schools, A (SAMUEL P. CAPEN), 1003
United States school libraries in the Pacific Ocean (MARY S. LAWRENCE), 727
Universal education, 422
UPDEGRAFF, HARLAN. Report of the committee on tenure, 370
Use of the subconscious as an ally in education, The (JOSEPHINE A. JACKSON), 712

Verification of act to incorporate, July 10, 1907, 14
VERMILLION, E. C. Why State leadership is needed for immigrant education, 682
Viewpoint of agriculture, The contribution of the classroom teacher toward progress in education from the (O. J. KERN), 584
Viewpoint of business, The contribution of the classroom teacher toward progress in education from the (ARVID REUTERDAHL), 588
Viewpoint of labor, The contribution of the classroom teacher toward progress in education from the (E. P. MARSH), 580
Viewpoint of the business and professional woman, The contribution of the classroom teacher toward progress in education from the (O. LATHAM HATCHER), 593
Viewpoint of the American Legion, The contribution of the classroom teacher toward progress in education from the (JAMES K. FISK), 578
Visual aids and how to handle them (ERNEST L. CRANDALL), 540
Visual education in community center work (SUSAN M. DORSEY), 534
Visual education, Report on (L. N. HINES), 531
Vocational education, Department of, 1025, 1035
Vocational education for women and girls, 1043
Vocational education in agriculture contribute in producing a trained rural citizenry, To what extent does (H. M SKIDMORE), 1036
Vocational education in California (EDWIN A. LEE), 1039

Digitized by Google

Vocational education, Responsibility of the State for a program of (H. B. WILSON), 1034
Vocational schools, 1029, 1032

WARD, DAVID A. Responsibility of the superintendent to the public, 1012
Ways and means for a closer union between the school and the non-school activities (WILLIAM WIRT), 444
WEBER, H. C. The year-round school, 1008
WEEKS, RUTH MARY. The need for vocational education of women and girls, 1043
WEET, HERBERT S. Possibilities of the elementary school principalship from the superintendent's point of view, 654; What the schools do in relation to what they cost, 944
WEST, ANDREW F. The classical investigation, 219
What are the activities of the State supervisor that directly influence the results of instruction (WILLIAM J. HOLLOWAY), 764
What can the colleges and universities do to elevate the moral tone of the students? (DAVID STARR JORDAN), 667
What constitutes American citizenship (ALVIN M. OWSLEY), 900
What dominates individual and group behavior (V. H. PODSTATA), 708
What I most desire of my assistant superintendent (THOMAS R. COLE), 920
What is a citizen? (ARTHUR D. DEAN), 676
What is instructional supervision? (FANNIE W. DUNN), 758
What may be done to improve the quality of teaching (E. C. HARTWELL), 922
What the schools do in relation to what they cost (HERBERT S. WEET), 944
What the vocational schools are doing for our girls (MRS. E. S. H. MCCAULEY), 1029
Who shall make the course of study and how? (ERNEST HORN), 971
Why State leadership is needed for immigrant education (E. C. VERMILLION), 682
Why teach science at all? (WILLIAM E. RITTER), 854
WILBUR, RAY L. Health aspect of the world's children, 219
WILLIAMS, CHARL O. Report of legislative division, 128
Wilson County, N. C., schools, 803
WILSON, H. B. Making the school curriculum, 1010; The American public schools and old-world culture, 700; The new elementary school curriculum, 644; Responsibility of the States for a program of vocational education, 1034
WILSON, MABEL ZOE. Library problems in training teachers, 730
WINN, AGNES S. Report of elementary school service division, 122
WINNER, H. E. The place and value of extra-curricular activities in the high school, 1021
WINSHIP, A. E. Progress in education in 1922, 893; Response to address of welcome, 145; Woman's personality in teaching, 544
WIRT, WILLIAM. Ways and means for a closer union between the school and the non-school activities, 444
WOELLNER, FREDERICK P. Practical suggestions for the organization of citizenship classes to bring about citizen's participation, 676
Woman teacher in rural districts, The status of the (MARY C. C. BRADFORD), 490
Woman's personality in teaching (A. E. WINSHIP), 544
Women in education (PRINCESS SANTA BORGHESE), 228
Women's foundation for health, The (MARGARET D. NORDFELDT), 627
WOOD, THOMAS D. Report of the committee on health problems in education, 259, 503
WOOD, WILL C. Address of welcome, 141; Citizenship through education, 208
WOODS, GLENN H. President's address, 734
Word of greeting from the president of the science department, 844
Work of a city supervisor, The (D. L. HENNESSEY), 698
Work of city supervision, The (FLORA D. SMITH), 694
World conference on education, 106; findings of, 402
World conference, The meaning of the (E. J. SAINSBURY), 225
World progress, Education and (AUGUSTUS O. THOMAS), 237
World's children, Health aspect of the (RAY L. WILBUR), 219

Digitized by Google

World, India and the (HEMENDRA K. RAKHIT), 231

YAWBERG, A. G. Part of the county superintendent in rural school supervision, 772

Year-round school, The (H. C. WEBER), 1008

YOCUM, A. DUNCAN. Report of the committee on the teaching of democracy, 447; Reports on character education objectives, 253

YOST, MARY. The extra-mural activities of a dean of women—what shall they be? 631

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